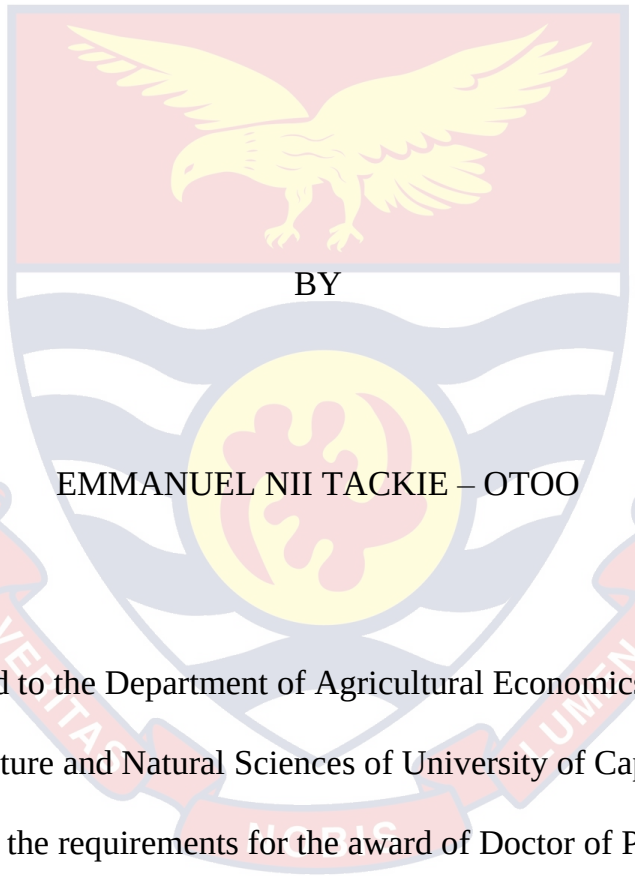
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COCOA FARMERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH CHILD LABOUR USE IN COCOA PRODUCTION IN THE SEFWI AREA OF THE WESTERN REGION OF GHANA



BY

EMMANUEL NII TACKIE – OTOO

Thesis submitted to the Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension, College of Agriculture and Natural Sciences of University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Agricultural Extension

JUNE 2016

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DECLARATION

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

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

Candidate's Signature …… Date……

Name: Emmanuel Nii Tackie-Otoo

SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION

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

Principal supervisor's Signature…… Date……

Prof. Joseph Adjei Kwarteng

Co-supervisor's Signature……Date……

Prof. Festus Annor-Frempong

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ABSTRACT

There has been concerns raised recently by some individuals and groups following negative media reports about the possible use of child labour in cocoa production, particularly reports of forced child labour on cocoa farms of Cote d'Ivoire which surfaced in the year 2000. The study was conducted between November, 2011 and May, 2012 to identify the factors associated with child labour use in cocoa production in the Sefwi area of the Western Region of Ghana. A descriptive correlational research design was used for the study, which was carried out in the five districts, namely Bia, Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai, Sefwi Wiawso, Akontombra and Juaboso districts. The population for the study was cocoa farmers in the selected districts. An interview schedule was developed and used to collect data from the respondents. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS Version 16) software was used to analyse the data collected from the respondents. The analysis included; descriptive statistics, ANOVA, t-test, correlations and Stepwise Multiple regression. All the coefficients of significance in the study were tested at 0.05 alpha level. The results of the best predictors of the factors associated with child labour use were that: (1) It is cheaper to use children in cocoa production (2) Expansion of educational opportunities for children, (3) Law enforcement to prevent child labour use, (4) Ownership of land, (5) Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have their parents migrated to the cities, (6) Gender (female), (7) Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school, (8) Educational background and (9) Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future. The study recommended that cocoa farmers with low educational levels should be educated about the negative effects of child labour use in cocoa production. Since cost was found to be the best predictor of child labour use in cocoa production, the study recommends that technologies that reduces the requirements for much labour be made available and affordable to farmers. Additionally, more and flexible educational units should be made accessible in cocoa producing areas for more children to be enrolled in. Campaigns against child labour use n cocoa production and farming in general should be intensified by key stakeholders such as Government, Ghana Cocoa Board, Law Enforcement Agencies and foreign partners.

