DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF CHILD LABOUR IN ANAMBRA STATE, NIGERIA

BY

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OCTOBER, 2014

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis titled "**Demographic and Socio-economic Consequences of Child Labour in Anambra State, Nigeria"**was written by me and is a product of my research effort. It has not been presented in any previous application for any degree or diploma. All quotations are indicated and the sources of information are acknowledged by means of references.

…… …….. ……

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CERTIFICATION PAGE

This thesis titled**, "Demographic and Socio-Economic Consequences of Child Labour in Anambra State, Nigeria**" by **Osita Stanley ONYEMELUKWE** meets the regulations that govern the award of Degree in Masters of Science Geography of Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, and is approved for its contribution to knowledge and literary presentation.

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Dedication

This research work is dedicated to Almighty God the most merciful, the Omnipotent and Omniscience God for His grace and kindness during the course of undergoing this program. I also dedicate it to my parents and my big brother Samo for their moral and financial supports during the course of this study.

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ABSTRACT

Child labour participation is inimical, contrary to the Rights of the Child, and threatens holistic child development, the families, State and the nation at large. This study assesses the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour in Anambra State, Nigeria.The objectives were to examine the type of work engaged in by the children, determine the factors responsible for child labour practices, identify the condition of work, assess the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour and lastly ascertain the specific possible impact of child labour on future workforce in the state. A purposive sampling technique was used to select the sampled areas in the study area as well as the respondents. A total of 400 children aged between 04-17 years, who are involved in labourious activities were administered a structured questionnaires to collect data. In addition, Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was also conducted to gather information from child labourers employers. The data wasanalysed using computer SPSS software 19 version. The results are presented using tables and chats.The results indicated that 53.0% of the child labourers are males, child labour participation is found to be higher among older children aged 11-17 years than those aged 4-10. More than half of child labourersare from large household size of 5-9 persons. Out of the entire child labourers, 42.5% are indigenes of Anambra State and 35.0% from Ebonyi State, while the remaininghails from the other surrounding States. Educational status of child labourers shows that 56.5% are in school, while 43.5% are out of school, public school children are the most affected as 77.0% are in public schools, with 66.0% in primary school levels. Out of the entire sampled respondent, 174 (43.5%) are out of school, out of which 95.4% dropped out from school, while 4.6% have never been to school before. Poverty of parents accounted for the major reasons for child's school drop outs. About 73.5% of the child labourers work between 4-6 days a week. Most of the children (71.8%) spend more than 7 hours at work. On the working condition of the respondents, the study found that 50.0% of the child labourers work on temporal basis and the remaining work on either contract or permanent basis, 72.5% starts work at age between 4-10 years, the highest earned monthly income by the children is between ₦2001-₦2500, 64.5% eats twice daily. The study found that 83.5% of the child labourers have encountered various types of dangers relating to the type of work they do. For instance as much as 42.5% have been physically assaulted, more worrisome is the fact that 44.0% and 20.0% have participated in social vices of such as alcohol drinking and drug abuse respectively, while 51.0% suffers from low self-esteem and 25.0% from alienation from friends/family/relation and as much as 87.0% have encountered health related challenges. The finding generally shows that household poverty which is caused by child's parent's low educational attainment and low occupational status accounted for the major reason why children joins labourious activities either to complement the family income or to pay school fees. The study therefore concludes that for child labour incidence to be curbed there is the need to empower parents with education and soft loans to enhance their business since majority of the parents are involved in various types of businesses, this expected to go a long way in reducing household poverty in the state. There is also the need to introduce a free and compulsory primary and secondary education for children of school going ages in the state as it will help to motivate the children to concentrate in school rather than combining school attendance with work due to the need to complement the school fees, which results to, reduced attendance, grade repetitions and the subsequent school withdrawal.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

According to the Child Right's Act 2003, passed into law in the Federal Capital Territory Abuja, a child is a person who has not attained the age of eighteen years. On the other hand, labour according to Macmillan dictionary connotes the aggregate of all human physical and mental effort used in creation of goods and services. Put together, the concept of Child Labour has probably been in existence almost as long as the history of mankind and connotes all economic activities carried out by children regardless of their occupational status (Oloko, 1997). It includes both works that are permissible under the International Labour Organization's (ILO) conventions and that which is not (International Labour Organization-International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour) (ILO-IPEC, 2002). According to United Nation Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF) (2007) Child labour is essentially understood as encompassing monetary or non-monetary activities which are mentally or physically, morally or socially hazardous for children below 15 years.

Across countries and societies, various forms of child labour exists these forms range from trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation, child domestic labour and illicit activities. Other forms include street hawking, waste pickers, company labourers, apprentices, babysitting, barrow pushers and commercial drivers/ conductors/ touts, water vendors, farm workers, house maids, gardeners, cleaners, and other artisans. Some of which are done on contract basis, whereas, some are considered as free services to guardians or relatives who in return pays back in cash or kind to the child or the child’s parent all of which are hazardous to child overall development (Oloko, 1997).

Child labour is prevalent worldwide, occurring both in developing and developed countries (Scanlon, Prior, Lamarao, Lynch and Scanlon. 2002; Zierold, Garman and Anderson, 2004). Children are regarded as the most vulnerable in the society therefore their welfare in a society is an index of social and economic development of that society. Children contribution to the society in adulthood is determined to a large extent by their treatment in their childhood (Ray, 1998). Over the past two decades, the incidence of the use of children for labour outside the homes has been on the increase. To this end, the children-for-labour as a phenomenon has become an intrinsic component of survival for most families. As a result, there is an increase of poverty in many homes in the developing countries (PILER, 2004; Bass, 2004).

UNICEF (1997) argued that more than 650 million children live in poverty while 130 million children do not have access to education and that poverty is the main reason for children working outside their homes. In sub Saharan Africa, this situation has worsened, with most parts of the continent recording prevalence ranges from 20% to 54%. In sub-Sahara Africa, over 35.0% of the children are working and Nigeria has an estimated 15 million child labourers (Bass, 2004; Oloko, 2004). Several factors, such as poverty, low socio-economic status of parents, and cultural and religious factors coupled with the lack of enforcement of labour restrictions and inconsistencies in the anti-child labour legislation, have been identified as reasons for the upsurge and pervasiveness of the child labourers, especially in the developing countries. These factors, have thus, accounted for the high child employment rate of 90.0% of world's total for Africa and Asia (Bass, 2004; Oloko, 2004; Ruwanpura and Rai, 2004).

According to UNICEF (2008) an estimated 218 million children aged 5-17 are engaged in child labour, excluding child domestic labour all over the world. Some 126 million of these children are believed to be engaged in hazardous situation or condition such as working in mines,

working with chemicals and pesticides in agriculture or working with dangerous machinery. The highest numbers of child labourers are in the Asia/Pacific region, where there are 122 million working children, whereas in Africa, the highest proportions of child labourers are in Sub-Saharan region, where more than 49 million are involved in work (Bass, 2004). In ILO report of 2004, child labour incidence was estimated at 218 which rose to 245 in her 2007 related research. However, from the 2004 report of 218 million, children aged, 5–10, are involved in child labour world-wide; wherein, 73 million of those working children are less than 10 years old; every year, 22,000 children die in work-related accidents; 8.4 million children are trapped in slavery, trafficking, debt bondage, prostitution, pornography, and other illicit activities; and 1.2 million of these children have been trafficked (ILO, 2005).

Furthermore, ILO (1998) states that the use of children as labourers has a global dimension and cut across every continent. It further argues that in Asia, child labour incidence constitutes a prevalence rate of about 61%; 32% in Africa; 17% in Latin America; 1% in US, Canada, Europe, and other wealthy nations. The proportion of child labourers varies a lot among countries and even regions inside those countries. In some regions, the situation has worsened (Ennew, 2002; Brown, Larson and Saraswathi, 2002; Bohning, 2003; Ruwanpura and Rai, 2004). UNICEF (1998) argues that in Africa, one out of three children is at work, and, in Latin America, one in five children works. In both continents, only a tiny proportion of child workers are involved in the formal sector and the vast majority of works are carried out in the informal sectors, that is, within the household, in the fields (farms) and/or on the streets.

It is important to note that the problem of child labour, is not peculiar to developing countries or Africa, but it is a problem that exists, even in developed countries. In the United States, for example, it is estimated that about 72,700 children worked in garment sweatshops

(Evensen, Schulman, Runyan, Zakocs and Dunn 2000; Kruse and Mahony, 2000; Moskowitz, 2000). Besides United States, the use of child labourers is also very prevalent in other countries outside Africa. Some studies done in specific countries, such as Russia (Stephenson, 2002), India (Mishra, 2000; 2001), Pakistan (Ercelewa and Nauman, 2001; PILER, 2004), Bangladesh, (Alam, Mondal and Rahmanm, 2008), Europe (Liemt, 2004), and among the Chinese in Europe (Yun, 2004), confirmed that the engagement of children in labourious economic activities outside the home is still very prevalent. It is also pertinent to note, however, that in some of these countries, most of the child labourers are likely to be migrants. According to the ILO (2005) in northern Europe, for example, child labourers are likely to be Africans or Turkish; in Argentina, many are Bolivians or Paraguayans; in Thailand, many are from Myanmar.

In Nigeria, there is an upsurge in the incidence of child labourers in the past two decades, making it a full blown industry, especially in the urban areas. This is largely attributed to the economic situation of the country, which has led to the involvement of the children as substantial contributors to their family's incomes by working as carriers in market places, street hawkers, workshop apprentices, domestic servants, motor park touts, and bus conductors in the urban centers (Onuikwe, 1998; Okafor and Bode-Okunade, 2003; Okafor and Amayo, 2006; Folarin, 2009; Tade, 2010; Taiwo, 2010). Over 4 million children in Nigeria are engaged in economic or labour activities, working long hours (average of 12 hours, daily) in poor and unhealthy conditions and they receive a token fee less than 1/3 of legislated minimum wage (Oloko, 2004). Over the years, the use of children for labour outside the home has continued to change in form and character in Nigeria (Okpukpara and Odurukwe, 2003).

Okoye and Tanyi (2010) argue that a critical look at the socio-economic context of child labour in Nigeria reveals that there is a difference between the socially accepted gradual

exposure of a child to work and the exploitation or gross undermining of the development prospects of the child in the labour process. In other words, work can be a form of learning and self-expression as well as impetus for growth, but become dangerous when it turns into labour or becomes a demanding drudgery characterized by repetition, physical exertion, and with adverse impacts on the physical, mental welfare of the child. As Okpara (1996) noted that children in the sub-culture of the Igbo of south-eastern Nigeria are trained early to rehearse adult roles through involvement in their parent's social and economic activities which provides them opportunities to act out behaviour required in mature statuses-mainly adult statuses. Okpara (1996) went on to argue that the idea of an obnoxious child labour is a product of contemporary times and related to the exploitative utilization of children in paid labour for the economic benefit of other. Child labour in Nigeria is visibly high in labour activities with a small economics return and in those activities that requires considerable degree of itinerancy. According to ILO (1988), the economic reasons behind the use of children in labour is underlined by the fact that child labour invariably lowers cost on personnel, in a way also it contribute to unemployment and lower wages for the adult working population of a society.

The use of children as labourers has a number of causes. Poverty is widely considered the main reason why the children do works that are inappropriate for their ages outside their homes. Across countries and cultures, other causes include: family expectations and traditions; institutional collapse; decay in social services, such as health care, education, and transportation; public opinion that downplays the risk of early work for children; violation of labour standards by the employers; illiteracy, and family disorganization; traditional beliefs; massive rural-urban migration; low economic cost and large family size (Lopez–Calva, 2001; Brown, Larson, and

Saraswathi, 2002; Tomasevski, 2003; Bass, 2004; Liebel, 2004; Nwaobiala, 2006; Alam, Mondal and Rahmanm, 2008).

Psacharopoulos, (1997); Blunch and Verner, (2000); Bonner, (1993), argued that child labour income is a clear response to improving household living standards even if it is in a short run-on the other hand, child labour makes the household deeper below the poverty line by taking the child out of school (which is an important human capital accumulation) thereby making the child to contribute marginally in household income in long run as well as the society at large. For instance, In the area of education, the report issued by the nation's Ministry of Education (Olatunji, 2006; Adeoye, 2007) showed that out of 42.1 million Nigerian children eligible for primary education; only 22.3 million were in school. The remaining 19.8 million were out of school. The situation for secondary schools, where most adolescents fall into, was even worse. Of 33.9 million of children eligible for secondary education, only 6.4 million were in school. That is not because parents are not desirous of sending their children to school, but because of a lack of economic power to actualize a wish for a better future of the children. Consequently, these children may work to meet the immediate and present needs of their poverty stricken families, but they are compromising not only their future, but the collective future of the nation and will also grow up to become a burden, rather than asset, to him/herself and or the nation, because the child will lack basic survival skills and knowledge that will benefit him/her and the nation, in the long run (Okpukpara, Chine, Uguru and Chukwuone, 2006; Ayoade, 2010).

However, the knowledge of the demographic and socio-economic implication of child labour in Anambra state is therefore particularly important because it is the major determinants of the future qualities of the work force and also the extent to which the sustainable development, Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) could be achieved. This research

intends to examine the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour in the study area.

1.2 The Research Problem

In most African countries, a large proportion of households still live below the poverty line of less than $5 US Dollars per day, due to factors such as weak economic base, galloping inflationary measures, high rate of unemployment, the inadequate incomes of parents as well as ineffective machinery to enforce child welfare policies. The result is thataffected children in the rural areas find it difficult to survive as a result of economic status of their parent. These adverse socio- economic situation as highlighted above which are also compounded by the challenging political and cultural crises in many countries, as evidenced by civil wars, genocide, famine, drought, HIV/AIDS epidemic, and structural adjustment programs makes life in the rural areas unbearable for the children. Consequently, African children who are always at the receiving end are often placed in the margins of public arena through their joining both the wage and non-wage markets, some of these activities are sometimes hazardous to their health and education (Marcoux 1994 and Grier 2004).

At the household level, children's economic production has become an important aspect of economic survival strategies. Many children spend several hours working outside the home in order to bring additional income to the household. A significant proportion are involved in petty trading and services (as street hawkers, domestic servants, and in apprenticeship positions) or even working as street beggars in urban areas (Verlet 1994 and Amin 1994). Therefore, their involvement in these activities poses serious threats to the continue survival of the society; distort government policy with respect to education of the youth due to high dropout rate. It distorts acquisition of vocational skills and relevant education thereby destroying the economic

sector (Okumadewa, 2001). Also physical stress due to the age and maturation of the child is affected leading to low concentration at school and breakdown of health of the child.

Research has indicated the inherent hazards and risks that children often experience when working in exploitative industries. Physical consequences that range from malnourishment, diseases, musculo-skeletal disorders from heavy labour, physical and sexual abuse, to injuries, exposure to toxic agents, and prolonged working in cramped and hazardous conditions have been well documented (Das and Sekhar, 1992; Gulrajani, 1994; Harari, Forastiere and Axelson , 1997; Hasan and Debnath, 2000 and Postol, 1993). These physical effects of the industrial sector have been detrimental to the well-being of the child worker. Socially, children in industries have been found to experience negative consequences to their educational development and performance. The prevalence of illiteracy, low school attendance, and low enrollment has been attributed to children's economic participation (Weiner, 1991; Hasan and Debnath, 2000). Furthermore, the mental health of the child is negatively affected. Indeed, children engaged in hazardous industries have been observed to suffer from oral abuse from their employers, consistent fear of job termination, low self-esteem, and a loss of imagination and future direction in life (Das and Sekhar, 1992; Gulrajani, 1994; Hasan and Debnath, 2000).

However, despite the above negative consequences of child labour on both the child's health, family and the society at large, the prevalence rate is still high especially with reference to developing countries. A review according to (UNICEF, 2012) report on child labour, the prevalence rate of developing countries, noted that countries with high percentage children between the ages of 10-14 years engaged in the work force are: Burkina Faso, 38%; Niger, 43%; Kenya, 26%; Nigeria, 43%; Haiti, 21%; Cameroon, 31%; Ethiopia 53%; Rwanda 35%; Chad, 48%; Benin, 46%; Afghanistan and Bangladesh 13%; India, 12%; Paraguay, 15% and Peru,

34%. This means that the greatest numbers of child labourers are in developing countries, which corresponds with ILO, (1996) report of Asia with 44.6 million children employed, or 13 percent in the 10-14 age group; Africa has the highest percentage of those employed in this age group, at 26.3 percent, or 23.6 million workers. Hence, these reports show a problem of major concern which consequently stems largely out of the stark realizations that in spite of the numerous attentions given to the issue, it seems to elude a meaningful solution, in fact rather than abate, child labour has persisted.

In Nigeria like in most developing countries, millions of children are engaged in economic or labour activities, working long hours (average of 12 hours, daily) in poor and unhealthy conditions. According to the 2010 revision of the World Population Prospects the total population of Nigeria was put at 158 423 000 in 2010, with the proportion of children below the ages of 15 consisting of 42.8%, which translates to about 37.1 million children. However, the actual number of children, involved in exploitative or hazard work in Nigeria is not known, due to the wide spread of child workers in the informal sector and agriculture. They receive a token fee less than 1/3 of legislated minimum wage (Oloko, 2004). Yet on daily basis, desperate impoverished Nigerian parents are forced to adopt various clandestine measures to keep their families afloat in the absence of any social safety net. The deplorable situations of most families in Nigeria have pushed the children out of their own homes to work in urban centres to earn money to assist their families, with little or no prospect of them acquiring their formal education, which would have broken the cycle of poverty, inherited from their parents (Isamah and Okunola, 2002 and Ayoade, 2010).

On the other hand, since after the creation of Anambra state in 1976, the state population has been on increase, which is attributable to improvement in access to medical services which

has reduced the rate of infant mortality. This development has resulted to increase in the number of surviving children, whereas, due to high rate of family poverty, unemployment/under-employment, illiteracy of parents among others. The children becomes direct victim of the poverty level of his/her parents and are hence made participate in various economic activities as a means to complement the family income.

Moreso, according to the human development index report (HID) which measures human achievements in the most basic human capabilities, ranked Nigeria 151th out of 174 countries in 1998. However, it is worth to note that children labourers activities varies between continents, nations, regions as well as between rural and urban centres (Okafor, 2010). The age range and sexes also varies across tribes, cultures, religion and socio-economic conditions of the parents in Nigeria (Adewuyi, 1998 and Oloko, 2004). Hence, there is the need to critically study the incidence in Anambra state so as to ascertain its implication on the wealth-being and general development of the state.

It is worth to note that there is a large body of literature on child labour across the world, some of which focused on the determinants of child labour and policy measures aimed at combating it in Asia (Khatar, 1998; Saha, 1995; Boyd, 1994; Gulrajani 1994; Das and Sekhar, 1992; Ahmed, 1991; Kanbargi, 1988; Sarma, 1979); in Latin America (Buechler, 1997; Sacho-Liao, 1994; Cespedes and Zamara, 1994); in Africa (Bass, 2004; Amin, 1994)and in Nigeria (Oloko, 1990; 1992 and 1999; UNICEF, 2004; Imam, 1998; Onuikwe, 1998; Okpukpara and Odurukwe, 2006).

Additionally, much of what we know about the impacts of child labour is based on speculative evidence from estimates prepared by the International Labour Organization (ILO, 1991; 1996). Research on children in Nigeria tend to address child abuse in general terms with

skeletal reference to child labour (see for instance: Okeahialam, 1984; Obikeze, 1984; Onwuzurike, 1986). Whereas, others Aderinto (2000); Olutayo (1994) and Oloko (1994) focus on street children who ran away from homes for various reasons and their survival mechanisms. While studies of this nature are informative, they preclude a household analysis that is explicitly developed for understanding the forms of child labour and its consequences. Anambra state is also not left-out as researchers have also carried out studies in the state with regards to child labour. For instance, Okoye and Tanyi (2010) investigated the perceptions of Nigerians on child labour. Using self-administered questionnaires, they sampled 360 respondents in Onitsha metropolis of Anambra State, Nigeria. The findings indicated that majority (70.6%) of the respondents perceive such chores like baby-sitting, fetching water, splitting firewood, sweeping, farming and cooking as child labour. Also, sex of the respondents was found to be the most important predictor of perception of chores that constitute child labour. The study went ahead to make some recommendations, one of which is the need to use various means to create public awareness of the danger of child labour.

Despite all these efforts, to the best of my knowledge, none of these have looked at child labour from the demographic and socio-economic implication point of view in Anambra state and in Nigeria as well, where a large number of children are found in urban/rural informal economy.

This research work hence attempts to remedy the knowledge gap in the literature by focusing on the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour with reference to Anambra state in Nigeria. More specifically, this research is aimed to address the following research questions:

i. What type of work are the children engaged in?

ii. What are the factors that make these children work?

iii. What are the conditions under which the children work?

iv. What are the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour?

1.3 Aim and Objectives of Study

The aim of this study is to assess the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour in Anambra state. This will be achieved through the following specific objectives, to;

i. examine the type of work engaged in by the children

ii. determination of factors responsible for child labour practices in the state.

iii. identify the specific conditions under which the children work.

iv. assess the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour in the state.

v. ascertain the specific possible impacts of child labour on the future workforce in the state.

1.4 Research Hypothesis

From the empirical evidence, threenull hypothesis were explored in the research:

i. Child's reason(s)for working has no relationship with their socio-economic background

ii. Age and Sex do not have relationship with the type of job engaged inby the child labourer

iii. There is no significant relationship between the number of hours spent at work with the socio-economic background of the child labourers

1.5 Justification of the Study

Children constitute not only a formidable demographic force, but also make up the next generation of parents, workers and leaders. Their well-being, therefore, has ramifications not only for their own lives, but also for the lives of children they bring into the world, and for the

societies they will build and maintain. Their ability to fill these roles effectively depends on the support of their families, communities and on the commitment of their governments to their development.

The prevalence of child labour is high in Anambra state as a cursory observation will reveal a gradual, but steady increase in child participation in economic activities and thisincidence has been on the increase in the past few decades. This is attributed to various reasons such as; high level of poverty, family expectations, institutional collapse, illiteracy, low economic costs, large family size to mention a few. This is regarded as detrimental to not only the child's welfare and development, but also to the society at large (Okpukpara *et al*, 2006;Ayode, 2010). This research assesses the demographic trends and socio-economic consequences of child labour in Anambra state.

Additionally, accurate data on the number of children in economic activities, and the forms of child labour in Anambra state as in Nigeria is still inadequate and its demographic and socio-economic effects on the economy has not been studied. Therefore, a study on the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour in the state, will help to justify the need for stakeholders to take necessary measures to curb the incidence by formulating policies which will help to ensure that every child is given every available opportunity to live, survive and develop their full potentials for the future challenges by making sure that all educational and youth programs are geared towards achieving this goal.

Thus, the data generated herein, would form a data base for consultation in subsequent similar studies. This study will also serve as important record and reference materials for planners, international organizations such as, UNICEF, ILO, government and non-governmental organizations in the state and Nigeria at large that may have interest in child labour or its related

issues in the future. More so, from a policy standpoint, this study is important because, on the one hand, its findings will shade light on the much debated harmful effects of child labour on children's educational development, gender/age variations of the affected children, and on the other hand, its socio-economic consequences in the state general development.