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DEDICATION

To my wife, Mrs. Joana Fofo Tackie-Otoo

and my children, Julian, Nathaniel, Philipa and George

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACRC	African Charter on the Right of the Child
AGOA	African Growth and Opportunity Act
CAP	Community Action Plan
CEDC	Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CLMS	Child Labour Monitoring Systems
CMA	Chocolate Manufacturers Association
CNSP	Children in Need of Special Protection
COCOBOD	Ghana Cocoa Board
CODESULT	Community Development Consult
CRC	Convention on the Rights of Children
CRIG	Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana
CRS	Congressional Research Service
CHED	Cocoa Health and Extension Division
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DOVVSU	Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit
EFA	Education for All
FAL	Forced Adult Labour
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
FLO	Fair Trade Label Organization International
GATT	General Agreement of Trade and Tariffs
GCLS	Ghana Child Labour Survey
GE	Global Exchange

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GLSS	Ghana Living Standard Survey
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPRS	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GSP	Generalized System of Preferences
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HIPC	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
ICI	International Cocoa Initiative
ICLP	International Child Labour Programme
ICFTU	International Confederation of Trade Unions
IITA	International Institute of Tropical Agricultural
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILRF	International Labour Rights Fund
IMF	International Monetary Funds
IPEC	International Programme to Eliminate Child Labour
ISSER	Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research
KPCS	Kimberley Process Certification Scheme
LBCs	Licensed Buying Companies
LCA	Local Coordinating Agency
LFP	Labour Force Participation
MMYE	Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment
MOFA	Ministry of Food and Agriculture
MTSP	Medium-Term Strategic Plan
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme

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NPECLC	National Programme for the Elimination of Worst Forms of Child Labour
NYEP	National Youth Employment Programme
OAU	Organization of African Unity
PDA	Participatory Development Associates
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
REI	Restricted Entry Intervals
RF	Rescue Foundation
SCMPP	Support for Community Mobilization Project/Programme
SEE	Standard Error of Estimates
SNA	System of National Accounts
STCP	Sustainable Tree Crops Programme
TAs	Technical Assistants
TBP	Time-Bound Programme
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
UNCRC	United Nations Convention of the Right of the Child
UNICEF	United Nations International Children and Emergency Fund
USCS	United States Customs Service
USD	United States Dollar
USDOL	United States Department of Labour
USDOS	United States Department of State
USTR	United States Trade Relations
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

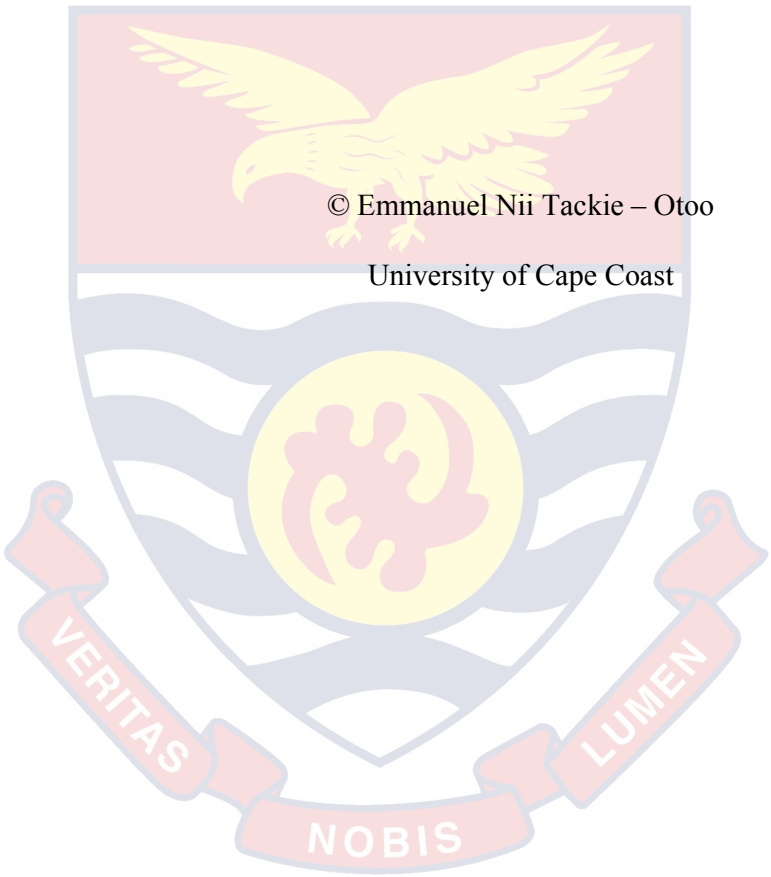
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WACAP	West Africa Cocoa and Commercial Agricultural Programme
WCF	World Cocoa Foundation
WEC	World Education Conference
WFCL	Worst Forms of Child Labour

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EMMANUEL NII TACKIE – OTOO

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Child labour has become an increasingly important topic in international policy-making and had been thoroughly discussed at multilateral fora such as the International Labour Organization (ILO), the World Bank, International Confederation of Trade Unions (ICFTU), Non-National Employers Association and in the global community of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs). According to Bjerkan and Gironde (2004), the voices of the debate on child labour are many.

The two schools of thought are those supportive of a 'gradualist, step-by-step approach to regulation and putting the most intolerable forms of child labour on the political agenda'. The other school argues that, focusing on the worst forms of child labour would require further explanation on child labour norms. It further argues that many forms of child labour would be neglected if the worst forms are defined too narrowly (Bjerkan and Gironde, 2004). Child labour is undoubtedly an important issue but very controversial, under-researched and under-theorized. Most African scholars often neglect the issue and its significance for economic, social and political relations (Grier, 2004).

According to Grier (2004), the current ILO reports attempt to contribute to addressing this neglect by focusing on the vulnerabilities of children involved in child labour, and the historical and socio-economic context in which the phenomenon of child labour is embedded.

The cocoa industry has profited from the utilization of child labour in West Africa since the late 1800s (Bales, 2004). Despite the Portuguese decree

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in 1876 abolishing slavery, and the release of cocoa plantations, slave labour was quickly re-employed, aided by the exploitation of legal loopholes and government officials willing to turn a blind eye. In 1905, after hearing reports of unfavourable labour conditions, William Cadbury dispatched a member of the Anti-Slavery Society to investigate the cocoa plantations. Upon receiving confirmation of human rights violations, Cadbury boycotted Portuguese cocoa and persuaded two other chocolate firms to do the same. Cadbury's actions affected not only the British chocolate markets, but also American ones, which eventually stopped using slave-produced cocoa (Bales, 2004).

Bales (2004) continued that the cocoa sector has since grown into a multi-billion dollar industry, yet it cannot shake its unsavory labour issues. Present day cocoa farms "employ" hundreds of thousands of West African children. While not as clear cut as the slave/slave-owner relationship of previous centuries, contemporary slavery is characterized as the control of a person for economic exploitation by violence (or the threat of violence) or coercion (loss of choice and freedom). In poverty-stricken developing countries, it is seldom a child's choice to work, but rather a decision borne out of economic necessity.

In the year 2000, the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that 211 million children between the ages of 5 and 14 years were economically active worldwide. Since the adoption in 1999 of ILO Convention 182 on the worst forms of child labour and the adoption in 2001 of ILO Convention 184 on safety and health in agriculture, there has been a growing awareness of the need to research the extent and nature of children's agricultural work to determine the types of activities that place children at risk.

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With the vast majority (70%) of the world's working children in agriculture (ILO, 2002), these two international standards provide important guidance for addressing the needs of children engaged in hazardous work in this sector.

A joint study in 2002 by the ILO and the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) found that an estimated 284,000 children on cocoa farms were involved in hazardous work, unprotected or have been trafficked mostly from Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Cameroon and Nigeria (IITA, 2002). It is important to indicate that a study by Ghana Statistical Service in 2003 did not provide any estimates for the number of children in the cocoa sub-sector as well as those who can be classified as child labourers (GSS, 2003). However, the only concluded that an estimated 1.1 million children are engaged in agriculture, forestry and fishing. Among the children engaged in agriculture are those 57% involved in cocoa production (Byrness, 1978).

It is believed that understanding the needs of children can facilitate a more nuanced debate about children involved in child labour, about different production systems and the various policy responses possible for the improvement of the living conditions of working children in the short term and the eradication of child labour in the long term (Grier, 2004). Working to survive has been a necessity for human beings throughout history, and all around the world. In traditional agrarian societies, everybody in the community had to share in the task according to ability and capacity. Children and adolescents do engage in light work as a means of socialization and learning the basic knowledge and skills for a productive adulthood. The poorer the family, the more important the contribution children and adolescents make to the well-being and survival of the family. This is attributable to majority of

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the poor in the world for whom resources are seldom enough to cover basic needs. It has been agreed globally that it is not all work that is harmful to children (MMYE, 2007).

At the early age, many children help around the home in the form of running errands or assisting their parents in the household chores, family farms or businesses. With increasing strength, ability and maturity, they get more involved in undertaking task taking light jobs or learning valuable traditional trades of their respective families. In this way, children acquire the skills and attitudes they need as future workers and useful members of the community (Amoo, 2007).