1.6 Scope of the Study

Child Labour is an encompassing concept and cuts across countries and culture. Different researchers have explored it in different dimensions. This study were limited to the demographic, socio-economic consequences of child labour on the wealth-being and general developments of the state. The state is made up of 21 Local Government Areas. For the purpose of the study, 3 (three) LGAs was systematically selected out of the 21 LGAs, each of which was selected from the 3 senatorial districts of the state which in all formed the spatial units of the study. Questionnaires were designed and administered to the children between the ages of 4-17 in the selected areas of study. This study was carried out within a period of 8 months.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Child labour is a topical issue of global concern but statistics on the subject are often underestimated partly because of difficulties and also because of the differences in the design and implementation of surveys (ILO, 1997). However, it is an incidence that occurs in both developed and developing countries, though the prevalence, forms and consequences varies across continents, countries, regions and states (Scanlon, Prior, Lamarao, Lynch and Scanlon, 2002 and Zierold, 2004). Putting reports from various researchers across the globe, it reveals an alarming prevalence rates. For instance according to (ILO-IPEC, 2002) reports it is estimated that about 352 million children are engaged in some form of economic activity in the world, with about 120 million fully at work in developing countries. Most of child labour takes place in Asia, the Pacific and Africa (Omokhodion and Omokhodion, 2004 and Psacharopoulos, 1997). In most parts of Africa the prevalence ranges from 20% to 54% (UNICEF, 1997).

However, the bulk of the literature on child labour is focused on the determinants of child labour and on the moral imperative to prevent exploitative labour practices, supposedly because knowing the determinants and moral imperatives is essential for establishing policy targets and instruments to combat child labour. A review of literature on the socio-economic and demographic consequences of child labouris instead very small and scattered. However understanding the socio-economic and demographic consequences of child labour as well as the consequences of reducing child labour is equally important for choosing the right policies and avoids unexpected counter-effects. The purpose of this work is to provide, through a review of the empirical literature, a structured picture of what is known and what should be known on the socio-economic and demographic consequences of child labour on the affected child, family and on the wealth/well-being of the state at large.

2.2 CONCEPT OF CHILD LABOUR

The concept of child labour does not align to an easy definition. This is because the person considered to be a child in one context may not be a child in another while labour in one may not be so in another. Basu (1998) stated that the definitional problem stems from two extremes, at one; all non-educational non-leisure time of individuals below a certain age can be counted as child labour. At the other only full-time employment in economic activity would be counted. The former includes light work after school work during school holidays, which helps in skill acquisition while; the latter excludes part-time engagement in such horrendous activities as child prostitution.

On the other hand, another part of the problem arises from the conception of most people of child labour to mean "bad" child labour such as prostitution or scavenging or backbreaking work on a construction site or long hours in a carpet factory etc. such bad child labour can be part-time or full time and a child can both engage in schooling and in 'bad' child labour. The term child labour therefore covers a wide range of situations, to which the ethical economic and legal responses could be different.

In defining child labour, the concept of child should be defined and this term is used to refer to different people in different places. In the west for instance age is used to determine who a child is but in many societies, cultural and social factors are used (Rodgers & Standing 1981). The evolution of a child to adulthood passes through socially and biologically defined life phases over which the degree of dependence and the need for protection of the child gradually declines. For example, in many societies an apprentice even if only eight or nine years old is often considered a child, a determination based on social status rather than age (Morile, 1981). In this sense, many societies especially poor rural ones do not view child work as 'bad' rather, it is part

of the socialization process which gradually introduces the child into work activities and teaches the child survival skills. This view is present in many African countries including Nigeria (Bekombo, 1981 and Agiobu – Kemmer, 1992). However, for the purpose of this study, the definition of a child in Nigeria as in accordance with the Child Right's Act 2003, passed into law in the Federal Capital Territory Abuja will be considered. This law defines a child is a person who has not attained the age of eighteen years.

The concept of work is also equally problematic to apply to the range of activities which children do like domestic work, to work in the household enterprise or farm, trading or heavy physical work (Rodgers and Standing 1981). The definition should consider the arrangement whether it is exploitative or it takes the form of bonded labour, quasi-slavery of feudal relationship. Any work that a person engages at full-time at too early an age (say less than 15 years) and works too many hours or when the work puts excessive physical, social and psychological strains on the person and hampers the person's development in these areas (social, physical and psychological) (UNICEF 1986; ILO, 1992) is considered child labour. Moreso, Ashagrie (1993) is of the opinion that child is considered or classified as a labourer if the child is economically active. That is the child is gainfully employed or does work on a regular basis for which he or she is enumerated or which results in output destined for the market.

By and large, child labor in this paper shall be conceived as the engagement of a person below the age of 18 in economic or remunerated activities. This engagement which may have physical, social and psychological effects on the person with implication in psychomotor manipulation, cognitive co-ordination and Affective distortion of the self of the participants, as well as the family and the society at large, thereby making it a social problem.

It is also works that are essentially exploitative and injurious to the physical, social, cognitive and moral development of the child. It involves young persons who are exposed to long hours of work in a dangerous or unhealthy environment with too much responsibility for their age and at the expense of their schooling.

2.3 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CONSEQUENCES OF CHILD LABOUR BASED ON THE TYPES OF WORK ENGAGED IN

The globalization of the economy has led to the desire for cheap labour and profit maximization, especially in the developing countries of which Nigeria is inclusive (Togunde and Carter 2008). However, one of the major backlash of this global development and expansion of various sectors of the economy has been the exploitation of children in terms of low wages and their deplorable working conditions. Children all over the world especially in developing countries are made to work in diverse labourous activities where their social, mental, physical as well as their over-all growth and development are being undermined. As Okpukpara and Odurukwe (2003) opined that over the years the use of child for labour outside the home has continued to change in form and character in Nigeria. A review of the many dynamics of child labour in Nigeria can be captured in this study in the following forms: The socio-demographic consequences of child labour according to the sectors of the economy where children are engaged in labourious activities such as the industrial, agricultural, and sales and service sectors of the economy as well as the inherent location (rural or urban) of the children's work.

2.3.1 Socio-demographic Consequences of Child Labour in the Industrial Sector.

This sectorincludes mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction, and public utilities (electricity, gas and water) etc. According to ILO (1996) report, 7.0% of children between the ages of 4-17 years are working in this sector globally. The globalization of the economy has led to the desire for cheap labour and profit maximization, especially in urban areas of Asian and Latin American regions. However, one major backlash of this global development and spread of industries has been the exploitation of children in terms of low wages and their deplorable working conditions. For countries of Africa, these industries have not fully spread and developed as such depends solely on cheap labourers especially the children as a major source of employment due mostly to political instability (Bass, 2004; Manda Kimalu, Nafula, Kimani, Nyaga, Mutua *et al*., 2003). Research has indicated the inherent hazards and risks that children often experience when working in exploitative industries. Physical consequences that range from malnourishment, diseases, musculo-skeletal disorders from heavy labour, physical and sexual abuse, to injuries, exposure to toxic agents, and prolonged working in cramped and hazardous conditions have been well documented (Das and Sekhar, 1992; Gulrajani, 1994; Harari, Forastiere and Axelson, 1997; Hasan and Debnath, 2000; Postol, 1993). These physical effects of the industrial sector have been determined to be detrimental to the well-being of the child worker. Socially, children in industries have been found to experience negative consequences to their educational development and performance.

The prevalence of illiteracy, low school attendance, and low enrollment has been attributed to children's economic participation (Hasan and Debnath, 2000; Weiner, 1991). Furthermore, the mental health of the child is negatively affected. Indeed, children engaged in hazardous industries have been observed to suffer from oral abuse from their employers,

consistent fear of job termination, low self-esteem, and a loss of imagination and future direction in life (Das and Sekhar, 1992; Gulrajani, 1994; Hasan and Debnath, 2000).

2.3.2 Socio-demographic Consequences of Child Labour inAgricultural Sector.

This sector comprises activities in farming, hunting, fishing, livestock production and forestry. ILO (2012) argued that worldwide, agriculture is the sector where by far the largest share of child labourers is found nearly 60 percent. Over 129 million girls and boys aged 5 to 17 years old work in crop and livestock production, helping supply some of the food and drink we consume and the fibres and raw materials we use to make other products. This figure includes child labourers in fisheries and forestry. Almost 70 percent of child labourers are unpaid family workers (ILO/Global Report, 2010). Agriculture is one of the three most dangerous sectors in terms of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases.

When children are forced to work long hours, their ability to attend school or vocational training is limited, preventing them from gaining education that could help lift them out of poverty. Girls are particularly disadvantaged as they often undertake household chores. Much of agricultural work can be hazardous, especially when health and safety standards are low, and can cause sickness, injury or even death. Children are particularly at risk as their bodies and minds are still developing, and they are more vulnerable to hazards such as pesticides. The negative health consequences of their work can last into adulthood and this to a large extent affects economic values to their families, state and the nation at large.

In a related research carried out in Ghana by Mull and Kirkhorn (2005) they assert that the largest proportion (62.5%) of working children of both sexes aged 5–17 are engaged in agricultural work to some degree; however, a greater proportion of rural children (73.6%) works in agriculture compared with urban children (21.5%). Overall, an estimated 21.7% of Ghana's

children are engaged in economic activity, with a higher percentage in rural areas (39.7%) compared with urban areas (19.8%). Rural children and young people are also more economically active at younger ages than other children in Ghana, with the highest proportion of children in the age 5–9 categories (70.0%) involved in some aspect of agricultural work. The proportion of older children working in the agricultural sector decreases with age, falling to 57.1% in the 15–17 age category, although they are involved more often in hazardous work.

Arat, (2002), Gill, (1994), International Labour Conference, (1996), Longford, (1995) and Sancho- Liao, (1994) all argued that in the rural sector employment where agricultural activities prevail, some children work on family farms while others are employed on farms outside of the sphere of the familial household. In both cases, child labour has been found to have negative consequences for the children. The heavy and intensive labour that children undergo in the fields may lead to lack of pay, long hours on the job, physical exhaustion, physical abuse, and exposure to toxic pesticides and herbicides (Arat, 2002; Gill, 1994; International Labour Conference, 1996; Longford, 1995; Sancho- Liao, 1994). In addition, studies that are particularly focused on child agricultural workers in Africa have recognized a high incidence of injury, inferior living conditions resulting from substandard housing, poor access to clean water and food, poor sanitation, and low wages (Anyanwu, 1993; Francavilla and Lyon, 2002; Manda *et al*, 2003).

It has also been noted that children employed in the agricultural sector experience mental and social consequences. For instance, in one Latin American study, child workers in agriculture have been perceived negatively and their employment has been a source of tension and change of interfamilial relations (Wyer, 1986). In another study conducted in Asia, child labour has been found to negatively affect the educational outcomes of the children, but these effects vary by the

gender of the child (Hazarika and Bedi, 2003). Furthermore, in the region of Africa, particularly in rural Nigeria, it has been detected that child workers engaged in farming have lower school attendance compared to their urban working peers (Robson, 2004). However, there are inconclusive results regarding the effects of agricultural work on children's leisure time (Francavilla and Lyon, 2002; Grootaert, 1999).

2.3.3 Socio-demographic Consequences of Child Labour in the Sales and Service Sector.

These sectors consists of wholesale and retail trade; restaurants and hotels; transport, storage, and communications; finance, insurance, real-estate, and business services; and community/social/personal services. Children in these sectors are found in and around the streets, neighbourhoods, market squares, institutions, major high ways and residential houses. ILO (1996) puts the global figure of children in these areas at 25.6% and usually comprising of children between the ages of 4-17 years old. Nonetheless, Edelweiss (2001) opined that having a household help is a historically embedded practice of middle and upper class families almost all over the world. Many children from poor families are engaged in this work, some as young as eight years old. While there are cases of domestic child labourers who are actually poorer relatives of the employers and provided opportunities to go to school while working, majority of them are in exploited conditions. Many are victims of trafficking, and are bonded by debt to their employers. They have long working hours, with very little opportunity for rest. They are exposed to hazards while doing heavy household work. And most of them are victims of verbal, physical, and sexual abuse. Children in this form of service sector otherwise known as domestic child labourers are among the most difficult to see and reach as they are of course hidden in the privacy of our homes.

However, children are engaged in the sales and service sector economy in both rural and urban areas as street hawkers, domestic servants, vendors, car washers, beggars, and even prostitutes. In some studies, children employed in this sector are regarded as "street children" or "children of the street" who ran away from parental or guardian abuse, leaving them to eke out a living on their own (Aderinto, 2000; Verma, 1999). Yet, other studies regard children as workers from legitimate households who assist their parents by contributing financially to the sustenance of the households where they live and come from (Togunde and Carter, 2006).

Ugochukwu, Okeke and Onubogu (2010), Singh, (1990) and Omokhodion, (2006) submitted that in sales sectors especially street hawking, boys outnumbered girls and these researchers also pointed out that children between age bracket of 8-19 years are mostly involved. The researchers went on to give a plausible justification for the variations to be that maybe that boys become independent from an earlier age and girls are taught to cope with poverty while staying at home. To support this claim, Scanlon *et al*(2002) opined that the gender difference may be because of alternative strategies open to girls such as mothering younger siblings, domestic employment and prostitution. Traditionally, our girls tend to be involved in domestic child labour as househelps (service sectors) than elsewhere.

Due to their distinctive physical and mental appearance, their little experience about work, and their little awareness of potential risks associated with jobs they perform, children are more prone to a variety of work-related health problems, including injuries and illnesses, than adults who perform the same work (Ashagrie, 1998). Physical and health consequences of children participating in the sales and service sector have been identified in the Latin American, Asian, and African regions of which Nigeria is inclusive. Child workers suffer from various diseases such as respiratory problems, injuries and accidents, physical and sexual abuse such as

rape and molestation, malnourishment, extortion of income, police harassment, and participation in harmful or delinquent activities (Ali, Shahab, Ushijima and Muynck, 2004; Hope, 2005; Manda *et al*., 2003; Taracena and Tavera, 2000; Verma, 1999). In other studies, child labourers in these sectors faces robbery, inadequate sleep due to fatigue and long hours on the job, and confinement in juvenile homes (Aderinto, 2000; Charles and Charles, 2004).

Moreso, socially children engaged in the sales and service sector of the labour market encounter problems related to their mental well-being. Stigmatization from the press and public, feelings of disheartenment, stress and irritability, personality disorders and anti-social behavior, and alienation and isolation from their family have been identified (Amin, 1994; Gill, 1994; Grier, 2004; Makhoul *et al*., 2004; Taracena and Tavera, 2000; Verma, 1999). Furthermore, similar to other sectors of children's employment, child labour in the sales and service economy in the less developing countries has a significant negative effect upon the level of education, school attendance, grades, literacy, leisure time, and overall human capital formation of the child worker (Binder and Scrogin, 1999; Duryea and Arends-Kuenning, 2003; Francavilla and Lyon, 2002; Grootaert, 1999; Singh, 1999). In addition, other studies have noted that child labourers tend to keep bad company and are negatively pressured by peers to engage in delinquent behaviours (Gill, 1994; Verma, 1999). One common thread emerging from the synthesis of literature in all the three sectors is that child labour has detrimental effects for children's health, social, and educational wellbeing which directly and indirectly affects the society at large since children of today will eventually become the future adult labour force, parents and leaders.

2.4 ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF CHILD LABOUR.

The economic consequences of child labour are enormous. Many of the greatest economic problems faced in the developing countries like Nigeria in general and Anambra state in particular are further exacerbated by child labour. These effects include population growth, underestimated GDPs, unemployment, insufficient wage rates, limited human capital, and diminishing international trade, slow technological progress. However, the solution to these problems is the key to the economic growth of the country.

From human capital point of view, If one adopts Heckscher & Ohlin's theory and the view of Paul Samuelson that developing nations are to provide labour while developed nations provide capital in the international market, it is clear that a healthy and at least minimally educated population is necessary for economic growth. According to Paul Romer's theory that technological innovation is required for economic growth, education is a prerequisite innovation. In both scenarios the health and education of the population is necessary.

Education outcomes are greatly affected by child labour, children who work are more likely to repeat grades (Galal, 2003; Sassanpour, 2008; Yount, 2004) Children who work are forced to take time away from classes and homework. They are also more tired than their peers and are unable to concentrate. In addition, children who work often no longer prioritize school. Work brings much greater gains for them in the short term, thus, they chose to invest more time and energy in work, often with the encouragement of family.

Additionally, good health care is necessary for an effective work force. Child labourers' health is often compromised at work through malnutrition, dehydration, exposure to harsh chemicals, and dangerous equipment. (UNFPA, 2009) Abuse from employers through beatings and sexual harassment also compromise the children's health. The unhealthy environment leads

to decreased productivity from the children in their present and future work. The treatment of the children's ills can become a gargantuan cost on the state where some public healthcare is provided. Illness is not only a cause of poverty and undignified work but it pushes children and families deeper into poverty creating a dangerous positive feedback loop (Todaro, 2009).

According to Human Rights Watch (2001) Unemployment is exacerbated both in the present and the future as a result of child labour. Increased competition from children for limited employment opportunities increases adult unemployment. Adult unemployment in turn exacerbates the need for children to work. Children are often preferred to adult employees because they are more obedient, are falsely perceived to be more efficient at certain tasks and are paid less. These perceived benefits to child labour have led to their mass employment in such activities.

Child labour not only increases unemployment rates in the short term for adults looking for work, in the long term, children are less employable due to their limited education, health restrictions and decreased skill attainment compared to those who have attended school or organized apprenticeships. Their peers also have the advantage of professional and academic degrees. While in some cases these degrees do not mean that those who possess them are more skilled, degrees and certificates are often appreciated by employers because they guarantee proficiency and are at times mandated by the government and unions for employment. Child labourers are at a disadvantage because of their inability to get these degrees as easily as those who stayed in school (Human Right Watch, 2001).

It was also reported in ILO (1996) research that the underestimation of gross domestic product (GDP) in developing economies is increased as a result of child labour. The GDP is measured through economic transactions that can be tracked by the government. Child labour

being an illegal activity is not reported to authorities through tax receipts and other measures used by the government to track economic activity. The wages paid to children and their productions are not counted.

Child labourers often work in illegal markets in addition to the illegality of their employment in legal sectors of the economy. Children most often work on the streets, selling goods in sidewalk markets, to passing cars in the streets, and wiping windshields. Children are also often pushed into illegal work including prostitution and drug and arms smuggling. The illegitimate employment of children therefore enhances the black market in developing economies (ILO, 1996).

Galli (2001) is of the view that child labour can depress long run growth by slowing down technological progress. To justify this fact, she noted that the availability of cheap, unskilled child labour in fact allows employers to avoid investing in fixed capital and upgrading production processes, thereby dampening technological progress, labour productivity and output growth in the long run.

The empirical evidence confirms that production processes involving child labour are generally carried out in the unorganised sector and in small units with simple production technologies and relatively little capital (Anker, 2001).Diamond and Fayed (1998) who estimated the elasticity of complementarity between child labour and capital for industrial Egypt in 1991. Found that children's wages would decrease by 0.9% as a result of a 1% increase in the used quantity of capital, suggesting that the introduction of labour saving devices negatively impacts market opportunities for underage workers.

2.5 FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR CHILD LABOUR PRACTICES

Many factors determine the decision concerning sending child(ren) to school or to work. According to Grootaert (1998) and Dustmann (2003), these factors are cost of schooling, characteristics of the child, parents, households and community. These factors exercises influence over the decision to allocate children's time away from schooling or towards work. Other factors include the location and distance to formal education centre, which can be used as a proxy for demand factor. Specifically, poverty and illiteracy reinforced by traditional customs such as polygyny and preference for large family size were identified as root causes of child labour in Nigeria (Obikeze, 1986 and Oloko, 1992). Moreover, marital instability and family disorganization were also identified as contributory factors. Be that as it may, the first econometric study of National Child Labour Survey data also noted that these factors have an influencing behaviour on child participation in different child activity options (Okpukpara and Odurukwe, 2003). Kuti, (2006) opined that educated mothers are most likely be gainfully employed and may likely have less time to attend to her jobs at home, consequently resulting to the mounting of unnecessary pressure on the children especially the females to carry out these duties in the mother's absence due to her work, thereby depriving the child of needed rest and recreation activities necessary for their growth and developments.

Scholars like Appel (2009) identified structural inequalities, while Nwabueze (1992) sees poverty and inequality as the major causes of street trading and child labour. 0kojie (1987) postulated the causes to be an adverse economic environment, underemployment, massive retrenchment, unemployment and a poor quality of life. Nmom, in his book interpreting social problems and public issues in Nigeria (2003), contended that while poverty is often postulated as the principal cause of forcing children into child labour, a lack of social services at home, a lack

of good housing, inadequate food and health care service, combine to compel parents to sell their children into child labour. The least privileged children, including children without families and/or without homes, are the most vulnerable to these social ills. The economic constraints also force people to look for wealth at all cost to the detriment of their children.

According to Crosson (2008) there is a link between parents with marginal incomes and the imperative to push children into work so as to supplement family income. This view is supported by Bass, (2004), Binder and Sorgin (1999) who hold that children of poor families have to help generate family incomes and compensate for economic discrepancies in society, particularly as the gap between the have and have not has grown in recent years. In such situations, poverty breeds poverty. A poor family has a high probability of staying poor since low family incomes carry with them high risks of illness, limitations on mobility, and limited access to education. Thus, the legacy of poverty is passed from parents to children (UNICEF, 1997).

According to the 1996 multiple indicator cluster survey, published by the Federal Office of Statistics (FOS), only one in every ten Nigerians can be described as non-poor. The other nine are either “core poor" or moderately poor. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), in its debut Human Development Report, ranked Nigeria 137th out 174 nations in terms of human development. Hence, Nigeria’s Human Development Index (HDI) value is 0.400. Countries with HDI value below 0.5 are considered to be poor and to have low human development. In Nigeria, this poverty plays itself out as prostitution, corruption, robbery, street life, increased unemployment, poor living conditions, high infant mortality, acute malnutrition, short life expectancy, and human deprivation (UBA Monthly Digest, March/April 1996).

Child labour is also one of the causes of poverty in 70% of households in Nigeria, providing an essential means of income for poor families. ILO, (2007) survey of child labour in Nigeria identified eight causation factors. These are cultural influence, economic problems, national debt, low education, unemployment/inability to cope, street life and single parents' families, with the last three factors exacerbating poverty. Oruwari, (1996) in her study of poverty among women and their households in Benin city, Adudu (1987) and Okojie, (1987) identified five factors, housing problems, illiteracy, unemployment/underdevelopment, low incomes, and inability to cope with the needs of members of households, as indicators of the extent of poverty among women and consequently child labour.

Basu and Van (1998), Ugochukwu *et al,* (2012) and Ahmed (1999) studies unanimously agreed that poverty is the main, although not the only cause of child labour, they went on to emphasize that despite extreme poverty, parents might not want to send their children for full time job. However, if the parents are hit by temporary economic crisis, then the additional income from child employment could be essential for survival.

Additionally, Krueger (1996) in his work established a strong correlation between child labour and poverty. Dehejia and Gatti (2003) add that income is the single most important household-level predictor of child labour. Brown (2001) extends this claim, asserts that child participation in the labour force is negatively correlated with per capita GDP. Considerable literature also explores the relationship between child labour and variables that correlate with income, such as development, family size, and education. Scholars have developed many theories to explain connections between these variables. Evidence suggests, however, that the relationship between income and child labour dominates all others as Edmonds and Pavcnik (2004) claim that 75% of cross-country variation in child labour can be explained by income

variation. The relationship between income and child labour illustrates that child “nonwork” is a luxury good that household “consume" when they can afford to do so (Basu and Van, 1998) went on to substantiate this commonly held theory with evidence that children of the non-poor seldom work, regardless of national economic or political factors. Krueger (1996), furthermore, observed that people with high socioeconomic status tend to support government regulation of child labour.

Family dynamics and poor public education systems are also cited as major contributors to child labour (Brown 2006). For instance, parents with low education levels, regardless of income, are more likely to put their children to work. They may not weigh the costs and benefits of forgone labour now to see higher rates of return in the future. If a parent worked as a child, his/her child is even more likely to work. Also, mothers who work outside of the house are more likely to have female children who work, as the children are forced to take over the absent mother’s responsibilities, instead of attending school. Families in Peru, cites school quality as the biggest factor for child work force participation according to (Brown, 2001) report. Primary schools rarely have the resources to provide adequate education, which leads to the assumption that children are better off working than attending school. Culture also has an impact on the prevalence of child labour.

Safiq and Patrinos(2008) in a related study found that indigenous children are far more likely to work than non-indigenous children, regardless of income. Parents in indigenous societies in rural Guatemala prefer that their children work because they believe that manual labour is an important part of the education process, teaching children to become hard working adults. In Latin American countries with large indigenous populations, such as Bolivia, Peru, Guatemala, and Ecuador, children make up a large percentage of the workforce (Tuttle and

Caroline, 2006). These families are not only overlooking the detrimental effects of labour force participation on the child, they are also ignoring the severe societal consequences of child labour. Child labour force participation has an impact on society, community, and culture, as well as the state and the national economy.

Togunde (2006) studied the causes of child labour and how these measures vary by parental socio-economic status. The study shows that children of parents with higher socio-economic status are more likely to own business rather than to assist parents, and these children work fewer hours as compared to the children belonging to lower socio-economic status. Other factors identified as sustaining child labour especially street hawking in some parts of Nigeria as noted by Dantiye and Haruna (2004) include the fact that hawking is seen as a means by which young girls attract suitors and a means for raising money for buying items in preparation for marriage for the young hawkers. Also, ILO (1998) submitted that 40% of street children are employed as sex workers, drug peddlers, car washers and bus conductors for economic ends.

In the same vain, Barman (2011) found that in the case of survival status of parents, risks of participation in child labour is higher for male children than females when father is not alive, also, on the other hand proportion of child labour is higher for female children than males when mother is not alive. Risk of participation in child labour is very high when both of the parents are not alive than when both are alive.

Basu (1998) and Dasgupta (1993) maintained that the decision to send a child to work is partly matters of social norm. To buttress this fact, he pointed out that if a parent lives in a society where everybody send their children to work, it is worthwhile for each parent to send their children to work and if everybody does not send their children to work each, parent may not find it worthwhile some societies especially in Africa, tend to hold this frame.

2.6 CHILD LABOUR AND FUTURE WORKFORCE

Ugal and Undyaundeye, (2003) noted that at the individual level, child labour impairs the physical and mental development of children. This situation brings about an increment in the number of lay about, mentally demented, and stunted persons in society. Basu (1998) maintained that there is a 'child labour trap' that the family is likely to fall into. Also, speaking about the fact, "Today's child worker will be tomorrow's uneducated and untrained adult, forever trapped in grinding poverty, no effort should be spared to break that vicious circle", says ILO Director-(General Michel Hansenne, 2012). To support this above statement, ILO (1988) in a similar study on "Combating Child Labour", asserted that child labour is a cause of, and may even contribute to, adult unemployment and low wages. Also, Diamond and Fayed (1998) studied that child labour displaces adult labour, giving rise to unemployment, and is substitutability in production. The study notes that adult males appear to be complementarity with, and adult females act as substitutes for child labour, although the employment effects of banning child labour are inconclusive.

Fallon and Zafiris (1998) in their studies, considers 20 hours of work per week as the critical threshold beyond which the education of the child starts being significantly affected. In addition, Basu (1998) argued that an increase in child labour frequently causes a decline in the acquisition of human capital. He further explained that if a child is employed all through the day, it is likely that the child will remain uneducated and have low productivity as an adult. That is if a child works more his productivity as an adult falls because child labour diminishes adult productivity Pigou (1920) noted that many forms of unskilled labour at present open to boys not merely fail to train, but positively untrained their victims. Swaminathan (1997) confirmed this in her study of India, that the share of child labour in the mills fell during the early nineteenth

century precisely because the earlier use in child labour meant that, as these children grew up, there would be a Cohort of none productive adult workers.

Similarly, Child Labour Deterrent Act introduced in the United States in 1993 argued that a worldwide ban on trading goods produced by child labour would benefit the exporting countries practicing child labour and subsequently reduces adult unemployment. The rationale behind this statement is that, since children's work could be done by adults but is paid much lower wages, employers prefer to hire children rather than adults. Child labour thus increases adult unemployment, which in turn forces adults to put their children to work thereby generating a vicious circle.

Also Basu (2000) showed from a theoretical perspective that, although a rise in adult wage should push some families out of poverty and lower child labour, when the wage rise is achieved by a minimum wage law it can cause some adults to be unemployed and send their children to work. To him, the net effect of adult minimum wage on child labour is thus ambiguous, and tends to be positive (increase in child labour) when children are better substitutes for adults.

Rao (1998) in his work on the employers Views on Child Labour affirmed that employers look at children as easy to manage because they are more compliant and less aware of their rights than adults. Children will not try to organize themselves for their protection. The preference of employers to use the cheapest and most vulnerable workforce contributes to low wages and adult unemployment. Effectively, the vast number of working children reduces the ability of adults to bargain for fair wages, and/or takes jobs away from adults. When employers are able to hire children for less, adults are unable to negotiate for higher wages and thus, creating adult unemployment/underemployment.

ILO (1997) submitted that Children are denied their right to education because it is not free or affordable in many countries. Those who work prematurely and extensively may never receive the education or training needed to obtain a liveable wage. They grow up to be uneducated and illiterate adults, who are either unemployed or underemployed in unorganized sectors with no power to bargain for fair wages. Like their parents, they are unable to support their children's education. So they send their own children to work, repeating the cycle of child labour and poverty. Child labour is both a cause and a consequence of poverty. Thus, child labour creates generations of illiterate, unskilled adults by denying education to the future workforce and consequently the downward cycle of child exploitation and poverty continues.

To support the argument above, Emerson and Andre (2003) highlighted that although Child Labour is generally assumed to be detrimental, the potential effects of child labour on adult earnings can be detrimental through the hindering of the acquisition of formal education, both quantitatively and qualitatively, and causing irreparable damage to health, reputation or other things that effect adult human capital, which could lead to lower wages in the adult labour market. Spindel (1985) argues that adolescent workers are more likely to end up in dead-end jobs that hamper their human capital development. Also, Baland and Robinson (2000), Dessy (2000) Basu and Van (1998) all agreed that there is a trade-off between child labour and human capital accumulation to justify policy interventions, arguing that there are large negative consequences from child labour.

Emerson and Andre (2003) in their research, pointed out some arguments against Child labour and the consequences that are perceived from the practice as thus:

Child labour does more than deprive children of their education, mental and physical development their childhood is stolen. Child labour deprives the child of a proper childhood.

Children being exposed to child labour practice are not able to get the nurture and care that is essential for their all-round development. In most cases, this leads to many psychological imbalances which are often expressed in the form of increased aggressiveness, low self-esteem and eventually reducing the child's potential to contribute to their full potential in the society when they reach adulthood. Most of such children become problematic citizens who engage in illicit behaviour which is detrimental to upward advancement of the family and society at large.

Working long hours, child labourers are often denied the basic education, normal social interaction, personal development and emotional support from their family. Besides these problems, children face many physical dangers and death from forced labour: In such circumstances a child labourer remains uneducated; in whatever form the child labourer takes, the child has no time to attend school, if the labourers are school going children, they mostly have no time to concentrate on their studies either because they are carried away by wanting to make more money (forced or not) or they are too tired to concentrate on studies, the eventual consequence is that they are unable to take care of their own families when they grow up. The families they lead in adulthood become disconnected with the essential fabric that makes the community they belong to be a functioning society that can play meaningful role in issues of the community. In most cases, such families will force their children to work and thus the cycle is perpetuated, making it difficult to move out of the vicious cycle.

In child labour system, the children reach mental and emotional maturity at a very early age. This is highly dangerous as such children start displaying pseudo adult behaviour such as smoking and displays of aggression. Children who are already entrenched into a particular behaviour at a young age will not easily stop that behaviour in adulthood. If the behaviour is detrimental to the child's health, like use of dangerous drugs e.g. smoking of marijuana, the

children are destined to becoming sickly and destitute; hence useless in their economic life to the society during the adulthood.

A sector that hires children labourers and young people often pays them much less for work done than their adult counterparts while forcing them to work as much as adults. This pushes adults to compete for jobs out of the market. This results in many social discontents; in a society which is manifested in high rates of crime which in many ways is detriment to development.

Throughout history, children have been working under very unhealthy and hazardous conditions. Physical injuries and mutilations are caused by badly maintained machinery on farms and in factories, machete accidents in plantations, and many numbers of hazards encountered in industries. Their working environments are usually so unsafe that fatal accidents can be routine.

Exhaustion and malnutrition are a result of underdeveloped children performing heavy manual labour, working long hours in unbearable conditions and not earning enough to feed themselves adequately. Such deficiencies inhibit children in their adult life to exploit their full potential in performing their duties. He concluded saying that an economy driven by a majority of child labourers shoots itself in the foot because it denies itself a continuum of supply of human capital to drive its development.

According to Basu, (1999: 1059) 'Keeping children away from education may means missing out on benefit for society at large which do not accrue to the parent who takes the decision'. The case of one of the household interviewed in his study showed that family economic history may have effect on the up-bringing of children. Children work have economic effects both at the micro household and macro labour market and economy level as was asserted by Anker (2001) if child work is eliminated at the micro household level is going to have

negative effects on poor households except there is policy in place to assist poor families economically. At the macro level, child's works have negative effect on the economic growth and economic development. He argued that the kind of work that displace children from school attainment reduce human capital; consequently reduce labour productivity, economic growth and economic development over a long run. These forms of works reduce children mental and physical development and reduce children productivity as adult.

Furthermore, it was argued by Okafor (2010) that nations with high incidence of children participation in labourious activities will continue to be back-bencher in the quest of sustainable development among other nation because of lack of investment in the future of children. When children work out of the home to survive and supplement family income, it may solve some family problems but create a new one for both the children and the society (Okafor, 2010). Creating a new problem in the sense that it affects children's personality development and hardening the aptitude prematurely. It could also lead to compromising sustainable economic development and social development. He went on to point that the case of street hawking among children, those children who hawk and do not go to school will lack the capacities that they need to exercise their agency in future. However, the benefit of education is the ability of educated person to choose in a more informed way. In a situation whereby children economic activities is not presently harmful, it can be very harmful in terms of child's future wellbeing and agency interest as an adult (Satz, 2003).

2.7 CHILD LABOUR AND WORKING CONDITIONS

According to UNICEF (1996) report, in Nigeria, child labour does mostly occur in semi-formal and informal businesses with hundreds of thousands young domestic servants, mainly working for prosperous urban families. Domestic servants are the least visible category and often

sexually harassed. The report went on to reveal that child labourers in public places such as streets and markets places in Nigeria constitutes of vendors (64%), beggars (13%), shoe shiners (4%), car washers/watchers (6%), scavengers (5%), feet washers (8%), whereas in semi-public settings such as cottage industries and mechanic workshops asvulcanisers (24%),bus conductors (17%), iron / metal workers (6%), carpenters (14%), tailors / weavers (14%), hairdressers / barbers (18%), caterers (8%). In the same report, those in private setting like the domestic servants comprises of over hundreds of thousands and those in agricultural plantation, quarries and apprenticeship works could not be accounted for.

Similarly, UNICEF (2006) also reported that a staggering 15 million children under the age of 14 are working across Nigeria. Many are exposed to long hours of work in dangerous and unhealthy environments, carrying too much responsibility for their age. Working in these hazardous conditions with little food, small pay, no education and no medical care hence, establishes a cycle of child rights violations.

Generally, working children have no time, money or energy to go to school. About six million working children in Nigeria, equally split between boys and girls, do not attend school at all, while one million children are forced to drop out due to poverty or because of parents' demand to contribute to the family income. Over eight million children manage, at least partly, to stay in school and work in their spare time to pay education fees. Due to high demands at work, these children often skip classes. Missing out on education makes it impossible to break the cycle of poverty and exploitation and prevents children from having a better life and a safer future (UNICEF (2006).

Sharma (2001) noted that children working in the Kamaiya system perform domestic chores, take animals to pasture, collect grass/hay, and participate in other farm activities, with the

daily work starting as early as 4 a.m. and close between 5 and 7 p.m. although some children reported working late into the night. Seventy percent of the child labourers work over twelve hours per day. One third of the sampled child labourers reported accidents while at work. On the mode of payment, it was reported to vary between receiving food while at work as well as either food or cash to take home (57.5%), or receiving food only (42.5%) whereas, about 25% of child labourers is said to receive their payments through the parents.

CHAPTER THREE:

THE STUDY AREA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 THE STUDY AREA

3.1.1 Location.

Anambra State is located at the south-eastern geopolitical zone of Nigeria. It lies between latitude 5°45" N - 6°45" N and 7° 00" E – 7° 15" E of the Greenwich Meridian. The state derives its name from the Anambra river the largest, most southerly, left bank tributary of the river Niger. The State have a total land area of 4,416 sq. km, and it is situated on a generally low elevation on the eastern side of the river Niger, It is bounded by Delta to the West, Kogi to the North/Central part, Imo to the South, Abia to the South/East and Enugu to the East. The state has 177 communities in 21 LocalGovernment Areas. It comprises of three major towns namely, Awka, its capital city, thecommercial town of Onitsha and the industrial city of Nnewi. (See Fig. 3.1).

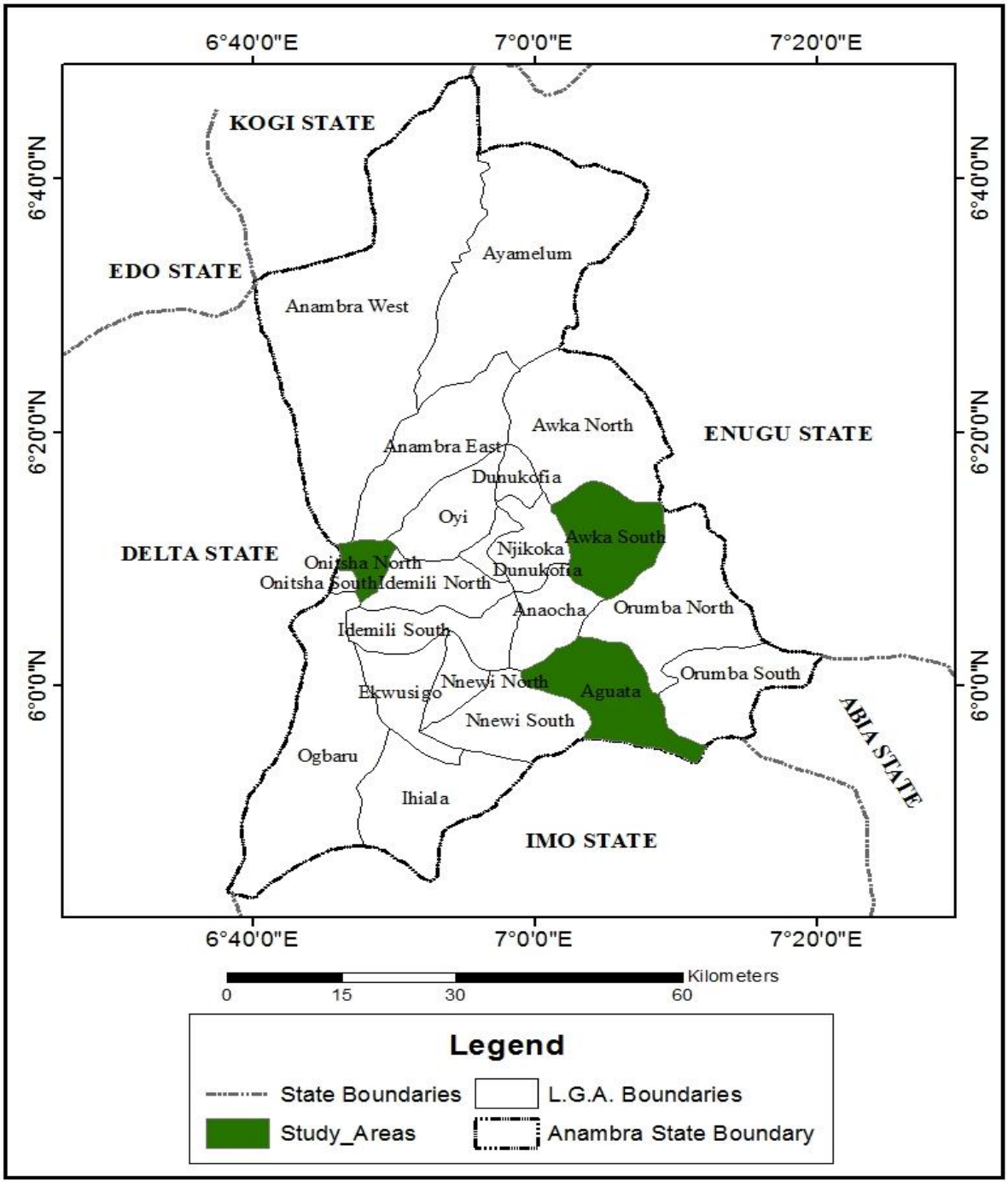


Fig.3.1 Map of Anambra State Showing the study Areas

Source: Modified from Administrative Map of Anambra State.

3.1.2 Landforms and Drainage

Anambra State falls into two main landform regions: a highland region of moderate elevation that covers much of the state south of the Anambra River, and low plains to the west, north, and east of the highlands. The highland region is a low asymmetrical ridge or cuesta in the northern portion of the Awka-Orlu Uplands, which trend roughly southeast to northwest, in line with the geological formations that underlie it.

The highest elevation is found in the Southeast, about 410m above mean sea level, and gradually decreases in height to only 33m in the northwest on the banks of the Anambra River and the Niger. At Onitsha and Otuocha, the cuesta provides well drained low land, very close to the river, thereby enabling settlements to extend to the banks of the river. The cuesta has confined the wide and braided channel of the Niger to a comparatively narrow valley bed at the southern part of Onitsha, making an appropriate location for the construction of bridge across the river. The highlands consist of two cuestas, a lower and a higher one, each with an east facing escarpment. The two cuestas merged south of Nanka.

The lower cuesta, formed by the more resistant sandstone rocks of the Imo Shale, rises to only 150m above mean sea level at Umuawulu and decreases in height north westward to only 100m at Achalla. Its escarpment faces the Mamu Rive plain and has a local relief of between 80m and 30m west of it, is the higher cuesta, formed by the sandstones of the Ameke Formation. Its height is above 400m in the south-east at lgboukwu and lsuofia decreasing northwestward to less than 300m at Agbana, and to only 100m at Aguleri. The moderate height of the cuesta provides elevated, well-drained and attractive settlement sites, hence, are closely settled even up to their crests. Agulu, Agbana, Awkuzu, Nteje and Aguleri are some of the settlements on the crest the higher cuesta, and lfiteAwka, Mgbakwi Amanuke and Achalla are some of those on the

crest of the lower cuesta. The deep slope of the cuesta extends westwards for over 30km and is heavily settled.

The plains lie west and north of the highland areas; The River Niger plain, south of Onitsha, about 9km wide, and the Niger Anambra River plain north of Onitsha, which stretches for over 36km east of the Niger, are really low plains, well below 30m above mean sea level, and are liable to flood. They are underlain by recent alluvium; and, east of the Anambra River, by the Imo Shale formation. The plains are almost featureless, except for sporadic broad undulations, rising above the flood plains at forming sites for the farming and fishing settlement in the area. Such settlements include Nzan, Nmiata, and Anam in Anambra West LGA, and Atani, Odekpe, and Oshita in Ogbaru LGA East of the Anambra River, a narrow and elongated sandstone ridge, projecting about 30m above the sea level at the plain, formed settlement sites for Anaki lgbakwu, lfute, and Umueje in Ayamelum LGA.

The Anambra River rises on the Gala Plateau near Ankpa in Kogi State and, for its over 85km course in Anambra State, flows through the northern low plain, as well as through its right bank tributaries where it, meander heavily, leading to the formation of oxbow lakes and abandoned meander channels. Its largest left bank tributary is the Mamu River, which drains the eastern low plain on the Imo Shale Formation. The higher cuesta forms the watershed separating the numerous east flowing tributaries of the Mamu River from the west-flowing rivers, the Idemili, the Nkisi, and the Oyis, which drain the deep slope of the cuesta, all but one of the main rivers in Anambra state empty into the River Niger, which forms the western boundary of the state and constitutes the local base level for the rivers. The exception is the Ulasi River, which rises near Dikenofia in Imo State, flows northward to Ozubulu in Anambra State and then turns round in a wide loop and heads for the Atlantic Ocean. The deep slope of the higher cuesta

between Nsugbe, Onitsha, Ogbunike and Urnunya is dissected by the numerous tributary streams of the Mamu river into a rolling

landscape.http://www.onlinenigeria.com/links/anambraadv.asp?blurb=195

3.1.3 Climate

The study area lies within the humid tropical rainforest belt of Nigeria with an annual rainfall of about 2000-3000mm, average temperature range of about 25 – 27C, and mean annual sunshine hours of about 1750hours. Relative humidity varies with season with an average value of about 75 – 95% and a mean annual atmospheric pressure of about 1101±1.2mbars (Oguntoyinbo, 1978). The study area is dominated by two major seasons – rainy season and dry season. Rainy season ranges from March to October with its peak in July and September, and a short break in August. The dry season ranges from November to February with the influence of harmattan felt between the months of December and January. These seasonal changes with its attendant changes in temperature, runoff, humidity and atmospheric pressure contribute to the disintegration and washing away of the soil and rock units in the study area.

3.1.4 Vegetation and Soils

The vegetation in the area is controlled by geologic factors of topography, relief and lithology as well as other anthropogenic factors. The vegetation ranges from light rainforest to savannah. Dense vegetal cover with high trees is prominent around stream and the shaley lowlands while savannah vegetation and isolated trees are prominent on sandy highland. The area supports extensive man-made vegetation community which comprises mainly cashew orchard and palm trees, with thick under growth and numerous climbers especially during the rainy seasons.