The Ghana Statistical Service's survey conducted in 2003 revealed that the issue of child labour is a major concern of the Government of Ghana as it is to many other countries in the world (GSS, 2003). The problem has long been recognized and the Government of Ghana has enacted laws to prohibit child labour and to develop programmes to meet the urgent needs of children in the country. The usual censuses and surveys in the country provide very limited information on the issue of working children because they were not designed with the specific objective of assessing the nature and extent of child labour (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003). The Ghana Statistical Service indicated further in the 2003 survey that Ghana, like any other society, has a set of cherished cultural values and norms, which are passed on from one generation to another through socialization (GSS, 2003). These cultural practices have been associated with some beliefs and practices, which ensure that individuals with varying dispositions can live together in peace. Institutions like the family, marriage and kinship have well been established

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and maintained over the years to ensure that society perpetuate itself through birth and socialization (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003).

Another survey conducted by the Ghana Statistical Service in 2007 also revealed that children in the traditional society learn by helping their parents and their communities to perform certain social and economic activities. The nature and magnitude of roles performed by children in Ghana differ, because there is cultural diversity in terms of language, religion, ethnicity, and technology, moral and aesthetic values. In spite of this cultural diversity, one common strand is that a child is initiated into a form of occupation and self-recognized role-plays in order to become a responsible adult who can be relied upon to perpetuate the culture of the people (Ghana Statistical Service, 2007). According to Amoo (2007), there is a thin line between social orientation and child labour which may be difficult to decipher by the communities. In most societies, the integration of children's social and working life may be so gradual that it is not possible to separate the phrases. Others demarcate childhood from adulthood either by fulfillment of certain social rites and obligation, or by age.

International instruments and conventions generally use age to define a child. They accord the rights and protection of a child for those under 18 years. These principles are enshrined in the United Nations Convention of the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (1989), which states that 'children everywhere have the right to survival and opportunity, to protection from abuse and exploitation and say in the decisions that affects them'. This convention is legally binding and its fundamental principles are non-negotiable (ILO, 2002).

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Statement of the Problem

There have been concerns raised recently by stakeholders following negative media reports about the possible use of child labour in cocoa production, particularly reports of forced child labour on cocoa farms of Cote d'Ivoire which surfaced in the year 2000 and quickly became an important business issue for a number of prominent companies (ILO, 2004). Media coverage and the threat of regulatory action mobilized the international cocoa industry to collaborate with other stakeholders to help resolve the issue of child labour from cocoa production areas in Ghana (Schrage & Ewing, 2004). The international cocoa industry has acknowledged the seriousness of child labour in the global cocoa supply chain, and has made several public commitments to address it.

Senator Tom Harkin and Representative Elliot Engel of the United States Legislature were among those who raised these concerns, and further threatened to bring up legislation for the boycott of cocoa from countries found to be indulging in Worst Forms of Child Labour (WFCL) and Forced Adult Labour (FAL) (Bjerkan & Gironde, 2004). These concerns prompted a series of discussions between representatives of the cocoa industry and a number of trade union, consumer and non-governmental organizations on the incidence and nature of WFCL and FAL, culminating in the elaboration of a strategy to deal with the problem. This strategy was codified in the "Harkin-Engel Protocol", an agreement to eliminate the worst forms of child labour (ILO, 1999) from the cocoa and chocolate sector, and was signed by representatives of the major stakeholders in September 2001 (Bjerkan & Gironde, 2004).

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The initial refusal to acknowledge serious labour problems of the cocoa industry provided a number of lessons for executives, advocates and policy makers seeking to promote labour standards. Industry participants sought the participation of multiple stakeholders, defined standards by making reference to international law and sought reliable information from the field. This case also demonstrates that pressure on consumer brands, strategic government intervention and geographic concentration facilitates collaborative action (Schrage & Ewing, 2004).

The resurgence of international attention on child labour in the cocoa industry in West Africa has resulted in the adoption of international conventions and treaties to protect children from all forms of abuse and exploitation. Key among these is the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the African Charter on the Rights of the Child (ACRC), ILO Convention No. 138 on Minimum Age for Employment and ILO Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour (Schrage & Ewing, 2004).

According to the MMYE (2008), the extent of the child labour issue can be linked up with the type of economic system prevailing in a particular country. The phenomenon is prominent in developing countries where over 60 percent of the people are in the informal economy, characterized by issues like small family businesses, capital scarcity, subsistence farming, and primitive technology which result in low levels of productivity and low income. These limit the ability to save and thus create a vicious cycle of poverty. This kind of economic system is closely tied-up with the cultural heritage of the people, making it different from the standards which emerge among developed countries in Europe and North America.

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The Ghana Statistical Service estimated in 2007 that about 1.3 million children between the ages of 5-17 years are in child labour in Ghana (GSS, 2008). Of the 240,000 children who are engaged in hazardous child labour practices, the study indicated that 80 % are in rural areas and engaged mainly in activities in the agricultural sector (Ghana Statistical Service, 2007). The use of children in cocoa production has resulted in children dropping out of school in spite of the introduction of social intervention programmes such as the capitation grant and school feeding programme by Ghana Government to ensure that every child of school going age go to school. Hitherto, the major reason put forward by parents and guardians for their children not attending school was affordability, prior to the government's implementation of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education, (FCUBE) which has made education more accessible to poor households (Ghana Statistical Service, 2007).