Although annual rainfall is high in Anambra State, ranging from 1,400mm in the north to 2,500mm in the south, it is concentrated in one season, with about four months of dryness, November to February. Consequently, the natural vegetation in the greater part of Anambra State is tropical dry or deciduous forest, which, in its original form, comprised tall trees with thick under growth and numerous climbers.

The typical trees (silk cotton, Iroko and oil bean) are deciduous, shedding their leaves in the dry season. Only in the southern parts of the state, where the annual rain fall is higher and the dry season shorter, the natural vegetation is marginally the tropical rainforest type. Because of the high population density in the state, most of the forests have been cleared for settlement and cultivation. What exists now is secondary regrowth, or a forest savannah mosaic, where the oil palm is predominant, together with selectively preserved economic trees. Relics of the original vegetation may, however, be found in some so-called "juju" shrines or some inaccessible areas.

Three soil types can be recognised in Anambra State. They are: (i) alluvial soils, (ii) hydromorphic soils, and (iii) ferallitic soils. The alluvial soils are pale-brown loamy soils. They are found in the low plain south of Onitsha in Ogbaru and in the Niger Anambra low plain north of Onitsha. They differ from the hydromorphic soils in being relatively immature, having no well-developed horizons. They, however, sustain continuous cropping longer than the other two types. Hydromorphic soils are developed on the Mamu plain east of the cuesta, extending northward into the eastern part of Anambra River floodplain, where the underlying impervious clayey shale cause waterlogging of the soils during the rainy season. The soils are fine loamy, with lower layers faintly mottled; while the subsoil layers are strongly mottled and spotted, containing stiff grey clay. The soils are good for yam, cassava and maize, and for rice in the

more heavily waterlogged areas. The cuestas and other elevated areas under lain by sandstones and shales of the Ameke Formation and the Nanka Sands are regions of ferrallictic soils. The soils are deep, red to reddish brown loamy sands, often referred to as "redearth" or acid sands because of low fertility. They are easily eroded into gullies.

http://www.onlinenigeria.com/links/anambraadv.asp?blurb=195

3.1.5 Historical Development

The original Anambra State was created in 1976 when East Central State was broken into Anambra and Imo States. Then, it comprised the present Anambra State and Enugu State including the Abakaliki part of Ebonyi State, with Enugu as its capital. During further states creation in August 1991, Enugu State with Abakaliki was excised, leaving Anambra State as presently constituted, with Awka as its capital.

The creation of the present Anambra State resulted mainly from the desire to spread the gains of economic development and arrest the national problem of north-south, geopolitical dichotomy evident in the former Anambra State. There was the agitation that the indigenes of the present Anambra State, because of their highly developed manpower, dominated the state public services; while on the other hand, there was some measure of concentration of infrastructural base and government industrial development in the region that now is Enugu State.

Administratively, the state consists of twenty one local government areas and the state capital is Awka, renowned for its craft industries, mainly blacksmithing and wood carving. There are three senatorial districts in the state, namely:

- Anambra North, comprising Awka North and South, Njikoka, Dunukofia, Anaocha, and Idemili North and South Local Government Areas.

- Anambra Central, made up of Onitsha North and South, Ogbaru, Oyi, Ayamelum, and Anambra East and West Local Government Area.
- Anambra South consisting of Orumba North and South, Aguata, lhiala, Ekwusigo, and Nnewi North and South LGAs.

http://www.onlinenigeria.com/links/anambraadv.asp?blurb=193

3.1.6 Population, People, Religion, Culture and Settlement Pattern

According to NPC (2006) report, Anambra State has a population of 4,182,032 made up of 2,007,391 males and 2,174,641 females, with a land area of 4,416 sq. km, giving an average density of 633 persons per sq. km. The state is, therefore, one of the most densely populated states in Nigeria, as well as the 9th most populous nationwide. The following LGAs Onitsha (3,771 persons per sq. km), Idemili (1,448), Aguata (1,420), Njikoka (1,379), and Nnewi (738) have more than average population densities for the state, they are also the major commercial centres and areas of growing industrial development. Conversely, Anambra East (167), Awka North (170), Oyi (216), Ogbaru (360), and Orumba (488) have less than average density and are located on the flood plains, where farming and fishing are dominant occupations.

Because dry land for settlement is limited to the undulations and narrow ridges above the floodplains, such areas have small settlement nucleation. On the cuestas, especially the deep slopes, the settlement pattern is essentially dispersed; but increasing urbanization as well as population growth have given rise to large cities such as Onitsha, Nnewi, Okpoko, Obosi, Nkpor and Awka. The "northern part of the deep slope of the higher cuesta is a region of large, closely spaced merging settlements.http://www.onlinenigeria.com/links/anambraadv.asp?blurb=196

3.1.7 Household Organization

Within the domestic arrangement, for instance, the obi is known as the abode of the head of the household, functions as zone of power. Certain decisions that are of the overall interest of the family are taken therein after due consultations. However, under the practice of polygyny, the family is usually made up of a man and his wives and all their children, each woman in the polygamous household has her own accommodation, an enclosure containing a sleeping place, cooking place, a room or two for keeping her valuables, poultry house, pen for her goats and sheep, barns for her yam and cocoa yam and few economic trees like orange trees and pears. All these are walled round with a door linking her compound to the bigger family compound at the centre of which the obi is located. Within the woman's compound she lives with her children and is in total control of both the economic and cultural production. Although the man as the head of the household takes certain decisions concerning the overall interest of his household, there is a limit to which such decisions can encroach on the woman's power base in this domestic arrangement. Beyond the polygamous household system is the extended family, consisting of all the sons in a family and their parents, wives, and unmarried daughters. The extended family may consist of about five to thirty members. Ideally, all of the members of the extended family live in one large compoundhttp://www.medwelljournals.com/fulltext/?doi=pjssci.2010.177.186

Notably, household organization has changed in recent years from the traditional system. Christian marriage and civil marriage are the innovations. The common trend nowadays is towards the nuclear family with its own residence (Ukpkolo, 2010).

3.1.8 Socio-Economic Activities

The major socio-economic activities in the study area include agriculture, manufacturing and commerce. Agricultural (crop cultivation, livestock, forestry and aquaculture) is the main livelihood of the rural dwellers and around the coastal plains of river Niger basin. The dominant crops cultivated are, oil palm, corn, rice, yam, Cocoyam and cassava mainly through subsistent agriculture also fishing in inland waterways is a significant commercial activity. However, in recent times, urbanization has fairly contributed to population growth, immigration and migration, thereby resulting in the growth of many villages into towns. This phenomenon has led to the continued movement of rural dwellers into the urban areas in search of greener pasture thereby leaving only the aged men and women to farm; this is noticeable in Amesi, Akpo, and Achina towns in Aguata local government area. There is also relatively high concentration of trade/commercial activities, artisans and small scale manufacturing in most urban areas of the state. Notable areas for these activities are; Onitsha, with 298,691 populace is known as the second largest commercial city in Nigeria, Nnewi, occupies an enviable position as large and growing auto parts market in West Africa, while Awka town which is known as the head capital of the state, is also famous for metal working of a high quality and its blacksmiths and wood carving were prized throughout the region for making farming implements, dane guns and household furniture like doors, tables as well as ceremonial items such as Oji (staff of mystical power) and Ngwuagilija (staff of Ozo men). Most large scale manufacturing industries in the state such as the breweries, textile and soft-drink bottling companies are clustered around Onitsha and Nnewi areas.http://www.onlinenigeria.com/links/anambraadv.asp?blurb=197

3.1.9 Social Infrastructure

The area has access to some social infrastructure such as roads, electricity supply, water supply, health facilities, educational institutions and financial institutions. Infrastructure development, in particular access roads linking various parts of the state, has gone in tandem with poverty reduction programmes. Roads to and from industrial areas, such as the Onitsha Industrial Harbour Estate, are being put in place as well to ensure investors efficient and cost-effective access. A total of 610 km of roads have been constructed in the past six years.

In terms of access to electricity, the area enjoys to an extent good supply of electricity though it cannot fully boast of 24 hours steady power supply which sometimes comes with low voltage. In a nutshell, electricity supply in the state is relatable to the national trends.

Access to good water supply is a priority in every community because it is a measurement of development. However the state has not achieved a lot in this area as the provision of portable water in the state has not been evenly distributed, with urban areas more privileged than the rural areas. The following are sources of water supply are: rivers, pipe borne water, boreholes, hand-dug well, water tanker and water vendors. Some of the localities boreholes were provided by NGOs, individuals as part of community development project.

Literacy rate in the state is comparatively high, which is attributable to the availability of schools which range from primary to tertiary institutions. There are a number of institutions of higher learning including:

i. Nnamdi Azikiwe University (a public institution/federal university) located inAwka; with a School of Medical Sciences located at Nnewi and School of Pharmacy at Agulu.

ii. Anambra State University, formerly known as Anambra State University of Science and Technology (ASUTECH) Uli.

iii. Federal Polytechnic, Oko.

iv. Nwafor Orizu College of Education in Nsugbe.

v. College of Agriculture, Igbariam (now incorporated into the Agricultural SciencesFaculty of the State University).

vi. Tansian University (Private/Catholic Institution) Umunya.

vii. National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) Abagana.

viii. St. Paul University (Private/Anglican Communion Institution) Awka.

ix. Madonna University (Private Institution), Okija.

x. Metallurgical Training College Onitsha,

Hundreds of excellent primary and secondary schools exist in various parts of the state. Some of the more notable secondary schools include Dennis Memorial Grammar School (D.M.G.S) Onitsha; Bishop Crowther Seminary Awka; St Christopher's Junior Seminary Onitsha; Girls' Secondary School Onitsha; Zixton Secondary School Ozubulu; St Peter's Special Science School Achina; Girls' Secondary School Ozubulu; St Charles' Special Science School (SCSSS), Onitsha; Christ the King College (C.K.C)Onitsha; Our Lady's High School Onitsha; Comprehensive Secondary School Nawfia; Queen Of the Rosary College (Q.R.C.) Onitsha, St. Monica's College Ogbunike; Nnamdi Azikiwe Secondary School, Abagana; Ide Girls Secondary School, Enugwu Ukwu; St Mary's High School Ifitedunu; Igwebuike Grammar School Awka; Lorretto Special Science School Adazi; Father Joseph Memorial High School Aguleri; Girls High School Umunya; Ajalli Government School;Community Secondary School Igbariam and

many more. Primary and secondary school enrollment in the state is one of the highest in the country.

In health care sector of the state, maternal, child and reproductive health services have taken centre stage in the MDG and Anambra Integrated Development Strategy (ANIDS) policies, culminating in the renovation of five primary health care centres in each of Anambra's 21 LGAs and construction of numerous new centres and general hospitals across the state.

As part of the efforts of the government of Anambra State to provide an enabling environment for the growth of enterprise, encourage inflow of foreign investment as well as protect existing ones to stimulate the expansion of the industrial capacity of the economy, the State has developed these investment incentives for investors to the State. This package of incentives which is exclusive to Anambra State is further enhanced by the presence of financial institutions which are found virtually in every part of the state.

http://www.onlinenigeria.com/links/anambraadv.asp?blurb=194

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methodology of the research work were examined as follows:

3.2.1 Reconnaissance Survey

Before embarking on this research, a reconnaissance survey was carried out to observe and explore the extent and distribution of child labour activities and as well as to observe the various forms of child labour commonly practiced in the state. During the brief visit, oral interview was carried out on some of the affected children so as to ascertain the relevant issues to be addressed in the questionnaire. The survey also helped to determine the sampling techniques to be employed in selecting the sampling areas.

3.2.2 Types of Data Required

In order to achieve the aim of objective of this study, this study used both primary and secondary data sources.

The primary data used in this research was sourced from first-hand information derived through field observations, questionnaire administration and Focus Group Discussion. The structured questionnaires which were designed for the children between the ages of 4-17 years contained information such as; Child labourer's sex, age, level of education attained, type of school, place of residence and the implications of residential area on their education, types of work engaged in, number of hours spent on work daily and daily earnings and its contribution to household income among others. The questionnaires were administered to the child labourers at their duty posts in the selected locations of the state.

Similarly, the secondary data was sourced from books. the existing official and unofficial statistics from both national and international publications, including books, journals, conference papers, thesis, dissertations and national survey reports, where information on the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of children in Nigeria shall be obtained from.

3.2.3 Sampling Technique

In order to select respondents for the questionnaire survey, multi-stage sampling procedures were used. In the first stage, to ensure an even spread of the study in Anambra state, the state was divided into three senatorial districts of north, central and south, with their LGAs alphabetically arranged in each of the three districts. Wherein, a systematic sampling technique was used in which the various LGAs in each senatorial district are serially numbered. Thereafter, every 5^{th}LGAs in the alphabetically arranged LGAs from the senatorial district was picked for

sampling. This method of selection was employed considering the time frame and financial constraints required for the work, as well as to ensure a proper spatial representation of each senatorial district by sampling at least one LGA from each district

Moreso, since population is not static, hence subject to change over time and space across the localities in the state. The 1991 population census figure of the state was projected to 2013 and used in this work (See Table 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3). The projection was done using NPC (1991) population growth rate of 2.21% for Anambra state using the formula:

$Pn = P_o e^{rn}$

Where:

Pn = population in the later period

Po = population in the earlier period

n = time interval between the two period

r = rate of growth

e = exponential sign.

Table 3.1: Showing Anambra State Senatorial Districts, LGAs and the Selected LGAs

S/N	Anambra State Senatorial Districts	L.G.A Of Anambra State	Selected L.G.A
1	Anambra North	Anambra east	Onitsha North
2		Anambra west	
3		Ayamelum	
4		Ogbaru	
5		Onitsha north*	
6		Onitsha south	
7	Anambra Central	Oyi	Awka South
8		Anaocha	
9		Awka north	
10		Awka south*	
11		Dunukofia	
12		Idemili north	
13		Idemili south	
14		Njikoka	
15	Anambra South	Aguata*	Aguata
16		Ekwusigo	
17		Ihiala	
18		Nnewi north	
19		Nnewi south	
20		Orumba north	
21		Orumba south	

Source: Adopted from the State Department for Urban and Rural Development.

The second stage involved the use of a purposive sampling technique, to determine the actual settlements from which respondents were selected for sampling. Based on this, names of settlements from the selected LGAs were alphabetically arranged and 1/3 of every settlement in each of the selected LGAs were selected and sampled, whereas, Onitsha South is sampled as a settlement as it is generally known as a single settlement. This method of sampling was employed due to the high possibility of getting the required number of the target respondents within the selected settlements. Hence, a total of 9 settlements were selected for detailed study (See Table 3.2).

Table 3.2 The Senatorial Districts, Selected LGAs and the selected settlements/population

Selected LGAs	Settlements In Each Selected L.G.A	Selected Settlements	Total Pop Of Settlements (1991Census)	2013 Projections	Projected Pop Of Selected Settlements
Aguata	Achina	Achina	25,012	39,784	39,784
	Agulueze		12,133	19,299	
	Akpo		14,406	22,914	
	Amaesi	Amaesi	10,835	17,234	17,234
	Ekwulobia		35,269	56,098	
	Ezinifite		20,839	33,146	
	Igboukwu	Igboukwu	46,943	74,667	74,667
	Ikenga		6,588	10,479	
	Isuofia		18,289	29,090	
	Nkpologu	Nkpologu	10,360	16,478	16,478
	Oraeri		8,365	13,305	
	Uga		44,048	70,062	
	Umuelu	Umuelu	31,094	49,458	49,458
	Umuona		4,616	7,342	
Awka North	Amawbia	Amawbia	14,389	22,887	22,887
	Awka		58,225	92,612	
	Isiagu		4,263	6,781	
	Nbaukwu	Nbaukwu	14,617	23,250	23,250
	Nibo		17,620	28,026	
	Nise		10,965	17,441	
	Okpuno	Okpuno	3,498	5,564	5,564
	Umuawulu		7,097	11,288	
Anambra south	Onitsha north	Onitsha north	121,157	192,710	192,710

Source: Modified from the NPC (1991).

In the third stage, to determine the size of questionnaires to be administered Yemene T. (1967) formula for sample size determination were used.

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

Where N = number of population under study

e = proportion of population given as (0.05%)

Using the above formula, a total of 400 respondents were obtained and sampled (See Table 3.3). Finally, to determine the proportion of the respondents, Yamene T (1976) sampling method for determination of respondents were also used.

$$\frac{nx400}{N}$$

Where n = population of each selected settlements in each LGA

N = total population of selected settlements in the selected LGAs.

Table 3.3 showing Senatorial districts, selected LGAs, settlements/populations and the proportion of population to be sampled.

Senatorial Districts	Selected LGAs	Selected settlements in the LGAs.	1991 Pop Figures of selected settlements	Projected pop of the selected settlements.	Proportion of sampled pop.
Anambra North	Aguata	Achina	25,012	39,784	36
		Amaesi	10,835	17,234	15
		Igboukwu	46,943	74,667	68
		Nkpologu	10,360	16,478	15
		Umuelu	31,094	49,458	45
Anambra Central	Awka South	Amawbia	14,389	22,887	21
		Nbaukwu	14,617	23,250	21
		Okpuno	3,498	5,564	5
Anambra south	Onitsha North	Onitsha north	121,157	192,170	174
Grand total			281,504	442,032	400

Source: Modified from NPC (1991).

However, since the study is supposed to be a detail study which depends more on data collected at individual instead of aggregate level, the purposive sampling technique is therefore more appropriate for identifying specific cases for detail investigation (Abumere *et al*, 2002; Suleiman, 2009). Questionnaires were administered to the children involved in one form of labour or the other at their point of duties within the selected settlement until the total questionnaires assigned to such settlement is exhausted.

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were also conducted. Three (3) FGDs were conducted, one in each LGA which is usually among the employers ofthe children labourers. In each case, it involved bringing 6-8 participants together to discuss issues around the topic"Child labour"

3.2.4 Methods of Data Analysis

The first step in data analysis was the selection of all valid questionnaires and encoded them into a computer and analysing them using SPSS/PC+ software.

The second step was to analyse and present the information from the questionnaire by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistical technique was used to interpret the various information obtained inform of frequency distribution, as well as the presentation of results in percentages, tables, cross tabulations, bar charts pie charts. Whereas inferential statistics such as Chi square were used to hypothesis so as to determine relationship between selected demographic and socio-economic variables obtained from respondents with the reasons for job participation as well as with the type of job engaged in by the child labourers. Whereas,a multi regression analysis were used to test the fourth hypothesis to establish the relationship between independent variables such as number of hours a child labourer spends at work and the dependent variables of child's educational status, child's level of education, gender variations, age, types of work engaged in by the child labourer and parent's socio-economic status. The regression model is expressed as follows:

$Y= a+b_{1x1}\ b_{2x2}\ b_{3x3}\ b_{4x4}\ b_{5x5}\ldots\ldots\ldots

occupation, Mother's occupation, Child's present class in school and Type of work engaged in, in that order. All statistical analysis were performed through the use of SPSS Version 20 and all tests were at 0.5 significant levels.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the findings of the research based on the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour in Anambra state. The chapter discusses the demographic and social backgrounds of the respondents, working profile, health consequences of work, backgrounds of the respondent's parents as well as on other general consequences of job participation on the respondents in the study area.

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS OF RESPONDENTS

4.2.1 Age and Sex

Table 4.1 shows the distribution of respondents by age and sex. A little over half of the working children (53.0%) are males as against the 47.0% that are females, indicating a gender difference of 3.0%.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Working Children by Sex and by Age

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	212	53.0
Female	188	47.0
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Age		
4-10	116	29.0
11-17	284	71.0
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

It may be possible to conclude that the reason for the prevalence of males over the females among child labourers may be attributed to the gender bias in the upbringing of children which is aimed at preparing the male child in small-scale economic trades as well as other business apprenticeship to boost family income as often practiced by low income households in the eastern part of Nigeria. Also, child labourers aged 11-17 years old represents the highest percentage of respondents with 71.0% as compared to those between the ages of 4-10 years old that accounted for 29.0% of the total sampled respondents, signifying an age difference of 42% between the two age groups. This age group differences is relatively similar to the findings of Togunde, (2008) in a study carried out in Abeokuta Capital of Ogun State Nigeria, where it was reported that the proportion of senior children involved in child labour were higher than their junior counterparts.

4.2.2 Family Structure, Type of Household and Size of Household

Table 4.2 shows that 59.5% of the children are from nuclear family representing about 238 out of 400 sampled respondents and 40.5% of the children are from extended family which represents 162 of the entire respondents. However, as shown in Table 4.2 the household type followed the expected trend of 66.5% in monogamous union as against 33.5% in polygamous union.

Table 4.2 Distribution of Respondent by Family Structure, Type of Household and Size of Household

Family Structure	Frequency	Percentage
Nuclear	238	59.5
Extended	162	40.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**
Type of Marital Union		
Monogamy	266	66.5
Polygamy	134	33.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**
Size of Household		
0-4	10	2.5
5-9	248	62.0
10+	142	35.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

The dominance of monogamious union in the study area cannot be said to be unconnected with the dominant religious belief in this part of the country (Christianity) which supports monogamy as against what is obtainable in most states especially in the northern and south-western part of the country where Islam is the dominant religion, hence encourages polygamous union. The household size on the other hand, is relatively large with the household size of 5-9 having the highest with 62.0%, followed by 10 and above household size with 35.5% and the least which is 0-4 with 2.5% respectively. This agrees with the findings of Ugochukwu *et*

al, (2012) and Le Roux, (1996) wherein it was reported that majority of the child labourers are mostly from large families in their related study carried out in Anambra State, Nigeria and Pretoria, South Africa respectively.

4.2.3 State of Origin

Table 4.3 shows the state of origin of the respondents. Majority of the respondents (42.5%) are indigenes of Anambra State, while 35.0% are from Ebonyi State. A further 14.5%, 4.0% and 4.0% are from Enugu, Imo and Delta States accordingly.

Table 4.3 Distribution of Respondent by State of Origin

State of Origin	Frequency	Percentage
Anambra	170	42.5
Imo	16	4.0
Delta	16	4.0
Enugu	58	14.5
Ebonyi	140	35.0
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Also, it can be deduced that more than half of the children involved in one form of labourous activities in the state are non-indigenes of the state, This may be due to the fact that Anambra State is often times referred to as a strategic gateway for trade between the former eastern and western regions due to the presence of Onitsha international market, which attracts huge influx of immigrants (both young and old) from the surrounding cities/states into the city and its surroundings to engage themselves into one form of activities or the other.

4.3 EDUCATION

World over, Policy makers have long recognized the key role that education plays in the process of social and economic development. Education is critical to the future of the individual beneficiary and the society (country) concerned. According to the World Bank (1988) without education, development will not occur. Only educated people can command the skills necessary for sustainable economic growth and for a better quality of life. No doubt, education prepares individuals forstable and secured employment, for higher earnings and healthier lives (for themselves and theiroffspring(s). Conversely, illiteracy and lack of education are major obstacles to development andpoverty eradication (World Bank, 1988). In view of the above emphasis, effort shall be made herein to highlight the educational status of the child labourer especially in the aspects such as, their current educational status, type of school, level of education, as well as their feelings about education in general and to ascertain the consequences of child's work to their educational development.

4.3.1 Schooling Status

Table 4.4 shows the distribution of respondents by schooling status. In all, 56.5% of the respondents are attending one form of school or the other. This means that more than half of the sampled respondents are schooling and working.