In spite of the good policies of the government of Ghana towards education such as the capitation grant and the school feeding programme coupled with the numerous laws that has been enacted to prohibit people from using child labour, there is public perception that child labour seems to abound in the Sefwi area of the Western Region. The question to be answered were:

(1) Do farmers (parents) use child labour in cocoa production?

(2) What type of farmers use child labour in cocoa production?

(3) Are farmers aware of the strategies to deal with the use of child labour in cocoa production?

(4) What factors contribute to child labour?

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General Objective

The main objective of the study was to examine cocoa farmers' perceptions of factors associated with child labour use in cocoa production in the Sefwi area of the Western Region of Ghana.

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to:

i. determine the influence of demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers on the extent of child labour use.

ii. examine the perception of farmers on the extent of child labour use in cocoa production.

iii. compare the levels of child labour use in cocoa production in the five districts of Sefwi area.

iv. identify farmers' level of awareness, knowledge and strategies to address child labour.

v. Assess factors that determine the use of child labour in cocoa production.

Hypothesis

The following hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level:

$H_{0:}$ There is no significant relationship between the sex of farmers and levels of child labour use.

$H_{1:}$ There is significant relationship between the sex of farmers and levels of child labour use.

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H_0: There is no relationship between the location (district) and levels of child labour use in the Sefwi area of Ghana.

H_1: There is relationship between the location (district) and levels of child labour use in the Sefwi area of Ghana.

H_0: There is no relationship between the levels of child labour use and the factors that contribute to child labour use in cocoa production.

H_1: There is relationship between the levels of child labour use and the factors that contribute to child labour use in cocoa production.

Significance of the Study

There has been an increased pressure on cocoa producing countries from international media, consumer groups and the general public to stop the use of children's time and energy in cocoa sector, particularly in activities that may be injurious to their health, education and wholesome development. According to Ghana Statistical Service's survey conducted in the year 2008 on child labour (GSS, 2008), the emerging trend in the cocoa industry in Ghana is that farmers' use child labour in cocoa production. This issue has reached a more serious dimension after threats of boycotting Ghana's cocoa on the international market.

According to Amoo (2007), child labour as defined constitutes work that is mentally, physically, socially or morally, dangerous and harmful to children. Work that interferes with educational development depriving children the opportunity to attend school, obliging them to leave school permanently, requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long hours of hard work. In determining what constitute child labour in Ghana, using the Children's Act, children under 13 years who work,

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children of all ages who work at night (8:00 pm – 6:00 am) and children who are engaged in economic activities which affects child's school attendance, health and moral development should be considered.

The study results would create awareness amongst farmers through farmers' education, rallies, fora, durbars and other educational campaign programmes so that they would be able to differentiate between what really is child work and what constitute child labour. When this is done, farmers would be convinced enough to resolve that cocoa production activities would not interfere with the schooling of their children.

The study has identified some of the socio-cultural implications of dangers associated with the use of child labourers. The subsequent recommended programmes that can help reduce the use of child labour in cocoa production and wholesome development of the child.

COCOBOD can use findings from the survey to target and develop appropriate interventions to address study issues of production, marketing and most pertinently to address issues of child labour. The study would help combat hazardous and exploitative child labour in commercial agriculture in Ghana.

The study has outline how and where cocoa is produced and discussed the use of abusive child labour in the cocoa industry, efforts by stakeholders counter abusive child labour including COCOBOD, NGOs and International Organizations to address the problem. It shall also provide possible policy options that may be undertaken to stop the use of child labour in cocoa production. The study also form the basis for further research into other factors such as child trafficking to the cocoa producing areas and other factors

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associated with child labour use. Child labour and for that matter worst forms of child labour are linked, and as a result, child labour cannot be treated in isolation.

Additionally, the study bring to the fore the effectiveness of Ghana and for that matter COCOBOD's effort at addressing child labour in the study area and add to the knowledge base in fighting child labour in cocoa production. Again, this study will provide understanding and insight into child labour prevention mechanism and child protection laws with regards to enforcement.

Finally, the study eventually influences the policies' of COCOBOD and for that matter government on the issues of child labour use on cocoa farms. COCOBOD can tie cocoa purchasing to strict adherence of non-usage of children to produce cocoa in order to make farmers appreciate the serious threat child labour use pose to Ghana's cocoa industry on the international market.