Table 4.4 Distribution of Working Children by their Schooling Status

Schooling status	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	226	56.5
No	174	43.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

This finding is in keeping with the report by Omokhodion and Omokhodion (2004) who reported that child labourers in Ibadan area of Oyo State in Nigeria combine school and work

together. Similarly, results of surveys by the ILO (1996) in four developing countries found that two-thirds of children combined school with work. In addition, Table 4.4 also shows that 43.5% of the respondents are not in school. By implication, this is a defeat to UNICEF's recommendation from the World Summit for Children held in Geneva Switzerland in 2001 which advocated for world's children access to basic education, hence sees education as a vital prerequisite for combating poverty, empowering women, protecting children from hazardous and exploitative labour and sexual exploitation, promoting human rights and democracy, protecting the environment and influencing population growth (UNICEF, 2001).

4.3.2 Type of School and Level of Attained

Table 4.5 shows that 77.0% of the 226 sampled respondents who are attending school, are either in government primary or secondary schools, while 16.8% are either in private primary or secondary schools and 6.2% are in missionary primary or secondary schools.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Respondent's Type of School and by Present Class

Type of School	Level of Education								Total	
	Primary 1- 3		Primary 4-6		JSS 1-3		SS1-3			
	No	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Missionary School	6	2.7	8	3.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	14	6.2
Public Primary School	27	11.9	86	38.1	0	0.0	2	0.9	115	50.9
Private Primary School	11	4.9	11	4.9	2	0.9	0	0.0	24	10.6
Public Secondary School	0	0.0	0	0.0	21	9.3	38	16.8	59	26.1
Private Secondary School	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	2.7	8	3.5	14	6.2
Total	**44**	**19.5**	**105**	**46.5**	**29**	**12.8**	**48**	**21.2**	**226**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Additionally, higher proportions (46.5%) of respondents that are in school are in class category between primary 4-6 levels, followed by 21.2% who are in senior secondary levels. While, 19.5% and 12.8% are in classes below primary III and below JSS III respectively. The

reason for the high proportion of respondents in government schools may be traced to the fact that public schools are cheap when compared with the private schools especially considering the fact that most child labourer are from poor families as such, the parents may be unable to offset the exorbitant fees charged in private schools.

4.3.3 School Dropouts and Those Who Have Never Been to School

Table 4.6 shows the distribution of respondents who are currently not attending any form of school as at the time of the research.

Table 4.6 Distribution of School Dropouts and Those Who Have Never Being to School

Schooling Status	Frequency	Percentage
School Dropouts	166	95.4
Never Been to School	8	4.6
Total	**174**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Of the 174 children labourers who are not currently in school, 95.4% are drop outs, whereas, 4.6% have never attended any form of school before. By implication, it may be right to conclude that child labour participation negatively affects the child's educational achievement, especially when considering the number of school drop-outs among the respondents. This agrees with Amuda (2010) study which reported that in Nigeria many children drop out from school and many are not well committed and dedicated to their education due to work. In this situation, large numbers of the future Nigerian generation are carelessly abandoned in terms of providing them with a sound education with educational facilities and this carelessness and negligence drive children into labour.

4.3.4 Not Currently in School and the Reasons

Table 4.7 reveals the proportion of respondents who are not currently in school as at the time when the research was conducted as well as their reasons for stopping school or for never being to school.

Table 4.7 Distribution of Respondents Not Currently in School and their Reasons

Reasons for withdrawing from school	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Parents very poor	148	89.2
Could not cope with academics	12	7.2
Presence of disability	6	3.6
Total	**166**	**100.0**
Reasons for never being to school		
School is too expensive	2	25.5
School is too far from house	2	25.5
Parents not interested in school	4	50.0
Total	**8**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Majority 89.2% attributed their non-schooling to parent's poverty, so dropped out of school to assist their parents generate additional income. Whereas, 7.2% and 3.6% of respondents gave reasons of being very dull and due to the presence of disabilities as why they dropped-out from school respectively. Additionally, about 8 out of 174 respondents have never attended any school. For the total of (8) respondents who have never attended any school, (50.0%) gave their reason to be that their parents are not interested in them going to school, whereas, 25.5% and 25.5% gave their reasons for never being to school as school being far and school being expensive respectively. Remarkably, poverty seems to dominate the reasons for childas presented in Table 4.7. This is in consonance with the findings made by Chuta (1998) and

Okpara (1986) which reported that poverty and lack of money are crucial variables in the explanation of child labour in Nigeria.

4.3.5 Type of Work Engaged in and Reasons for Working

Table 4.8 reveals that child labourers are found in virtually all the sectors of the economy, however their number varies. Hitherto, it was found that majority of child labourers are found in sales sector (street hawkers, water sellers, shop vendours) (58.5%), followed by service sector (waste pickers, beggars, hotel attendants, Gardner) (18.5%). Industrial sector (Industrial Apprentices, building/road construction worker, company workers) and Agricultural sector (ground tillers/weeders in farm sites, Palm fruit harvester and fishing) recorded 17.5% and 5.5% respectively.

Table 4.8 Distribution of Respondent's Type of Work and Reasons for Working

Type of work you are engaged in	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Service sector work	74	18.5
Sales sector work	234	58.5
Agricultural sector work	22	5.5
Industrial sector work	70	17.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**
Reasons for working		
To complement family income	114	28.5
To earn a wage	12	3.0
To get money for my school fees	59	14.8
Due to poverty	209	52.2
Peer group pressure	6	1.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

This finding is relational to Okpukpara and Odurukwe's (2003) findings that children all over the world especially in developing countries are made to work in diverse economic activities where their social, mental, physical as well as their over-all growth and development are being undermined. Also out of the total sampled respondents, more than half of the working children reveal poverty as the reason why they work (52.2%). Whereas, 28.5%, 14.8%, 3.0% and 1.5% of the respondents gave reasons that range from the need to complement their family income, to get money for school fees, to earn a wage and due to peer group influence as their reason for participating in child labour accordingly. The confirmation of poverty as the dominant reason for child participation in labourious work is in line with the findings by Appel (2009), Nwabueze (1992), Bass (2004) and Binder and Sorgin (1999) who reported that poverty is the dominant reason why children work. Also Basu (1998), views child labour as a way out of poverty especially for poor households. And went on to emphasise that children contribute as much as one-third of household income in poor families and further noted that such income could not be treated as insignificant in poverty reduction in poor households.

4.4.2 Distribution of Respondent's Frequency of Work

Figure 4.1, shows that 73.0% of the respondents work about 6 days in a week, therefore indicating that they do not work on Sundays as it is a widely believed in the Christian faith that

Sunday is holy hence, should be kept holy as it is generally believed and practiced in the state.

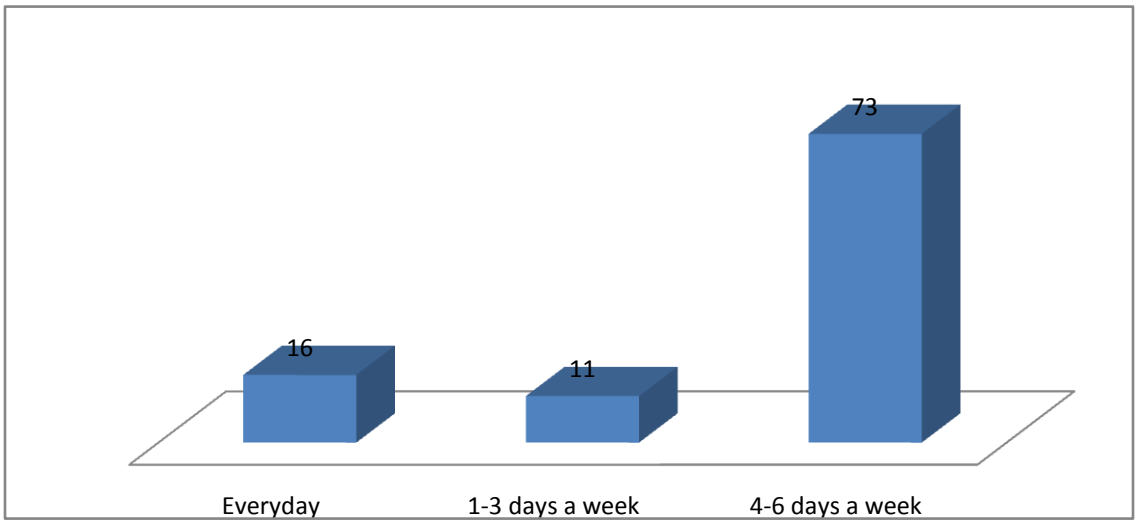


Figure 4.1: Percentage Distribution of Respondent's Frequency of Times at Work

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

The respondents who work every day of the week constitute 16.0%, while 11.0% of the respondents work once in a week. It shows therefore that majority of the child labourers work between 4-6 days in a week. This implies that the children whose working days is within this category of working days (4-6 days a week) may likely have less time for leisure and academic activities (i.e. those working and schooling). This is expected to affect the child's social, academic, physical and mental development.

4.3.7 Impact of Work on Leisure Time

Table 4.9 reveals the distribution of respondents on whether they have days they do not work within the week as well as whether they have time to play or not.

Table 4.9 Distribution on Number of Days off Work and Effects on Leisure Time

Have time to play	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	54	13.5
No	346	86.5

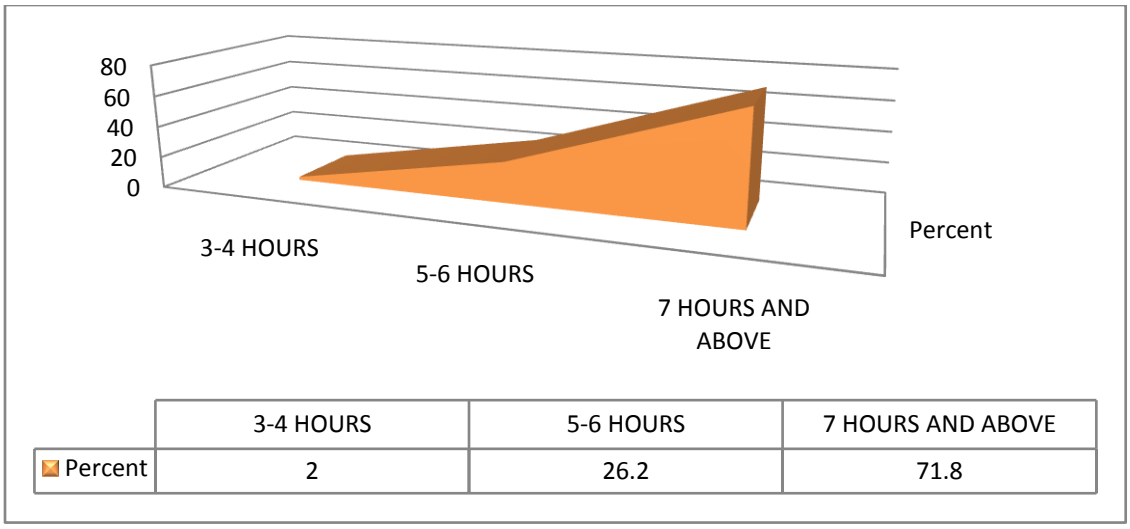
Total	**400**	**100**
Have any day off		
Yes	288	72.0
No	112	28.0
Total	**400**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

The analysis on respondent's leisure time shows that 13.5% of the respondents have time to play with their peers, while 86.5% have no time to play. This finding corroborates the result in the literature by Ali *et al, (*2004) Verma, (1990) and Binder and Scrogin (1999) which reported that child labour disturbs children's leisure time, and also hinders their optimal social development through interaction with peers. In all, a high proportion of respondents (72.0%) reported that they have days in a week that they do not work and the remaining 28.0% do not have any day off in a week. This means that more than half of the respondents have at least a day off in a week.

4.3.8 Number of Hours Spent at Work Daily

Working hours differ between countries, according to Nigerian labour law, an employee is supposed to work for his employer for a minimum of 40 hours in a week or 8 hours a day.



	3-4 HOURS	5-6 HOURS	7 HOURS AND ABOVE
Percent	2	26.2	71.8

Figure 4.2: Percentage of Respondents by the Number of Hours Spent at Work Daily

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

From Figure 4.2, it can be deduced that more than half of the respondents representing 71.8% workfor 7 hours and above daily, followed by 26.2% representing those that work between 5-6 hours in a day and lastly 2.0% representing those that work between 3-4 hours in a day. Therefore, going by the findings from this study, none of the respondents work for less than 3 hours in a day, whereas, high percentage (71.8%) of the child labourers work for long hours. This is similar to findings made by Oloko in 2004 which reported that over 4 million children in Nigeria are engaged in economic or labour activities, working long hours (average of 12 hours, daily) in poor and unhealthy conditions and they receive a token fee less than 1/3 of legislated minimum wage of ₦18,500, equivalent to $114 US dollars.

4.3.9 Condition of Employment

Table 4.10 indicates that 50.0% of the respondents work on temporal basis, which means that they carry out their jobs for specific hours after which they close.

Table 4.10 Distribution of Working Children by the Condition of their Work

Condition of Work	Frequency	Percentage
Temporal	200	50.0
Permanent	92	23.0
Contract	108	27.0
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Meanwhile, 27.0% work on contract basis (i.e. these category of people that are paid based on percentage of the total sales made either daily, weekly or monthly) and lastly 23.0% are working on permanent basis (i.e. these are categories of people that live outside their parent homes and are permanently living with their employer and are paid after an agreed period of time). In addition, it is also important to note that over 77.0% of the respondents work either on contract or temporal basis. This may probably account for the higher proportion of child labourers who combine school with work as presented in Table 4.4.

4.3.10 First Age at Work and Distance Covered to Work

Table 4.11 shows that a total of 73.5% respondents started working at age between 4-10 years, followed by 22.0% who started working at age between 11-15 years. Whereas, 4.5% of respondents started working at age between 16 and 17 years old.

Table 4.11 Distribution by First Age at Work and Distance Covered to and fro Work

First Age at Work	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
4-10years	294	73.5
11-15 years	88	22.0
16+	18	4.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**
Distance Covered in Km		
< 1km	60	15.0

1-2km	104	26.0
3-4km	40	10.0
>5km	196	49.0
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

It is also obvious from Table 4.11 that 49.0% of respondents cover distances of 3km and above in the process of working. It is worth noting that majority of those that are engaged in sales sectors (Street hawking) are under the category of those that covers 3.01km and above. This is because of the nature of their work which requires that they move about the streets, major roads etc. to sell their goods to the interested buyers. Also 26.0%, 15.0% and 10.0% of the children cover distances 1km - 2km, less than 1km and between 2.01km – 3km to and fro work. The respondents under the last three categories of distance covered to and fro work may be those child labouers in service sector, as most service sectors labourers often time live in the same house or neighbourhood with their employers as observed during the study.

4.3.11 Monthly Income

This means the sum total of income received from carrying out particular task within a given period of one month. Table 4.12 shows the distribution of respondents by monthly income.

Table 4.12 Distribution of Working Children by their Monthly Income

Monthly income	Frequency	Percentage
Less than ₦1000	18	4.0
Between ₦1001-₦1500	68	17.0
Between ₦1501-₦2000	84	21.0
Between ₦2001-₦2500	132	33.5
Don't know	98	24.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 4.12 shows that 33.5% of child labourers have monthly income between ₦2001-₦2500, followed by 21.0% of them that earn between ₦1501-₦2000. Approximately 17.0% of the respondents have monthly earning of between ₦1001-₦1500 and lastly, the least monthly income earned by the respondents is less than ₦1000 which accounted for 4.5%. The data also reveals that 24.5% do not know how much they earn. The distribution of monthly income earned by the respondents indicates a relatively high level of exploitation of the child labourers as none of the respondent's monthly earnings amounts up to the legislated monthly minimum wage in Nigeria of ₦18,500 ($114 US dollars).

4.3.12 Frequency of Times Visited Home

Table 4.13 is the distribution of respondents by how often they visit home, indicating that 270 child labourers representing 67.5% of the entire sampled respondents do not reside in their parent's homes.

Table 4.13: Distribution of Respondents by Frequency of Home Visitation

Frequency of Home Visitation	Frequency	Percentage
Once in a Week	12	4.4
Once in a Month	32	11.9
Once in a Year	140	51.9
Anytime	46	17.0
Never	40	14.8
Total	**270****	**100.0**

** Respondents who do not reside in their parent's home

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Among those who do not reside in their parent's home, more than half of them visit home once in a year with 51.9%, while 14.8% have never visited home since they started working. Those who visits homes once in a week, once in a month and anytime they want accounted for 4.4%, 11.9% and 17.0% accordingly. About 14.8% of child labourers have never visited their parental homes since they started working. Children are often times attached to their parents and as such, any attempt to disconnect this natural relationship through deprivation from visiting home from time to time may lead to psychological depression of such a child. This is further confirmed by Dantiye and Haruna (2004) who reported that early deprivation of children's right to normal life could lead to behavioural problems, such as problems of social maladjustment, moral defect, emotional reaction and insecurity.

4.3.13 Feeding

Figure4.3 shows the distribution of respondents by their daily feeding habits. Generally, food plays a significant role in determining one's health and fitness. Therefore, poor eating habits can be detrimental to health.

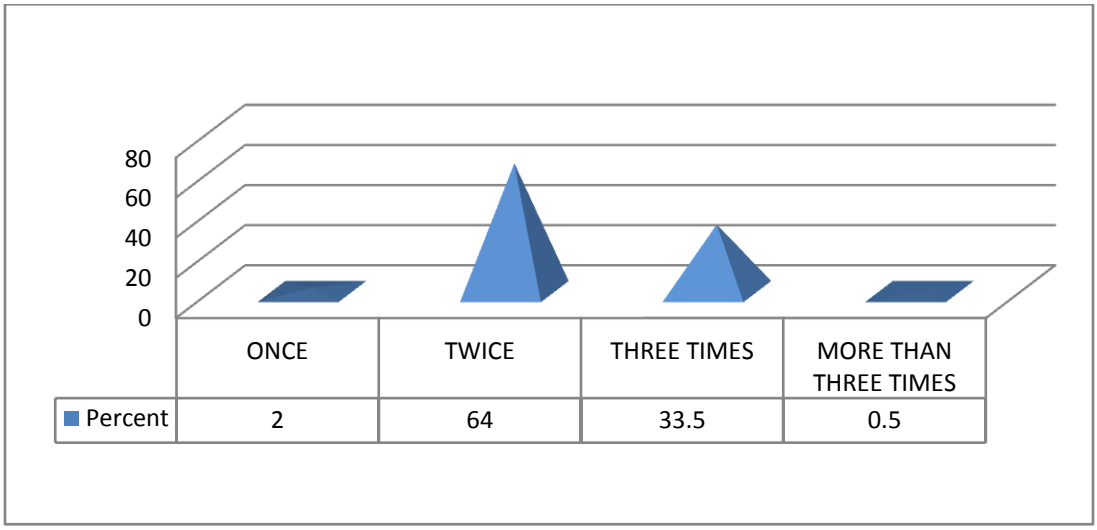


Figure 4.3 Percentage Distributions of Respondents by Daily Feeding Habits

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Figure 4.3 indicates that majority 64.0% of child labourers eat only twice in a day, followed by those that eat thrice a day with 33.5%. Also those who eat once in a day and more than three times in a day constitutes 2.0% and 0.5% respectively. From the finding, it is obvious to infer that majority of the child labourers do not feed adequately for instance at least up to three times daily. This is can be said to impact negatively towards the child's health and general developments.

4.3.14 Place of Residence

Table 4.14 shows the distribution of respondents by place of residence. From where it indicate that more than half of the child labourers 55.5% stay with their guardians, followed by 32.5% that stay with their parents.

Table 4.14 Distribution of respondents by Place of Residence

Place of Residence	Frequency	Percentage
Parents	130	32.5
Guardian	222	55.5
Friends	42	10.5
Stay alone	6	1.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Similarly, 10.5% of the working children stay with friends while 1.5% stay alone. It easy to conclude that considering the respondent's age, it may not be possible for them to stay alone

or with their supposedly friends, hence the higher proportion of those who stay with either their parents and or guidance compared to those that stay with friends or alone as noted from the finding.

4.3.15 Exposure to Societal Ills.

Table 4.15 shows the distribution of society ills exposed to due to respondent's participation in paid jobs by the types. It is well known that child labourer faces certain dangers which are peculiar to their work considering their age and level of maturity. Some of these dangers range from physical, verbal and sexual abuse as well as exposure to various degrees of job accidents, kidnappings and the dangers of being rubbed of their earning.

Table 4.15 Distribution on Exposure to Societal ills and kind of exposure

Condition of Exposure	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Exposed	334	83.5
Not exposed	66	16.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**
Kind of exposure		
Armed robbery	73	21.9
Automobile accident	85	25.4
Attempted kidnapping	8	2.4
Rapes/sexual molestation/assault	26	7.8

Physical assault	142	42.5
Total	**334**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 4.15 shows that children labourers in the study area are not left out of work related dangers, as out of 400 sampled respondents, 82.5% reveal that they have ever experienced one form of work related dangers or the other, while only 16.5% have never experienced any danger in the process of working. However, from the 334 respondents that have exposed to various types of societal ills due to their labour participation 42.5% have been exposed to physical assaults, 25.4% involved in automobile accident, 21.9% have encountered armed robbery attack. Also, 2.4% and 7.8% attested of an attempted kidnap and rape/sexual assaults respectively. This report is contrary to the findings made by Ikechebelu *et al*(2008) who carried out similar study in the same state and reported sexual assaults as the most prevalent type of danger experienced by child labourers. This may be probably because their study focused more on girls who had been sexually abused while trading on the streets.

4.3.16 Social Vices Participated in and the Effects on Mental Well-being.

Table 4.16 shows the distribution of respondents on type of social vices participated in and the effects on the mental well-being. In a nutshell, vices are social problems and have been thought of as social situations that a large number of observers feel are inappropriate and need remedying. It is also those acts and conditions that violate societal norms and values. Eitzen, (1980) views social vices as behaviours or social arrangements that disturb the moral order of the society.

Table 4.16 Distribution of Respondents by Social Vices Participated in and the Effects on mental well-being

Type of social vices	Frequency	Percentage
Stealing	4	1.0
Sexual escapes	8	2.0
Drug abuse	80	20.0
Drinking alcohol	176	44.0
Others	132	33.0
Total	**400**	**100.0**
Effect of work on mental well-being		
Stigmatization from press and public	44	11.0
Low self esteem	204	51.0
Personality disorder	10	2.5
Alienation from friends/family/relations	100	25.0
Others	42	10.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Table 4.16 shows that 40.0% have participated in drinking alcohol. While participation in drug abuse, sexual activities and stealing accounted for 20.0%, 2.0% and 1.0% in that other. “Others” who have participated in social vices like gang fighting and property vandalizationaccounted for 33.0%. In addition, 51.0% revealed they have suffered from low self-esteem. 25.0% feels alienated from friends/family/relation, while stigmatization and personality disorder accounted for 11.0% and 2.0% respectively. “Others”with 10.5% have never had any effect of work on their mental well-being. Consequently, by virtue of being outside the reach of the parents/guardians to caution the children to do what is right and acceptable, more especially those who are mainly on the streets, majority of these child labourers involve themselves in all manners of social vices.