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations militated against the conduct of the study: Firstly, inadequate financial resources did not enable the researcher to capture all the cocoa farmers in the Sefwi area. Secondly, because child labour is a criminal activity, some farmers were not willing to participate in the study with the fear that they would be persecuted if it is established that they are using children for their farming work. Finally, it was very difficult to get the co-operation and commitment of the Extension Unit staff of Cocoa Health and Extension Division to assist wholeheartedly in the collection of data (Dand, 1987).

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Delimitations of the Study

The study was restricted to the five Sefwi districts, namely; Bibiani-Ahwiaso-Bekwai District, Akontombra District, Sefwi Wiawso District, Juaboso District and Bia District. The target group for the study was only cocoa farmers in these five districts.

Definition of Terms

The following words are defined within the context of this study:

Exploitation

To one person taking advantage of another. In all human rights violations, it is one person or one group seeking to exploit another for their own benefit and often to the detriment of the other.

Hazard

To anything (object, procedure, process or activity) that has the potential to cause harm/source of harm.

Risk

To the consequence and the likelihood that somebody will be harmed by the hazard.

Child Labour

To the use of children in land clearing, planting of seedlings, weeding, cutting of chupons and mistletoes, harvesting, breaking of pods, fermentation and drying of cocoa beans against the acceptable level.

Forced child labour

To the employment of child workers without their consent or not allowing workers to leave farms voluntarily. It is also a form of slavery.

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Worst Forms of Child Labour

As defined in ILO Convention 182, is the use of any individual under the age of 18 for the purposes of debt bondage, armed conflict, commercial sexual exploitation, drug trafficking, and other types of work identified as hazardous to children by ratifying members.

Working Children

Those who carry out at least one task/activity on the cocoa farm, i.e. clearing ground, weeding, maintaining cocoa trees, applying pesticides, spreading fertilizer, harvesting, piling/gathering up, pod breaking, and fermenting, transporting, drying, and other activities.

Child Trafficking

To the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons by means of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.

Child Work

To activities that children carry out within or outside their households for income, family gain or profit including unpaid family work.

Hazardous Work

This refers to work which because of the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children. The harm involved could arise from physical, chemical, biological or environmental hazards.

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Factors

To economic, social infrastructural, policy and attitude, personal situations or conditions due to influence child labour.

Family Workers

To persons who constitute the immediate and extended family members of the heads of household or farmers family.

Farmers

To persons who are the registered or known owners of the cocoa farms. They are primarily responsible for managing the farm or for decision making about how the farm should be managed, and they exercise direct control over production, marketing and use of proceeds from the sale of the cocoa commodity.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of literature covers the following areas: definition of child labour, basic concepts of child labour, child labour laws and enforcement, overview of Ghana's child labour laws, agricultural sector and hazardous work, hazardous features of agriculture, etc.

According to Boas and Huser (2006), children had worked for decades in cocoa plantations without much notice from the outside world. It is only after the Miami Herald and New York Times published a series of articles about bonded labour, an example of child slaves on cocoa farms in Cote d'Ivoire that the issue came to the fore as a problem to be resolved. Bass (2004) argues that generally there must be material connection that links consumers in rich countries with working children in poor countries. He continued that because of the material connection it has been difficult to ignore child labour. In the case of cocoa, it is believed to be both material and ideational.

Boas and Huser (2006) discuss the extent to which children work in cocoa production, and in what parts of the production process they are involved. They analysed the involvement of children in the production of cocoa in Cote d'Ivoire with the aim of providing a basis for improved understanding of the situation for cocoa farmers and the children working in this sector.

According to Grier (2004) it is important to understand child labour not only as statistical definition and a firm categorization, but it is a social construction that can vary with the mode of production, gender, class, race and

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other social structures. This suggests that one should not understand children who work only as passive and defenseless victims, but we must also acknowledge child agency. Grier (2004) suggested that child labour is not only an outcome of social structures and processes, but one must also acknowledge children as actors within these structures and processes.

Child labour is a widespread and growing phenomenon in the developing world. ILO (1996) estimates put the prevalence of child labour as 250 million in the World, out of which 61 percent is in Asia, 32 percent in Africa and 7 percent in Latin America. The same source also indicates that 120 million children are full time workers and 80 percent of them are between 10-14 years of age. In terms of child labour force participation rates Africa ranks highest with 33 percent in East Africa, 24 percent in West Africa and 22 percent in Central Africa, followed by East Asia and South Asia with 20 and 14 percent respectively. The above information indicates the intensity of child labour and the necessity to address it, in order to eliminate its adverse effects on human capital development and the future growth potential of developing countries.

Literature distinguishes child labour and child work, where the latter is the not more harmful and probably healthy kind, and includes helping household in various chores and household activity. These activities may take place after school hours or during holidays more intensively and are probably inevitable in rural areas. ILO's Minimum Age convention authorizes the employment of children above 12 or 13 years in certain type of light work under certain conditions (ILO, 1995). On the other hand, child labour affects

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the participation of school-aged children on a regular basis in the labour force in order to earn a living for themselves or to supplement household income.

Child labour, therefore, prevents school participation and also possibly exposes them to health hazards. Empirical studies reveal that children contribute as high as one third of household income at times and their income source cannot be treated as insignificant by poor families (Patrinos and Psacharopoulos, 1995). One of the major constraints in Ghana's growth challenge has been the lack of human capital development.

The enrollments rates have not been picking up fast and the future trend on human capital does not look optimistic. The non-school attendance rates in Ghana are very high with wide gender disparities. According to the Ghana Child Labour Survey conducted the Ghana Statistical Service in 2003 (GSS, 2003), two in five children aged between 5-17 years are engaged in economic activity. The rural non-schooling is higher, with 37 percent for girls and 28 percent for boys. Ghana government developed strategy for accelerated growth which argued for massive investment in primary education as a way of building the necessary human capital for sustainable growth (World Bank, 1993). In this context, it is important to understand the dynamics of household decision making of whether to send children to school and/or work, to benefit from investments in education. If not, colossal public investments in education are not likely to get children into class rooms.

It has been noted that inconsistency between minimum age for employment and schooling in most countries makes the implementation of these laws complicated (ILO, 1996). This seems to be the case for Ghana as

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well. Ghana's labour Decree (1967) prohibits employment of children under the age of 15; although the law permits undefined "light" work by children.

The Education Act (1961) states that education is free and compulsory, although it does not define until what age the child should be in school. This indicates the problems of addressing child labour through legislation alone. In addition to citing examples from literature, from the Ghana Living Standards Survey, it analyses the issue of child labour at the household level where it takes place. Also the definition used for child labour force participation excludes household chores such as fetching wood, fetching water, cooking, cleaning and child care and similar activities undertaken by a boy or girl child in the household. However, household chores are accounted for separately.

Basic Concepts of Child Labour

Child Work

Boas and Huser (2006) explained that child work is work which generally refers to activities that children carry out within or outside their households for income, family gain or profit, including unpaid family work. Such children are often described as being economically active, which is a broad concept that encompasses most productive activities undertaken by children, whether for the market or not, paid or unpaid, for a few hours or full-time, on a temporary or regular basis, legal or illegal. It excludes chores undertaken in the child's own household and schooling.

According to IITA (2002) many children all over the world combine going to school with work at home to help parents with household chores or with family economic activity. IITA (2002) continued that poverty compels

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many families to use their children as cheap labour to sustain income for the family. In developing countries, children participating in family economic activity are practiced also as family tradition to teach children skills and the family trade. In most cases it is to ensure that as the children grow up they will have a trade to survive on. Even in developed countries, children undertake short term economic activities during vacation to earn some pocket money.

What Child Labour is not?

The type of work where children go to school and work for short periods a day under supervision by parents or guardians is not defined by ILO as child labour. In fact, ILO acknowledges that this type of work helps to develop the skills of a child and encourages them to learn family responsibility. This type of work should, however, be limited for a few hours a day only, should be done under the supervision of adults and should not be allowed to interfere with the child's education, health, safety, morals or general development.

Forced child labour

Employing child workers without their consent or not allowing workers to leave farms voluntarily constitutes forced labour, a form of slavery. Ghana and most other states have made international commitments to eliminate the worst forms of child labour, including forced labour. In 1999, 132 countries adopted the ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour which calls on states to 'take immediate and effective measures to prohibit and eliminate all forms of slavery and forced or compulsory labour',

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as well as 'work which is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children, determined by national laws or regulations'.

The nature the work performed on cocoa farms by anyone under the age of 18, even if voluntary, may qualify as prohibited child labour under this Convention. According to Elliot and Ewing (2004) growing cocoa involves long hours in the sun performing physically demanding work. Workers often use primitive tools, travel great distances, and are exposed to pesticides and chemical fertilizers, poisonous and disease-carrying insects and reptiles (Save the Children Canada, 2003).The US Department of State (USDOL, 2003) estimates that there are 109,000 child labourers working in hazardous conditions on cocoa farms, some of whom are forced or indentured workers, but most work on family farms or with their parents.