4.3.17 Negative Effects of Work on the Child Labourer

Table 4.17 shows the distribution of respondents by the negative effects of participating in labourious activities.

Table 4.17 Distribution of Respondents by Negative Effects of Work

Negative Effects of Child Labour	Frequency	Percentage
Prevents school attendance	174	43.5
Lowered health status	188	47.0
Lowered moral standards	28	7.0
Others	10	2.5
Total	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

It can be deduced from Table 4.17 that about 47.0% of the respondents have experienced health related challenges as a result of their work. About 43.5% and 7.0% have experienced reduced school attendance and lowered moral standards respectively. "Others" category which include mental challenges, physical disabilities and scars account for 2.5% as the negative effects of work. An overview of negative effects of work on the respondents presented on Table 4.17 shows a clear violation of the Federation of Nigeria Labour Act 1990, Section 59 subsection (6) which states that no young person shall be employed in any employment which is injurious to his health, dangerous or immoral. The finding is also supported in literature by UNICEF (2004); ILO-IPEC (2002) where it was reported that child participation in economic activities have resultant effect on the child's health, schooling, physical, moral and psychological development.

4.3.18 Health Condition and the Nature of sickness

Table 4.18 shows the distribution of respondents by the nature of illness ever suffered as a result of participating in labourious activities.

Table 4.18 Distribution of Respondents by Nature of Illness

Nature of Illness	Frequency	Percentage
Cough/cold/fever	48	25.5
Body pain	96	51.1
Skin infection	16	8.5
Cuts/injuries	20	10.6
Eye/ear Impairment	8	4.3
Total	**188****	**100**

**** Respondents that have experienced health related challenges from job participation**

Source: Filed Survey, 2013.

Owing to the attending risks of child labour participation on the health of the children, Table 4.18 reveals that about 51.1% of the working children have experienced body pain as a result of their work, while 25.5% have had cough/cold/fever, about 10.6% have had cuts and injuries, 8.5% were reported to have had skin infections and 4.3% recorded eye/ear impairments. It is noteworthy that going by the result as presented on Table 4.18, that there is a compromise on the expectation of article 32 of the convention on the right of the child (CRC) with focus on child labour which recognizes 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 child'seducation or to be harmful to a child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development (UNICEF/FGN, 2000).

4.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF PARENTS

The socio-economic status of child's parents to a great extent influences whether a child will participate in labourous activities or not as well as the extent of such participation. According to Togunde (2006) study, parents with higher socio-economic status are more likely to own business rather than to seek for children'sassistance through participation in labourious

work for the family upkeep.If need be for the children to work, they only work for fewer hours as compared to the children belonging to lower socio-economic status. The socio-economic status of child's parents here includes marriage status, as well as the education and occupation.

4.4.1 Parent's Marital Status

The marital statuses of the respondent's parents are shown in table 4.19. The analysis on the marital status of the respondent' shows that more than half (68.9%) of the respondent's parents are married, followed by divorced parents with 17.4%.

Table 4.19Distribution of Respondents Parent's Marriage Status

Parents Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Married	222	68.9
Divorced	56	17.4
Separated	28	8.7
Never married	16	5.0
Total	**322****	**100**

**** Surviving parents**

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Separated parents and the never married parents accounted for 8.7% and 5.0% respectively. It is obviating to note that majority of the respondent's parents are in married, which is against the popularly held view that child labourers are mostly from single parent households and or orphans. However, it is possible to conclude that the most likely reason for dominance of children whose parents are married as against those from separated, divorced and never married homes, may be attributed to the low socio-economic status of parents, which invariably translates to parent's poverty. This view is supported by Bass (2004) and Binder and Sorgin (1999) who asserts that children of poor families have to work to help generate family

income and compensate for economic discrepancies in the society, particularly as the gap between the have and have not has grown in recent years.

4.4.2 Educational Levels of Parents

Table 4.20 shows the distribution of respondents parent's educational levels. Wherein, out of the entire sampled respondents, 315 parents obtained one form of educational qualification or the other. This is indicated where majority of the child labourers parents have secondary education as their educational qualifications, followed by those with primary education, OND/NCE and University degree and above accordingly.

Table 4.20 Distribution of Respondents Parent's Educational Status

Parent's Level of Education	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Primary	86	26.7
Secondary	220	68.3
OND/NCE	18	5.6
University degree or above	8	2.4
Total	**322****	**100.0**
****Surviving parents educational levels**		

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

In other word, 68.3% of respondent's parents obtained secondary education, while 23.6% obtained primary education, 5.6% have OND/NCE and 2.5% have University degree qualifications.This justifies the reasons for the children participation in labour as it is well established in research that parents with low educational statuses will likely allow their children to participate in child labour at the detriment of their educational acquisitions. This is in agreement with the affirmation by Brown (2006) study which noted parents with low educational levels, regardless of income are likely to put their children to work, as they may not weigh the

costs and benefits of forgoing labour now to see higher return in the future through educational acquisition.

4.4.3 Occupational Status of Parents

Table 4.21 shows that 68.3% of the respondents parents are into businesses, 19.6% and 5.6% are farmers and civil servants respectively. “Others” on the categories of occupational status of the respondents parent’s such as self-employment, carpenters, bus/taxi drivers represents 6.5%.

Table 4.21 Distribution of Respondents Parent’s Occupational Status

Parent’s Occupation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Civil service	18	5.6
Business	220	68.3
Farming	63	19.6
Others	21	6.5
Total	**322****	**100.0**
**** Surviving parent’s occupation**		

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

The occupational status of the respondent’s parents shows that business and farming are the dominant occupation and generally, these occupations are often time referred to as low income occupations. This may account for thechild participation in labourious activities. This is further ascertained by Obikeze (1995) who noted that parent in low-income households because of poverty cannot afford to provide for the education, nourishment and health related inputs for members of the household thereby compelling the children to contribute to family welfare by engaging in labourious activities.

CHAPTER FIVE

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF CHILD LABOUR

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is focused on the cross-tabulation and discussion of the results on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents. The cross-tabulations is done based on the dependent variables of child labour participation, numbers of hours of such participation and independents variables of age, sex, type of marital union, size of household,

reasons for engaging in paid jobs, schooling status, levels of education, type of work engaged in, parent's survival status, parent's socio-economic statuses as well as other working conditions of the respondents.

5.2 Type of Parent's Marital Union and Reasons for Engaging in Paid Jobs

Table 5.1 reveals that children from monogamous family 66.5% dominated child labourers in the area, compare with their counterparts 33.5% from polygamous family. This is against the normal norms of child labourers coming mainly from polygamous family. This may likely be because the parents are from low socio-economic background.

Table 5.1: Distribution of Respondents by Parent's Type of Marital Union and by Reasons for Engaging in Paid Jobs

Reasons for Engaging in Paid Jobs	Type of Marital Union				Total	
	Monogamy		Polygamy			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Complement family income	56	14.0	58	14.5	114	28.5
Earn a wage	6	1.5	6	1.5	12	3.0
Get money for my school fees	49	12.2	10	2.5	59	14.8

Due to poverty	152	38.0	57	14.2	209	52.2
Peer group pressure	3	0.8	3	0.8	6	1.5
Total	**266**	**66.5**	**134**	**33.5**	**400**	**100.0**
Calculated Value $\square^2$ =28.545 d/f = 4 P Value = .001						

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Out of the entire respondents from both monogamous and polygamous families, respondents from monogamous family 38.0% accounted for the highest percentage among those that gave poverty as the motivating factor for labour participation, as against 14.2% from the polygamous families. On the other hand, the proportion of those who work to complement family income is slightly higher among respondents from polygamous family 14.5% compared with their monogamous counterparts with 14.0%. About 12.2% of respondents from monogamous family work to get school fees, compared with 2.5% from polygamous family. As little as 1.5% from both monogamous and polygamous families work to earn a wage and lastly, 0.8% also from both monogamous and polygamous families joined the workforce due to pressure from peer groups. Generally, it is obvious that respondents from monogamous family outnumbered their counterparts from polygamous family among those who participates in child labour activities due to the need to poverty and to pay school fees. This is because, most parents are involved in low income earning occupations such as small scale businesses, farming as well as have large number of family members to cater for in terms of feeding, payment of school fees and the general family upkeeps. Hence unable to cater for the family, as such may encourage their children to work so as to help sustain the family.

A chi square analysis on the respondents reasons for working and the type of marital union shows that there is significant relationship between the reasons for child participation in paid jobs and the child's type of household ($\square^2$= 28.545, df=4, p value = .001). This is highly

significant at 0.05 significant levels. This may be the case because irrespective of family structure, provided that family is poor, there is high possibility for the parents of such families to engage their children into labourious work so as to keep the family afloat the poverty line. This is supported by Obikeze (1986) and Oloko (1992) that poverty and illiteracy reinforced by traditional customs such as polygamy and preference for large family size as root causes of child labour in Nigeria.

5.3 Household Size and Reasons for Engaging in Paid Jobs

The presentation on Table 5.2 shows the distribution of respondents and their reasons for engaging in paid jobs by their household size. Table 5.2 reveals that respondents from large household sizes between 5-9 and 10+ persons dominated with 36.0% and 15.8% among respondents that work due to poverty, compared with as little as 0.8% that work for the same reason but from smaller household size of 0-4 persons.

Table 5.2 Distribution of respondents by Household Size and by Reasons for Working

Reason for Engaging in Paid Jobs	Size of the household						Total	
	0-4		5-9		10+			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Complement family income	1	0.2	50	12.5	63	15.8	114	28.5
Earn a wage	1	0.2	6	1.5	5	1.2	12	3.0
Get money for my school fees	3	0.8	45	11.2	11	2.8	59	14.8
Due to poverty	5	1.3	144	36.0	60	15.0	209	52.2
Peer group pressure	0	0.0	3	0.8	3	0.7	6	1.5

Total	**10**	**2.5**	**248**	**62.0**	**142**	**35.5**	**400**	**100.0**
Calculated Value $\square^2$ =35.047	**d/f = 8**	**P Value = .001**						

Source: Field Survey, 2013.

Among respondents who work to complement family income, majority 15.8% are from household size of more than 10 persons, followed by those from household size between 5.9 persons with 12.5%, and the least are those from smaller household of 0-4 persons. Respondents who work to get money for school fees is ranked the third on the reasons for respondent's participation in paid jobs with approximately 14.0% accounting for those from households size of above 5 persons, compared with those from household size of 0-4 persons with 0.8%. This finding is justified by Fetuga *et al* (2005) report that harsh economic realities such as, the burden of paying school fees and catering for large family size are some of the underlying reasons that compel parents to send their children to work, as well as the report by Grootaert (1998) which clearly established that larger household sizes reduce children's school enrolment and increase their participation in economic activities.

Also, the chi square analysis on the relationship between household size and reasons for respondents engaging in paid jobs reveals $\square^2$=35.047, df=8, p= .001, indicating that there is a significant relationship between household size and child's reasons for working at 0.05 significant levels.

The findings also agrees with the response from some employers of child workers interviewed during Focus Group Discussion, as stated by two managers interviewed:

> *Children have to work at least to make some money for the families, given their family situation. Thus, it is better to give them something to do here, where we know it will be both helpful to their families and preventing them from participating in idling or illegal activities.* (Mr Mike Ezeorji, Onitsha north, 30th July, 2013)

Another manager concurred:

"*I know about child labour laws. However, if we do not let the children work, who else would help them? Their families are poor. Thus, giving them some work to do means to help them and their families.* (Mr Okwy Asiegbu, Onitsha north, 30th July, 2013).

5.4 Reasons for Engaging in Paid Jobs and Parent's Survival Status

Table 5.3 shows that the proportion of children participating in economic activities is higher among the children whose parents either as single or both surviving parents which account for 80.5% than those whose parents are no longer alive that make up 19.5%.

Table 5.3: Distribution by Reasons for Working and by Parent's Survival Status

	Parent's Survival Status				**Total**	
	Yes		**No**			
Reason for Engaging in Paid Jobs	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**
Complement family income	102	25.5	12	3.0	114	28.5
Earn a wage	10	2.5	2	0.5	12	3.0
Get money for my school fees	57	14.2	2	0.5	59	14.8
Due to poverty	147	36.8	62	15.5	209	52.2
Peer group pressure	6	1.5	0	0.0	6	1.5
Total	**322**	**80.5**	**78**	**19.5**	**400**	**100.0**
Calculated Value χ^2 = 30.875	**d/f = 4**		**P Value = .001**			

Source: Filed Survey, 2013

In addition, there are higher percentages of those whose parents are alive that work for reasons such as, due to poverty with 36.8%, to complement family income with 25.5%, pay school fees with 14.2%, to earn a wage with 2.5% and due to peer group pressure with 1.5%, compared with those whose parents are no longer alive that work for the same reasons as, due to poverty 15.5%, to complement family income 3.0%, pay school fees 0.5%, to earn a wage 0.5% and due to peer group pressure 0.0%. The possible reason for this finding may be because, irrespective of parent's survival status, so long as children are from poor family background,

their chances of participating in labourious jobs is higher compared to when the children are from wealthy families.

In order words, It is well established in the literature that parent's survival status greatly determine the option for children participation in labourous activities. As noted by Barman (2011) that the risk of participation in child labour is very high when both of the parents are not alive than when both are alive. It is surprising from the analysis that the presence of both father and mother in a household encourages the participation of children in all work activities than when both parents are not alive. The explanation for this is difficult; however, it may be because since from the findings, most of the respondents are from large family backgrounds. Hence, the presence of both parents may bring about an increasein both household size and family expenditure, which compels their children to work for additional income to improve the welfare of the household.

The chi square analysis also shows that there is a significant relationship between the child's reasons for participating in economic activities and the parent's survival status (χ^2=30.875, d/f = 4, p = .001). This is significant at 0.05 probability levels.

This result is supported by the opinion of child labour employer interviewed during a Focus Group Discussion, he noted thus;

> *Most of these children working here are from very poor families, they work to make money to assist their parents in the family upkeep, some who are also in school come here to work after school to make some money to pay their fees.* (Mr Udoka Ogueli, Amaesi, 1st August 2013)

5.5 Number of Hours Spent at Work and Selected Socio-Economic Variables

The regression result presented in Table 5.4 reveals thatof all the P-values variables included in the equation, only X_1, (Sex) X_3, (Father's education level) X_4 (Mother's education

level)and X_5 (Father's occupation)are significant and they are all significant at 0.05 confidence interval signifying, that any increase in X variables above will automatically affect the number of hours respondents will spend at work. Whereas, Age of child (X_2) shows no significant difference between the dependent variables, but shows a negative relationship between the number of hours a child will spend at work, signifying that any decrease in the values of X variables, will mean a decrease in the number of hours spent at work by the child labourers. This means that younger children are likely to work for lesser hours compared to the older ones this may be attributed to their poor physiological development.

Table 5.4: Regression Analysis of Respondents by Number of Hours spent at Work and by the Respondent's and Parent's Socio-economic Variables.

Variables	Coefficient	Std. Error	T- Value	P- Value
(Constant)	5.308	0.702	7.557	0.000
Sex X_1	-0.308	0.152	-2.025	0.046**
Age X_2	-0.098	0.186	-0.526	0.600
Father's education level X_3	0.398	0.102	-3.903	0.000**
Mother's education level X_4	0.250	0.105	2.375	0.019**

Father's occupation X_5	-0.238	0.096	-2.492	0.014**
Mother's occupation X_6	-0.167	0.131	-1.274	0.206
Present class X_7	0.064	0.073	0.877	0.383
Type of work X_8	0.018	0.104	0.170	0.866

Number of Observations = 8; R- Squared = .213; Adjusted R Squared = .149;

F- statistic = 3.350 ** Significant at 0.05 probability level

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Moreso, there has been substantial debate over whether children and parents (particularly mothers) are substitutes or complements in economic activity. Proponents of the complementary argument assert that when mothers participate in the labour force, children take over household work from mothers; that is, mothers and children are complementary in economic activity (domestic work) (Levison, 1991). On the other hand, proponents of the substitution argument (Basu and Van, 1998) are of the view that when mothers are more available for market work, children are removed from the labour market. This results in a decrease in the labour force participation rate of children and an increase in school attendance. Thus, parents (or mothers) and children are substitutes in economic activities. For example, mother's occupation X_6 has negative coefficient, but has no statistical significant effects on the number of hours respondents will spend at work. This implies that while parent's occupation is a variable in determining child labour participation, most mothers in the study area have low occupational statuses, mostly due to their low educational qualifications. Hence, are likely engaged in those economic activities which are complementary to the children and will in return reduce the number of hours the children may spend doing the same job. This is similar to the observation made by Kuti, (2006) that women with high occupational statuses will likely spend the most vital part of the day at

work which consequently results to the mounting of unnecessary pressure on the children especially the females to carry out household chores, thereby depriving the children much needed rest and recreation activities necessary for their growth and developments.

Other explanatory variables which are also statistically insignificant, but with positive coefficient values, (Respondent's present class X_7 and type of work X_8) will exert a positive relationship on the number of hours a child will spend at work. This means that the high the level of respondents class in school, the higher the likelihood of him/her spending more time at work. This finding is in keeping with Togunde and Carter (2008) report of longer hours of participation at work among students in secondary schools than those in primary schools in a study carried out in Ogun state, Nigeria. In addition, the coefficient of X_8 (type of work) also shows positive relationship, signifying that children who combine more than one job will likely spend more hours working than those that work in only one place. This is similar to Odurukwe and Okpukpara (2003) finding that older children are more likely than younger children to combine household chores with some economic activities.

Father's level of education (X_3) and mother's level of education (X_4) have statistical significant effects to the hours children will likely spend at work. This implies that educational attainment of parents plays key role in determining a child's work. Educated parents are expected to dissuade children from engaging in labour activity because they usually realize the importance of education, in particular the long-term (monetary) returns to human capital accumulation and even if need be, such economic participation will not be at the detriment of the child's education. This finding is in variance with that by Kim and Zepeda (2004) who observed that the higher the parent's educational level, the higher the probability that children will work but for a fewer hours.

Gender of the child labourer (X_1) is statistically significant to the number of hours respondents will spend at work, but the coefficient indicated a negative relationship. This could be interpreted to mean that the number of hours child labourers spend at work to a large extent depends on the gender of the child. Therefore, it is easy to conclude that the dominance of a particular sex participating in a particular economic activity, the longer the number of hours they spend at work visa-a-vice. This is because child labourers of the same sex may likely feel safe and secured when they work together in group (same sex) and also may work for longer hour or less provided that they are in company of each other. This is justified by the opinion of a child labour employer interviewed during the FGD. To him;

I hire both male and female to work for me here because, children by their nature, work competitively, faster and freer when they work in the same environment with children of the same sex.so it is possible for them to finish their daily tasks here faster and then close to go to their various houses. (Mr Richard Egbue. Onitsha North, 2nd August, 2013)

In a typical African society, men are generally referred to as the breadwinners in the family; this is because it is seen as their obligation to provide the necessary resources needed for upkeep of the family. The regression result of father's occupation X_5 shows a statistically significant effect to the number of hours respondents will spend at work, while the coefficient value shows a negative relationship. This signifies that children whose parents (father) are underemployed (low income earners) will likely spend less time participating in economic activities. The reason could be because an educated father may be aware of the dangers of exposing the child to long hours of work on the child's education and health, so may dissuade the child from participating in the work in a way that undermines the child's education and health.

5.6 Sexand Type of Work Engaged in by the Children

The sex specific differential of respondents participating in different paid economic activities is presented in Table 5.5. This is necessary to ascertain the sex specifics mostly participating in economic activities.

Table 5.5: Distribution of Respondents by Sex and Type of Work Engaged in

Type of Work Engaged in	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Service Sector Work	52	13.0	22	5.4	74	18.5
Sales Sector Work	123	30.8	111	27.8	234	58.5
Agricultural Sector Work	11	2.8	11	2.8	22	5.5
Industrial Sector Work	26	6.4	44	11.0	70	17.5
Total	**212**	**53.0**	**188**	**47.0**	**400**	**100.0**
Calculated Value χ^2 = 16.024	**d/f = 3**		**P Value = .001**			

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Sex analysis according to sectors of economy where respondents work in, shows that males in service sectors with 13.0% outnumbered the females with 5.4% in the same sector, there are also more males 30.8% in sales sectors than the females 27.8%. The proportion of both sex is equal (males 2.8%, females 2.8%) among those in agricultural sectors. Conversely, females with 11.0% outnumbered the males with 6.4% among those working in industrial sector. The high proportion of males against the females observed in both the service and sales sectors is expected as males are often times required to carry out those jobs that are more tasking physically unlike the females and this makes them more employable than their female counterparts. On the other hand, the higher proportion of female labourers over the male counterparts in the industrial sector may likely be compensated with the view of a child labour employer interviewed during a Focus Group Discussion;

It is preferable to employ female children here because they are very organised, dedicated and easy to manage unlike the males who are very rude and arrogant to control. (Mr Obiora Ezeagu, Sachet water manufacturer, Amawbia, 2nd August 2013)

The chi square analysis on sex and type of sector of work respondents engaged in as presented in Table 5.6 yields that $\chi^2 = 16.024$; d/f = 3; p value = .001 at 0.05 probability levels, signifying that there is a significant relationship between the sex of respondents and the type of work engaged in. The justification for this finding may be due to the fact that male children may be more preferred in certain occupations than their female counterparts due to high physical demanding nature of the job, which may give males higher advantage than their female counterparts due to their natural physical endowments.

5.7 Age and Type of Work Engaged in

Table 5.6 represents the age groups of respondents by the type of paid jobs engaged in. As age is considered an important factor that determines the type of economic activities a child participates in. A glance at Table 5.6 reveals that there are more respondents of 11– 17 age groups with 71.0% than there are of 4 – 10 age groups with 29.0% involved in one form of economic activities or the other.

Table 5.6: Distribution by Age Groups and Type of Work Engaged in

Type or Work	Age Group					
	4-10		11-17		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Service Sector Work	9	2.2	65	16.2	74	18.5
Sales Sector Work	90	22.5	144	36.0	234	58.5
Agricultural Sector Work	8	2.0	14	3.5	22	5.5
Industrial Sector Work	9	2.3	61	15.3	70	17.5

Total	**116**	**29.0**	**284**	**71.0**	**400**	**100.0**
Calculated Value χ^2= 29.802	**d/f = 3**		**P Value = .001**			

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Comparatively, age-to-type of work analysis shows that child labour participation is higher in older age groups (11-17 years) in all the specific sectors of work in Table 5.6, than there are in younger age groups of (4 – 10 years). This finding is similar to Okpukpara and Odurukwe (2003) which reported that more children participate in paid work at older ages than at younger age in Nigeria.

Chi square analysis on the relationship between respondent's age and the type of economic activities involved in reveals that χ^2= 29.802, d/f = 3, p = .001, indicating that there is a significant relationship between child's age and the type of work engaged in at 0.05 significant levels. This is likely because certain jobs requires certain age groups as qualification criteria. For instance, during the field survey, it was discovered that older children were more employed in street hawking activities (sales sector) than in agricultural activities (agricultural sector). Reasons being due to the higher physical energy requirements as well as risk of vehicular accidents in street hawking compared to agricultural activities where there is absence of risk of vehicle accidents.

5.8 Sex and Academic Performance/Attendance

Table 5.7 reveals that out of 400 sampled respondents, 226 are attending school and have experienced various forms of challenges in their academic performance as a result of their participation in paid jobs. Consequently, Table 5.7 shows that out of 226 children who combine work with school, more males with 59.7% than females with 41.3% have experienced negative effects in their academic performance as a result of participating in paid jobs.

Table 5.7 Distribution on Sex and Effects of Child Labour Participation on academic Performance of Respondents

Effects of Work on Educational Performance	Sex				Total	
	Male		Female			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Reduced School Attendance	21	9.3	16	7.1	37	16.4
Grade Repetition	54	23.9	37	16.4	91	40.3
Lowered Class Performances	29	12.8	26	11.5	55	24.3
Increased Lateness To School	31	13.7	12	5.3	43	19.0
Total	**135**	**59.7**	**91**	**40.3**	**226**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Most of the respondents (Males, 23.9% and Females, 16.4%) have experienced grade repetition in school due to their participation in paid jobs, followed by those who have experienced lowered class performances with males accounting for 12.8% and females with 11.5% respectively. Also, more males with 13.7% than females with 5.3% have also experienced increased lateness to school from participating in paid jobs and lastly, males with 9.3% also outnumbered the females with 7.1% among those that have experienced reduced school attendance. Generally, the dominance of males over the females among the respondent that reported of educational related challenges due to job participation may be due to the higher number of males among the respondents than their female counterparts.It may also be due to the fact that male labourers are more likely than their female counterparts to spend longer hours in paid jobs due to their muscular nature, which may in return deprive them the opportunity to concentrate in their academic pursuits. This is supported by Galal (2003); Yount (2004) and Sassanpour (2008) who in their various studies noted that education outcomes are greatly affected by child labour. They also noted that children who work are more likely to repeat grades, take time away from classes and homework, more tired than their peers and are unable to concentrate in school as well as loss of interest in school.

5.9 Age and School Grade Attainment

The age specific differentials in child schooling is examined in Table 5.8. The age is grouped into those aged 4 and 10 years (primary school age), those aged 11 and17 years (Secondary School age). This age grouping is important in order to ascertain the specific consequence of child participation in paid jobs on educational attainments.

Table 5.8: Distribution of Respondents by Age Group and Level of Education

	Age				Total	
	4-10		11-17			
Level of Education	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**
Primary 1-3	27	11.9	17	7.5	44	19.5
Primary 4-6	29	12.8	76	33.6	105	46.5
<JSS 3	0	0.0	29	12.9	29	12.8
>JSS 3	3	1.3	45	19.9	48	21.2
Total	**59**	**26.1**	**167**	**73.9**	**226**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

In all, child labour participation is bias against primary school children who accounted for 66.0%, against their secondary school counterparts with 40.0%. Moreso, child labour participation is also bias against the older children with 73.9% than their younger ones 26.1%. A further comparative analysis on age and level of education on Table 5.8 reveals that about 33.6% and 7.5% of the children who are of secondary school age (11-17 years) are still in primary 1-3 and primary 4-6 respectively. This could be attributed to their participation in economic activities which takes their time/attention away from school, hence results in grade repetition and subsequently may lead to a total drop-out from school.

This situation could spell doom for the state in terms of educational acquisition for children who will become adults of tomorrow because it is generally believed that children who

drop out from school at primary school levels, will likely find it more difficult to go back to school at adult stage than those who drop out at secondary school levels.

5.10 Sex and Schooling Status

Presentation on Table 5.9 represents the distribution of respondents by sex and schooling status. Table 5.9, it shows that out of 400 sampled respondents, 174 are not attending any form of school as at the time of carrying out the research. More than 95% of these children that are not in school are school dropouts, whereas, only 5% have never been to school before.

Table 5.9 Distribution of Respondents by Sex and Schooling Status

	Sex					
	Male		**Female**		**Total**	
Schooling Status	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**
Ever Being to School	81	46.6	85	48.9	166	95.4
Never Being to School	0	0.0	8	4.6	8	4.6
Total	**81**	**46.6**	**93**	**53.4**	**174****	**100.0**

**** Respondents who are not attending any form of school**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Sex analysis further reveals that more females with 48.9%, than males with 46.6% have dropped out from school, also more females with 4.6% than males with 0.0% have never being to school before. In all, it is clear that child labour participation have contributed more to the compromising of female child education opportunities than their male counterparts.

5.11 Sex and Health Consequences

Table 5.10 presents the distribution of respondents by sex and by type of health challenges faced by engaging in paid jobs.

Table 5.10: Distribution of Respondents by Sex and by Type of Health Challenges Faced

Health Challenges Faced from Engaging in Paid	**Sex**		**Total**
	Male	**Female**	

Jobs	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Cough/Cold/Fever	21	11.2	27	14.4	48	25.5
Body Pain	50	26.6	46	24.5	96	51.1
Skin Infection	6	3.2	10	5.3	16	8.5
Cuts/Injuries	11	5.9	9	4.8	20	10.6
Eye/Ear Problems	6	3.2	2	1.1	8	4.3
Total	**94**	**50.0**	**94**	**50.0**	**188**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Table 5.10 reveals that 11.2% of male and 14.4% of female respondents have suffered from health related issues such cough/cold/fever as a result of their work. Male respondents with 26.6% and 5.9% outnumbered their female counterparts with 24.5% and 4.8% among those that have experienced body pain and cuts/injuries due to participation in paid jobs. The higher proportion of males among those that have experience body pain and cut/injuries as a result of participation in paid jobs over the female counterparts may be because of the male masculine nature which makes them more employable in jobs that are more risky and physically demanding. Hence the higher proportion of male labourers working as motor conductors, apprentices in welding workshops and block making companies in the study area.

5.12 Sex and Associated Dangers of Child Labour Participation

Table 5.11 shows the distribution of respondents by the type of dangers experienced by sex. The analysis reveals that more females with 22.6% than males with 20.1% have been physically assaulted owing to their participation in paid jobs. This could be that females are generally weaker than males, hence such attribute makes them prone to all manners of physical abuses than their male counterparts, the result is that such females may grow up to become reclusive and timid.

Table 5.11: Distributions of Respondents by sex and Type of Dangers Experienced from Engaging in Paid Jobs

Types of Dangers Experienced	Sex				Total	
	Male		Female			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Armed Robbery	39	11.6	34	10.2	73	21.9
Automobile Accident	46	13.8	39	11.7	85	25.4
Attempted Kidnapping	4	1.2	4	1.2	8	2.4
Rapes/Sexual Molestation/Assault	7	2.1	19	5.7	26	7.8
Physical Assaults	67	20.1	75	22.6	142	42.5
Total	**163**	**48.8**	**171**	**51.2**	**334**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Moreso, 13.8% of male and 11.6% of female respondents have been involved in automobile accident as a result of their exposure to work. Among respondents that have experienced armed robbery attacks and attempted kidnaps males accounted for 11.7%, 1.2% and females accounted for 10.2%, 1.2% respectively. Also there is higher proportion of females with 5.7% than males with 2.1% among respondents that have been rapped and or sexually assaulted. This may likely be because female labourers are more vulnerable than their male counterparts hence are easily harassed sexually.

Generally speaking, by virtue of being outside the care of parents/guardians most time in the day, children are prone to experience all type dangers, for instance, their exposure to rapes and other forms of sexual assaults as presented in Table 5.11, could lead to unwanted pregnancies/teenage motherhood, sexually transmitted infections and early death.

5.12 Sex and Social/Mental Consequences of Child Labour

Figure 5.1 shows the observed percentage distribution of respondents by sex and by the effects of their participation in labourious activities on social and mental well-beings. An analysis of this nature is relevant owing to the fact that a sound child of today will be a sound adult, parent and leader of tomorrow; hence the knowledge of the consequences of their

participation in economic activities on these variables will go a long way in ensuring that adequate measures are taken to ban child labour participation. Analysis of respondents by sexand social vices participation in figure 5.1 shows that a total of 22.0% males and 22.0% females respondents have participated in drinking of alcohol, which is a confirmation that child labourer's participations in social vices is very disturbing.

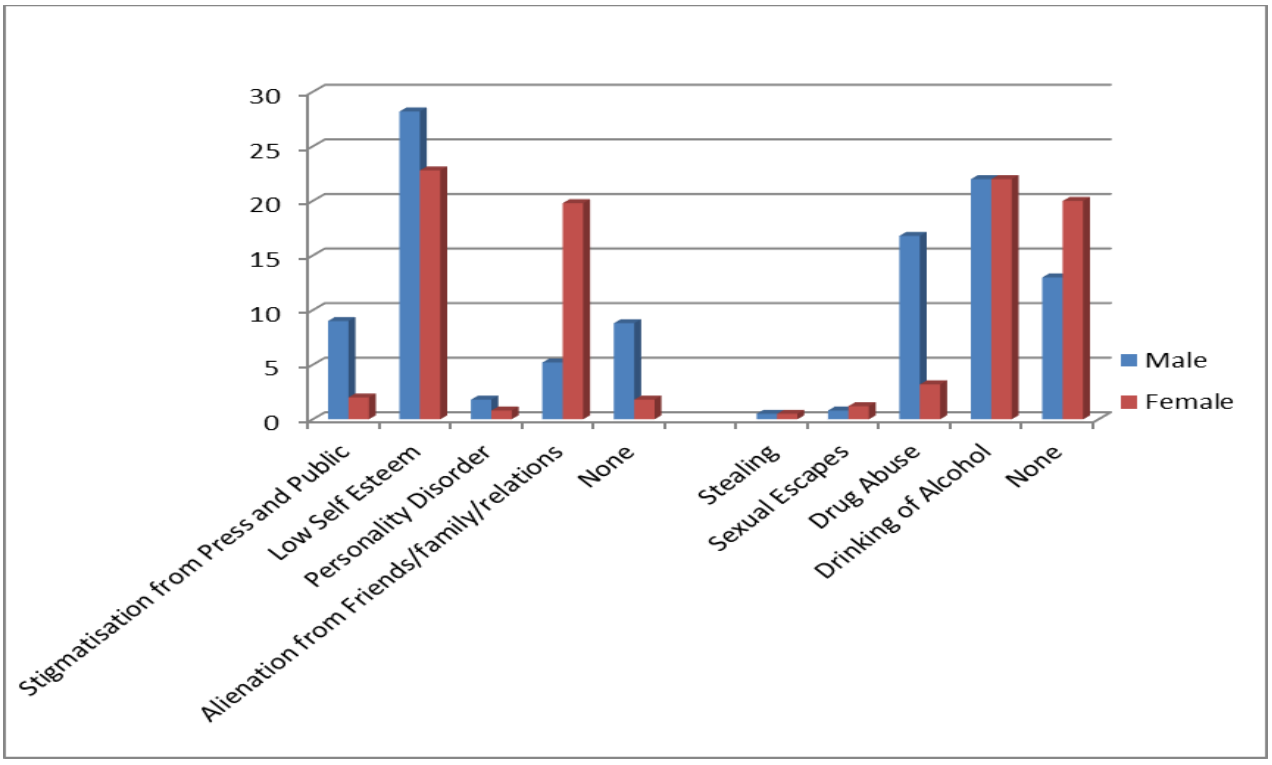


Figure 5.1Percentage Distributions of Respondents by Sex and by Effects of Work on Social/Mental Well-beings

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Of more threatening is the revelation that 16.8% of males and 3.2% of females have been exposed to drug abuse. While 0.8% of males and 1.2% of females have participated in sexual escapade, 0.5% of males and 0.5% of females also have been involved in stealing, whereas, only about 13.0% and 20.0% of the male and female respondents have never participated in any form of social vices in the study area. The high rate of participation in social vices such as drug abuse and alcoholism over stealing and sexual escapes across genders is an indication that these

children if not rehabilitated in time may grow up to exhibit those attitudes that deviate from normal expectations. This submission is also buttressed by Emerson and Andre (2003) report that children who are already entrenched into a particular behaviour at a young age will not easily stop that behaviour in adulthood. If the behaviour is detrimental to the child's health, like use of dangerous drugs for example, smoking of marijuana, the children are destined to becoming sickly and destitute; hence useless in their economic life to the society during the adulthood.

The analysis of emotional consequences of child labour participation by sex reveals that most of the working children in the study area are exposed to all manners of emotional stress that ranges from stigmatisation from press and public, low self-esteem, personality disorder and alienation from friends/family/relations which constitutes, 11.0%, 51.0%, 2.6% and 25.0% respectively. Sex analysis reveals that males with 9.0% outnumbered the females with 2.0% among those that have been stigmatized against by the press and public. this is true because, it is common to see male children working as bus conductors, waste pickers, mechanics etc. whereas, children in these types of activities are often times regarded in the society as dirty and or ill-behaved, hence are easily stigmatised against. Also worthy to note is the fact that low self-esteem constitutes the highest type of emotional stress experienced by both male with 28.2% and female with 22.8% respondents.

Children who suffer low self-esteem are more likely to experience restlessness, low self-actualisation and loss of future ambition. This finding is also noted by Emerson and Andre (2003) that child labour deprives the child of a proper childhood, which in most cases, leads to many psychological imbalances which are often expressed in the form of increased aggressiveness, low self-esteem and eventually reducing the child's potential to contribute to their full potential in the society when they reach adulthood. Most of such children become

problematic citizens who engage in illicit behaviour which is detrimental to upward advancement of the family and society at large.

5.14 Monthly Income and Extent of Needs Met

The data on monthly income and the extent of needs met as a result of the respondent's participation in labourious activities as presented in Table 5.12 reveals that 50.0% of the respondents whose monthly earnings is within all the stated income categories do not have any idea if their needs for working have been met, whereas, 39.0% of the respondents who earn monthly income of between <₦1000 and >₦2500 feel that their needs for working is poorly met.

Table 5.12: Distribution by Monthly Incomes and the Extent of Needs Met from Working

Income Per Month	Extent of Needs Met								Total	
	Poorly		Fairly		Very Well		No Idea			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	N	%	No.	%
< ₦1000	11	2.8	1	0.2	0.0	0.0	4	1.0	16	4.0
Between ₦1100-₦1500	20	5.0	4	1.0	2	0.5	42	10.5	68	17.0
Between ₦1600-₦2000	38	9.5	7	1.8	0	0.0	39	9.8	84	21.0
Between ₦2100-₦2500	54	13.5	28	7.0	2	0.5	50	12.5	134	33.5
Others	33	8.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	65	16.2	98	24.5
Total	**156**	**39.0**	**40**	**10.0**	**4**	**1.0**	**200**	**50.0**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Respondents whose needs have been met fairly and very well from all the monthly income categories accounted for 10.0% and 1.0% respectively. From the analysis, it is seen that as little as less than 11.0% of the entire respondents feel that their needs such as to pay school fees, complement family income, earn wage among others have been met either fairly or very well. One of the possible reasons for this may be, since child labour is seen as an illegal activity, no legal provision is made to regulate the amount payable to the children by their employers and this may give room for gross financial exploitation by child labourer employers. This is further

justified by Oloko (2004) report that child labouers in Nigeria work longer hours in poor and unhealthy conditions and are paid a token fee less than 1/3 of legislated minimum wage of ₦18,500 per month.

5.15 Employment Condition and School Status

Table 5.13 represents the distribution of respondents on employment condition and by school status, from where it reveals that majority of child labourers combine work with school which accounted for 56.5% than those who only work with 43.5%. Analysis on the employment condition and school status also shows that majority of respondents who are in school, work on temporal basis (46.0%) compared with those who do not attend school (4.0%). A plausible explanation for this finding is that children who combine work with school may likely work after closing from school either for extra pocket money or to help their parents raise money for the family upkeep.

Table 5.13: Distribution by School Status and Employment Condition

	School Status				Total	
	Yes		No.			
Employment Condition	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**
Temporal	184	46.0	16	4.0	200	50.0
Permanent	16	4.0	76	19.0	92	23.0
Contract	26	6.5	82	20.5	108	27.0
Total	**226**	**56.5**	**174**	**43.5**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Moreso, majority of those who work on permanent basis do not attend school (19.0%) than those who attend school with 4.0%. This result follows the expected trend as it is not possible to attend school regularly and also work regularly, hence permanent employment is more suitable for respondents who are completely out of school and visa-vice. In addition, higher percentages of respondents that work on contract basis do not attend school with 20.5% compared with those that attend school with 6.5%. This is to be expected, as most contract type of work has stipulated completion time attached to it, so requires more time and commitments.

5.16 Working Days Per/Week and Working Hours

Table 5.14 represents the distribution of respondents by working days and working hours, from where it shows that the dominant working days of respondents is 6 days in a week which constitutes 73.0%, followed by those that work for every day of the week with 24.0% and the least working days category by respondents is once a week with 3.0%.

Table 5.14: Distribution by Working Days per Week and Working Hours

Working Days	Average Working Hours									
	< 2 Hours		3-4 Hours		5-6Hours		>7 Hours		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Everyday	2	0.5	6	1.5	28	7.0	60	15.0	96	24.0
Once a Week	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	12	3.0	12	3.0
6 Days a Week	0	0.0	2	0.5	48	12.0	242	60.5	292	73.0
Total	**2**	**0.5**	**8**	**2.0**	**76**	**19.0**	**314**	**78.5**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The highest daily working hours by most respondents is above 7 hours, followed by 5-6 hours and the least daily working hours by the respondents is less than 2 hours. This finding signifies that majority of child labourers in the study area work for 6 days in a week and above 7 hours daily. This is certainly a reason to believe that the educational performance of these children is impaired – if they are in school at all, more especially going by Fallon and Zafiris (1998) report which consider 20 hours of work per week as the critical threshold beyond which the education of the child starts being significantly affected.

5.17 Place of Residence and Age at First Start of Work

The distribution of respondents on age at first start of work by living arrangement is presented on Table 5.15, from where it reveals that irrespective of living arrangement of respondents, age at first start of work is mainly from the age below 10 years, compared to any other age groups. Whereas, the least age at first start of work for money from all categories of living arrangements is below 5 years. This finding is similar Okpukpara and Odurukwe (2006) report that in Nigeria, children enter the work force at an average age of 7.9 years, with an average higher age of (11.0 years) required to participate in paid work than in unpaid work (7.9 years).

Table 5.15: Distribution of Respondents according to relation by Age at first Start of Work

	Age at First Start of Work for Money								Total	
	<5 Years		<10 Years		<15 Years		<18 Years			
Living with	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Parents	4	1.0	77	19.2	38	9.5	5	1.2	124	31.0
Guardian	0	0.0	174	43.5	43	10.8	7	1.8	224	56.0
Friends	0	0.0	35	8.8	5	1.2	4	1.0	44	11.0
Stay alone	0	0.0	4	1.0	2	0.5	2	0.5	8	2.0
Total	**4**	**1.0**	**290**	**72.5**	**88**	**22.0**	**18**	**4.5**	**400**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey, 2013

In addition, 1.0% of the respondents living with their parents started work at age less than 5 years, while none of the respondents living with either guardians, friends and or staying alone started work for the first time at age below 5 years. The possible explanation for this finding may not be unrelated to the child's parents poverty and the need to complement family income as indicated in Table 4.8 which may have forced the parents to send the child out to work for money to assist in the family upkeep. For instance Oloko, 2004; Adewuyi, 1998) noted that age and gender variation of child labour participation depends on tribes, cultures, religion and socio-economic conditions of the parents in Nigeria.

5.18 Sex and Future Workforce

Figure 5.2 presents a percentage distribution of respondents on the negative effects of work according to sex. The effects of child labour transcend personal, family and society, the conception of these may not follow the chronology. The negative impact of child labour on child health and education can be detrimental to child development because of its far-reaching effects, and its long term effects are usually hard to detect. Figure 5.2 shows that more females with 21.0% than males with 20.0%, combining school with work have witnessed lower school attendance.

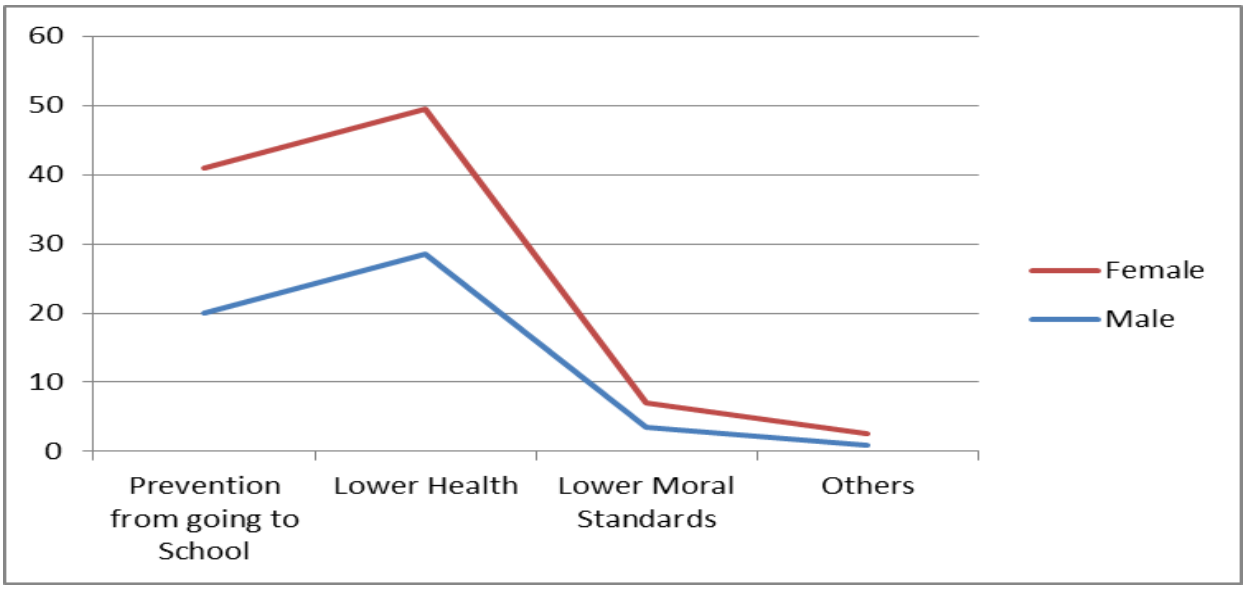


Figure 5.2: Percentage distribution of Respondents on Negative Effects of Work by Sex

Source: Field Survey, 2013

Signifying that irrespective of respondent's sex, participation in work hinders effective school attendance. The implication of poor school attendance means that children who are the future adults may likely remain uneducated or undereducated, thereby missing out in acquiring the basic education necessary for competent/productive future workforce. In justifying the finding, For instance Basu (1998) in his study maintained that there is a 'child labour trap' that the family is likely to fall into. His contention is that an increase in child labour frequently causes a decline in the acquisition of human capital. He explained further if a child is employed all through the day, it is likely that the child will remain uneducated and have low productivity as an adult. That is if a child works more, his productivity as an adult falls because child labour diminishes adult productivity. Also, Anker (2001) argued that the kind of work that displace children from school attainment reduce human capital; consequently reduce labour productivity, economic growth and economic development on the long run. These forms of works reduce children mental and physical development and reduce children productivity as adult.

In addition, it is also obvious from Figure 5.2 that more males with 28.5% than females with 21.0% have witnessed negatively related health challenges from participating in economic activities. Male children are more likely start working at younger age and to participate in risky jobs than their female counterparts and these makes them more prone to various work related accidents/hazards. Since a healthy population is necessary for effective productive forces, therefore an unhealthy child of today may likely remain an unhealthy adult of tomorrow, hence may be unable to make meaningful contribution towards the betterment of himself, family and the society at adult stage. This finding is also justified by Ugal and Undyauneye (2003) who pointed out in their study on child labour in Nigeria, that at the individual level, child labour impairs the physical and mental development of children. This situation brings about an increment in the number of lay about, mentally demented, and stunted persons in society.

Finally, an analysis on the negative effects of work on the respondents also reveal that the same proportion of respondents (males 3.5% and females 3.5%) have experienced lowered moral standards from participating in labourious activities, whereas, "Others" comprising of 2.0% males and 1.0% females have experienced other negative effects such as emotional and psychological challenges from participating in economic activities. Exposing children into activities that reduces instead of improve their moral is not only detrimental to the child's well-being, but also to the society at large. For instance, Emerson *et al* (2003) is of the opinion that in child labour system, the children reach mental and emotional maturity at a very early age. This is highly dangerous as such children start displaying pseudo adult behaviour such as smoking and displays of aggression. Children who are already entrenched into a particular behaviour at a young age will not easily stop that behaviour in adulthood. If the behaviour is detrimental to the child's health, like use of dangerous drugs e.g. smoking of marijuana, the children are destined to

becoming sickly and destitute; hence useless in their economic life to the society during the adulthood.

It is therefore worth to emphasise that an economy driven by a majority of child labourers shoots itself in the foot because it denies itself a continuum of supply of human capital necessary to drive its development (Emerson *et al* 2003).

CHAPTER SIX:

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Summary of Findings

Child labour is inevitable in Anambra state as in other states of the Federation. The result of the study shows that the prevalence is slightly higher among males children than their female counterparts.

Based on the state of origin of the respondents, the highest percentages of the children are indigenes of Anambra state, followed by those from Ebonyi state with, Enugu state, Imo state and Delta state indigenes in that order. The study also reveals that majority of the children who participate in paid jobs also attend school (working and schooling). In addition, more than half of the respondents who combine work with school are in public schools, followed by those who attend private schools and lastly those in missionary schools. On the working hours, majority of the entire respondents have specific working hours at which they are expected to start or close from work daily. Out of the entire respondents who have specific working hours, majority starts work as early as 6:00am and 7:00am, while majority close from work between 5:30pm and 7:30pm.

From the study, it was found that more than half of the children eat only twice in day and a very little percentage eatmore than three times in a day. An analysis of the respondent's parent's socio-economic backgrounds shows that majority of the children's parentsare still alive and most of them are married compared to those that are unmarried.The dominant educational attainment of most respondent's parents is secondary education and the least attainment is university degree and above and the dominant occupation engaged in by most parents is business activities and the least type of occupation engaged in by parents is civil service jobs.

From the regression analysis, the result shows that child's Sex, father's education level, mother's education level and father's occupationall have significant effects on the number of

hours respondents spend at work. Whereas, age of child and mother's level of education both shows no significant relationship, but a negative relationship with the number of hours a child will spend at work, signifying that any decrease in the child's age and mother's level of education will mean a decrease in the number of hours spent at work by the child labourers. On the contrary, child labourer's present class and type of work engaged in shows no significant relationship with the number of hours spent by child labourers at work, but with positive coefficients.

Gender analysis according to sectors of economy where respondents work, shows that males outnumbered their female counterparts among those that work in both service and sales sectors respectively. The proportion of both male and female respondents among those in agricultural sectors. Conversely, females outnumbered the males among those working in industrial sector.

Comparatively, age-to-type of work analysis shows that child labourer participation is higher in older age groups of 11-17 years in all the specific sectors of work, than there are in younger age groups of 4 – 10 years. Chi square analysis on age-to-type of work of respondents shows that there is a significant relationship between child's age and the type of work engaged in at 0.05 significant levels. Analysis on the consequences of child labour participation by sex and academic performance reveals that more males than females have experienced grade repetition in school due to their participation in paid jobs, on those who have experienced lowered class performances males accounted for the highest percentage than the females. Also, more males than females have also experienced increased lateness to school and males outnumbered the females among those that have experienced reduced school attendance due to participation in paid jobs.

Child labour participation is bias against primary school children, than against secondary school children as well as bias against the older childrenthan the younger ones. Also from a comparative analysis on age and level of education reveals that majority of children who are of secondary school (12-17 years) age are still in primary school. On the sex analysis on the proportion of school drop outs as at time of the study, it reveals that more females than males have dropped out from school, also more femalesthan males have never being to school before. In all, it is clear that child labour participation have contributed more to the compromising of female education opportunities than their male counterparts.

The analysis on the type of health challenges faced from engaging in paid jobs by gender reveals that more males than females have experienced various form of health challenges such as cough/cold/fever, body pain, skin infection, cut/injuries and eye/ear problems due to their involvement in paid jobs. Conversely, more females than males have experienced dangers that range from armed robbery attacks, automobile accident, attempted kidnapping, rapes/sexual molestation/assaults and physical assault from participating in child labour activities.

The result on the analysis of the consequences of respondent's participation in labourious activities on social and mental well-beings by gender shows that more males with have been exposed to drug abuse, sexual escapade, stealing than the females. In all, only small percentage of male and female respondents have never participated in any form of social vices in the study area. The result of the emotional consequences of child labour participation reveals that most of the working children in the study area are exposed to all manners of emotional stress that ranges from stigmatisation from press and public, low self-esteem, personality disorder and alienation from friends/family/relations which constitutes.

The highest earned monthly income by most respondents is between ₦2100-₦2500 with the least earned income being < ₦1000. In all, about half of the entire respondents do not have idea whether their needs for working has been met owing to their monthly income, whereas, as little as 1.0% sees their needs for working as very satisfactorily met.

The analysis of the condition of employment and schooling status reveals that majority of child labourers combine work with school. Also, majority of respondents who combine school with work, are employed on temporal basis, while majority of those who work on permanent basis do not attend school. Moreso, there is higher percentages of children who work on contract basis, who do not attend school compared with those that attend school and work on contract basis.

On the working days and working hours, dominant working days of respondents is 6 days in a week, followed by those that work every day of the week and the least working days for child labourers is once a week. Whereas, the dominant number of hours spent at work by most respondents based on the stated working days is >7 hours daily and the least working hours from all the categories of working days is < 2 hours daily. This is certainly a reason to believe that the educational performance of these children is impaired – if they are in school at all, more especially going by Fallon and Zafiris (1998) report which consider 20 hours of work per week as the critical threshold beyond which the education of the child starts being significantly affected.

The living arrangement and age at first start of work analysis shows that irrespective of living arrangement of respondents, age at first start of work is mainly from the age below 10 years, compared to any other age groups. Whereas, the least age at first start of work for money from all categories of living arrangements is 4 years. Higher percentage of femalerespondents

who combines work with schooling have witnessed lower school attendance than their male counterparts. Also more male than female working children have witnessed negatively related health challenges from participating in paid jobs.

In a nut shell, poverty, low socio-economic status of child labourer's parents as well as large household size and other social evils are the underlying factors responsible for the existence of child labour in the study area. Therefore, to reduce or completely put an end to this precarious act of child labour which poses great danger to not only the child labourer's health, but also to the next generation of parents and leaders in the state, its causes must be addressed first by not only the government, but also by all stakeholders from within and outside the state.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

From all that has been said and done based on the findings made in the study, it is clear that child labour practices have adverse consequences on the physical, social, educational and psychological welfare of the child, which constitute strong reasons for the bid to eradicate it. However, no effort should be spared to be taken to begin, sustain and accelerate the process of eradicating this act that does not only threaten the future parents, but also the future economy and leaders.

6.2.1 Policy proposals through Legislation

- It is well known that legislation alone cannot solve the problem of child labour as shown by the experience of other countries. Nevertheless, legislative action is important and should undergird all other strategies designed to eradicate child labour. Nigeria hassigned and ratified international conventions, which target the elimination of child labour. These conventions include United Nations Convention on the Right of the Child (UNCRC),

International Labour Organisation (ILO) Conventions138 and 182. These conventions need to be indigenised in national laws. This will help to safeguard the right/safety of the working child.

- A minimum age restrictions for children working in for instance in back-breaking jobs and in place where sharp objects such as welding works and chemicals such as plantation/mechanised farming are used should be set by authorities and compliance ensued. This will help to take care of early age at first work by the children, which help to minimise the impact of work on not only the child health, but also minimise the impacts on the child's education, emotional as well as other developmental aspects of the child.
- To reduce the risks of dangers from work on the working child, labour laws that is in conformity with international standards and harmonize child labour legislation and policies should be enacted and implemented by all employers in and around the state as this will help to ensure that working environment at the place of work is safe and conducive.
- Enact law that will totally prohibit work of children in all sectors of activity and in all types of enterprise or employment especially in those economic activities such as hawking on highways/traffic which endangersthe child's life. This also helps to regulate the number of children who endanger their lives by selling on the highways that are in most instances prone to accidents of various sorts.
- Legal agreement should be reached between the child's parents and child's employers especially before employing the female children who are particularly vulnerable to various forms of exploitation and abuse. This lone action will help to check the number

of children especially the females who are raped or sexually molested almost in daily basis within and outside the state sometimes by their employers.

- The police force and other law enforcement agencies should be empowered to arrest and prosecute both the child's parents/guardians and employers of the children labourers who are found working under unacceptable or unhealthy environment.

6.2.2 Policy proposal through Poverty alleviation

There have been efforts in the past especially from the governments and even till date in establishing poverty alleviation schemes and facilities providing employment, credit, food, housing, education, sanitation, water and health services on a priority grounds to the poor. The impacts of those programmes on families of working children have not been very effective. This may likely be due to wrong methods of selecting the beneficiaries. However, there is need for a correct identification of needy families, which tend to involve their children in work more, so that they could constitute the majority of beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programmes.

- Parents should be encouraged to withdraw their children from carrying out those activities that are detrimental to their health and educational attainment. This will be achieved through the implement social service scheme for the unemployed and support parents for loss of income once the child is withdrawn from work.

6.2.3 Policy proposal through Education

Historically, compulsory education has proved to be an effective instrument for eradication of child labour. Universal Basic Education (UBE) Programme, which has been launched in Nigeria, needs to be vigorously implemented and enforced with provision of free and compulsory educationcovering primary and junior secondary education. This will help to make

formal education attractive rather than burdensome as well as minimise the number of school drop outs in the state.

- Curriculum planners should enrich school curricula in such a way that it will be relevant to the need of both the child and the family by doing so, parents will see the need to send their children to school rather than work.
- Government and none-governmental organisations, private individuals should provide scholarship for gifted working children, which will serve as an incentive to reduce the rate of drop out.
- Provide adequate learning facilities such as classrooms, furniture and well-equipped laboratories both by government and none-governmental organisations, wealthy indigenous individual members of the state in order to enhance conducive learning atmosphere especially in the rural areas.
- Child parent's education can be enhanced through the introduction of adult learning education centres, this will help to equip the parents with the knowledge on the dangers of child labour as well as increase their opportunity of getting gainfully employed.
- Since the second major of child's parent's occupation is farming, incentives should be given to those parents so as to increase food production for the sustenance of their households and the subsequent stimulation of local market economy through the sale of their farm products in the market.

6.3 Practical actions

- Promote awareness in the community with regards to the right of child, especially the right to basic education and protection from economic exploitation.

- Include traditional leaders and religious organizations in raising of awareness on the dangers and negative effects of child labour.
- Identify all stakeholders on child labour and define the different strategies necessary for creating awareness within each group.
- Develop programmes that will monitor specific health problems of working children.
- Encourage and support the replacement of child workers by unemployed adults, preferably from the same extended family where possible. This will go a long way to reduce adult unemployment which is high all over the country.
- Support the non-governmental sector in its effort to supplement and stimulate government action against child labour.
- Form grassroots organisations which will involve in activities that will curtail and eliminate child labour, as well as establish units that will coordinate and promote networking among organizations
- Efforts should also be made to re-unite street children with their families.
- Monitor and discourage children in industrial labour and domestic services.
- Sponsor radio and television campaign to attack the root causes of child labour.
- Support and encourage the media professionals who may contribute to social mobilization by providing information of the highest quality, reliability and ethical standard covering all aspects of child labour. This will help the parents to make better choice in choosing between allowing their child to either work or go to school.

6.4 Suggestion for Further Research

- There is need for further research on the demographic and socio-economic consequences of child labour. Such studies may be comparative studies on the demographic and socio-

economic characteristics of child labour in Lagos, Kaduna and Enugu states and the implications for national economy.

- More research is necessary to fully understand the dynamics and consequences of child labour on both the child and the entire country.

6.5 CONCLUSION

Obviously, parents need to know that child labour may in a short run benefit the families by assisting them in meeting some of their need, but on the long run, its effect is dreaded. This is because in most cases the child labourers completely miss out or under-accumulate the basic human capital (education) necessary to enhance their future productivity and earning capacity due to low school attendance and poor health status resulting from their participation in various economic activities. It is imperative that both government and non-governmental organisations be set up to critically assess, design and monitor programmes that will help to empower parents financially in order to make informed choice of sending their children to school rather than to work. Since majority of child labourers were from polygamous family, government should help enact a law that discourages large family practices and ensure a strict adherence by all to curtail the large family sizes which will go a long way to reduce the financial pressure often times mounted on parents which force them to send their children out to work so as to augment their family income.

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APPENDICES

DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY

AHMADU BELLO UNIVERSITY, ZARIA.

Dear Respondent,

I am a student of the above department undertaking a study. This questionnaire is designed to collect information on the Demographic, socio-economic consequences of child labour in Anambra State, Nigeria and you are one of the carefully selected respondents. The exercise is purely an academic work and all information will be treated as confidential.

Thank you for your assistance.

Please provide information or tick in the appropriate boxes to the following questions.

SECTION A: Child's Bio-Data.

1. Sex: (a) Male [ ] (b) Female [ ]
2. Age: (a) 0-4 [ ] (b) 5-10 [ ] (c) 11-17 [ ]
3. Child's parent family structure (a) Nuclear [ ] (b) Extended [ ]
4. Child's type of household (a) Monogamy [ ] (b) Polygamy [ ]
5. Size of the household (a) 0-4 [ ] (b) 5-9 [ ] (c) 10 + [ ]
6. Child's state of origin

(a) Anambra state [ ] (b) Imo state [ ]
(c) Delta state [ ] (d) Enugu state [ ]
(e) Others specify……..

SECTION B: Parent's Socio-Economic Characteristic.

7. Are your both parents alive?

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

8. If both are alive are they married?

(a) Married [ ] (b) Divorced [ ]
(c) Separated [ ] (d) Never Married [ ]

9. Father's educational level

a. Primary [ ] b. Secondary [ ]
c. OND/NCE [ ] d. University degree or above [ ]
e. Others (specify) ……

10. Mother's educational level

a. Primary [ ] b. Secondary [ ]
d. OND/NCE [ ] d. University degree or above [ ]
f. Others (specify) ……

11. Father's occupation

a. Civil servant [ ] b. Business [ ]
c. Farmer [ ] d. Others (specify) …….
12. Mother's occupation
a. Civil servant [ ] b. Business
b. Farmer [ ] d. Others (specify) ……

SECTION C: Child's Education Background.

13. Are you currently attending any school? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
14. If yes, what type of school?
a. Missionary school [ ] b. Government Primary school [ ]
c. Private primary school [ ] d. Government Secondary School [ ]
e. Private secondary school [ ] f. Others (specify)……..
15. What is your present class?
(a) Between primary 1-3 [ ] (b). Between primary 3-6 [ ]
(c) Between JSS 1-3 [ ] (d). Between SS 1-3 [ ]
16. If working and schooling, how has that affected your education achievement?
(a) Reduced my school attendance [ ] (b) Grade repetitions [ ]
(c) Lowered my class performances [ ] (d) Increased lateness to school [ ]
(e) Others specify ……..
17. If not currently attending any school, have you ever attended any school?
a.. Yes [ ] b. [ ]
18. If yes, why did you stop attending school?
(a) No parents or guardian [ ] (b) parents very poor [ ]
(c) Very dull and cannot be in school [ ] (d) Presence of disability [ ]
(e) Others (specify)……
18. If you have never been to school, why not?
(a) School is too expensive [ ] (b) School is too far from house [ ]
(a) Lack of admission [ ] (d) Sent to work [ ]
(e) Parent not interested in school [ ] (f) Others specify [ ]
19. If you have never been to school, would you want to go to school?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
20. Do you think education is important?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

SECTION D: Child's Working Conditions.

21. State the type of work you are engaged in
(a) Service sector work [ ] (b) Sales sector work
(c) Agricultural sector work [ ] (d) Industrial sector work
(e) Others specify ……..
22. Why do you work?
(a) To compliment family income [ ] (b) To earn a wage [ ]

(c) To get money for my school fees [ ] (d) Due to poverty [ ]
(e) Peer group pressure [ ] (f) Others (specify)……
23. How often do you engage yourself in the work?
(a). Every day [ ] (b) Once a week [ ]
(c) Once a month [ ] (d) Others (specify)……
24. Do you have specific working hours?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
25. If yes, what time do you start your work?
(a) 5:00am [ ] (b) 5:30am [ ]
(c) 6:00am [ ] (d) 6:30am [ ]
(e) 7:00am [ ] (f) Others specify ……..
26. What time do you close from work?
(a) 5.30-6.30pm [ ] (b) 6.31-7.30pm [ ] (c) 7.31-8.30pm [ ]
(d) 8.31-9.30pm [ ] (e) 9.31-10.30 [ ] (f) No fixed time [ ]
27. Do you have any day off?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
28. Do you have any time to play?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
29. What is the condition of your work?
(a) Temporal [ ] (b) Permanent [ ]
(c) Debt bond [ ] (d) Contract [ ]
(e) Others (specify)……
30. At what age did you start the work? (state age as a last birthday)
(a) . 1-4years [ ] (b) 6-10 years
(c) 11-15 years [ ] (d) 16 years and above
31. How many hours do you work on the average in a day?
(a) < 2 hours [ ] (b) 3 – 4 hours [ ]
(c) 5 – 6 hours [ ] (d) 7 hours and above [ ]
32. How far do you travel to your place of work in kilometers?
(a) . Less than 1km [ ] (b) between 1-2km [ ]
(c) between 3-4km [ ] (d) 5km above
33. Who sends you out to work?
(a) Parents [ ] (b) Guardian [ ]
(c) Friends [ ] (d) Others, (specify) ……
34. How much do you make on the average in a month?
(a) . Less than ₦1000 [ ] (b) between ₦1001 –₦1500 [ ]
(c) Between ₦1501-₦2000 [ ] (d) Between ₦2001 ₦2500 [ ]
(d) Others specify……
35. Do you go to work from home?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

36. If no, how often do you visit home?
(a) Once a week [ ] (b) Once a month [ ] (c) Once a year [ ]
(d) Anytime [ ] (e) Never [ ]
37. How many times do you eat per day?
(a) Once [ ] (b) twice [ ]
(c) Three times [ ] (d) more than three times [ ]
37. Who do you presently stay with?
(a) Parents [ ] (b) guardian [ ]
(c) Friends [ ] (d) Stay alone (e) Others (specify)……..…

SECTION E: Socio-Economic Consequences of Child Labour.

38. Have you ever experienced any danger in your work?
(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
39. If yes in the above what kind of danger was it? (a) armed robbery [ ]
(b) Automobile accident [ ] (c) Attempted kidnapping [ ]
(d) Rapes/sexual molestation/assault [ ] (e) Others (specify)……
40. In which of the following ways does this work affect you negatively?
(a) Prevents me from going to school [ ] (b) Lowers my health [ ]
(c) Lowers moral standard [ ] (d) others (specify)……
41. Which of these social vices have you ever been influenced to participate in as a result of your working expossure?
(a) Stealing [ ] (b) Sexual escapades [ ]
(c) Drug abuse [ ] (d) Drinking alcohol [ ]
(e) Others specify……..
42. In what ways have your work affected your mental well-being?
(a) Stigmatization from press and public [ ] (b) Low self-esteem [ ]
(c) Personality disorder [ ] (d) Alienation from friends/family/relations [ ]
(e) Others specify……
43. Have your ever been sick as a result of your work? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]
44. If yes, what was the nature of the sickness …….
(a) Cough/Cold/Fever [ ] (b) Body pain [ ]
(c) Skin infection [ ] (d) Cuts/Injuries [ ]
(e) Eye/Ear Problems [ ] (f) Others specify …….
45. Who sends you out to work?
(a) Parents [ ] (b) Guardian [ ]
(c) Friends [ ] (d) Others (specify) ……
46. What is your reason for participating in laborious activities? (Multiple answered are possible)
(a) To help families in the household activity [ ] (b) I cannot cover my school expense [ ]
(c) Due to health problem [ ] (d) Education does not help me to job [ ]
(e) Other specify ……..
47. To what extent has the need(s) been met?
(a) Poorly [ ] (b) Fairly [ ]

(c) Very well [ ] (d) No idea [ ]

48. Do you enjoy the work you are doing? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

49. Do you wish that child labour be stopped? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR CHILD LABOURER'S EMPLOYERS

Have you heard about child labour before?	Yes/No
What do you understand child labour to mean?	Probe for; knowledge child labour
How many children do you have working for you?	Seek to know the total number that have worked before or still working at the moment
Do you have any special reason why you prefer to employ child instead of adults	Seek for the reason for the answer.
Do you have any age/sex specific preferences of children for employment?	Seek for the reason for the answer
What is the condition of employment of the working children?	Probe for: Contract, Temporal, Permanent and or debt bonds
What tasks do child worker undertake in your company	Probe for: sales, production, packaging etc.
What are the positive/negative things about hiring children to work for you?	Probe for: they are easy to manage, cheap to pay, can do more work in less time etc.
Has there been any case of children being sick while working at your company?	Yes/No
What type of sickness and how many cases?	Seek for the type of sickness and how frequent
Has there been any case of the children getting injured while working at your company and what type of injury(ies) was it?	Seek for the type and how frequently it occurs
Who foots the bill for the treatment of any sick or injured child labourer?	Probe for: the company, the child, the child's parents etc.
Are there certain agreements that must be reached either between the child and the company and or with the child's parents before hiring a child?	Seek for yes/no and the type if any exists. For example, Verbal, Legal/written agreement etc.
Do you have accommodation for the children?	Yes/No
Who feeds the working children?	seek to know who
Do the children have any day off in a week or they work every day?	Seek for yes/no and the particular day it is within the week
Are you aware of the existence of child labour in Anambra state?	Yes/No
What do you think is the socio-economic consequences of child labour in the state?	Probe for their views
What recommendations do you have for improving the living and working conditions for working children?	Probe for: • Regular inspections to ensure child worker safety • Make provisions for child labourer to attend school • Develop good legal backing to ensure child's worker working guarantee.