Worst Forms of Child Labour

The worst forms of child labour (WFCL) is defined (by ILO Convention 182) to include all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery (the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, forced or compulsory labour including recruitment for use in armed conflict); the use or offering of a child for prostitution and/or pornography, illicit activities including the production and trafficking of drugs; as well as work which when performed is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of the child (as determined by national authorities).

Whilst child labour of both boys and girls takes many different forms, the elimination of the worst forms of child labour as defined by Article 3 of ILO Convention No. 182 is a priority. The convent calls for the immediate

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prohibition of worst forms of child labour by enacting laws, regulations and standards. Secondly, it requires ratifying states to the urgent and effective measures to eliminate these worst forms through programmes of action. It applies to all children under the age of 18, but calls for special attention to girls. The ILO Convention No.182 on the worst forms of child labour defines four classes of work as worst forms. They include:

All forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, forced or compulsory labour including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflicts;

The use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography, or for pornographic performances;

The use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;

Work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (hazardous work).

Exploitation

According to MMYE (2008), exploitation is one person taking advantage of another. In all human rights violations it is one person or one group seeking to exploit another for their own benefit and often to the detriment of the other. It is either men exploiting women, or women exploiting men, or adults exploiting children. Sometimes it could be one country exploiting another or a group of human beings exploiting another group.

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Definition of Child Labour

The definition of Child Labour is derived from the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, ILO Convention 138 and 182, and the Ghana Children's Act 1998 (Act 560). It is all work that is harmful and hazardous to a child's health, safety and development; taking into account the age of the child, the conditions under which the work takes place, and the time at which the work is done (MMYE, 2003). According to the ILO (1993), child labour refers to work that (i) is mentally, physically, socially and morally dangerous and harmful to children; and (ii) interferes with their schooling by depriving them of the opportunity to attend school, by obliging them to leave school prematurely, or by requiring them to attempt to combine school attendance with excessively long and heavy work.

According to the Children's Act (1998), a child is a person below the age of eighteen years. Amoo (2007) defines child labour as work that is exploitative and deprives a child of his/her education and / or personal wholesome development and / or has the potential to endanger the child's physical, health, morals or safety. Amoo (2007) explains that child labour is best defined in terms of the type of work being done by the child, the age of the child doing the work and the circumstance or conditions under which it is being done.

Causes of Child Labour

Different studies have identified diverse factors as the causes child labour. The GSS (2003) outlined the underlying causes of child labour to include poverty and lack of income, lack of sustainable livelihood practices,

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lack of alternative forms of livelihood, poor parental care and break-up of families, loss of parents due to death and poor quality services such as education and health. Casely-Hayford (2004) also outlined four prevalent reasons as given by stakeholders as the causes of child labour in cocoa production. They are:

- parents inability to engage and hire the services of casual labourers or adult labourers on the farm,
- parents want to train the children in a productive skills such as cocoa production in case the child is not able to reach a higher level of education,
- working in the family farm is the responsibility of everyone including children, and everyone in the household has to assist the family in order to survive, and
- poor quality education.

The Cocoa Labour Survey commissioned by MMYE (2008) attributed child labour in cocoa production to multiple causes including poverty, illiteracy, ignorance, poor quality education, tradition and lack of family support. GSS (2003) and Casely-Hayford (2004) identified poverty as the major underlying causes of child labour Parents inability to hire adult labour due to low income levels makes them settle on their children as an alternative and cheaper source of labour. Poor households also tend to have more children and large families, and there is a higher probability that children will work to contribute to the insufficient earnings of the household to guarantee the survival of the entire family.

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Poor quality of education has also been cited as a major cause of child labour in Ghana's cocoa production areas. Poor quality of basic education in the rural communities serves as a disincentive for parents and farmers to send their children to school. In school with rigorous teaching and learning taking place and high levels of teacher attendance, parents are less likely to take their children out of school and use them on the farm than in communities where teachers were regularly absent from the school.

Odonkor (2007) examines the relationship between quality education in the cocoa growing areas and child labour. The study revealed that the social and economic cost of education is relatively high in rural areas. As a result, parents where the school environment is not conducive for children, parents rather tend to send their children to the farms instead of letting them go to school. The study further pointed out that illiteracy amongst parents and guardians do not permit them to assist their children to do their homework or even read their school reports. The study also attributes the low quality education and incidence of child labour to the following:

- inadequate teachers
- low motivation of teachers
- unsatisfactory conditions on the part of teachers
- less Ghana Education Service (GES) supervision
- inadequate teaching and learning materials necessary for quality education.

GSS (2008) collaborated the earlier studies that some common causes of child labour are poverty, parental illiteracy, social apathy, ignorance, lack of education and exposure, exploitation of cheap and unorganized labour. The

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family practice to inculcate traditional skills in children also pulls little ones inexorably in the trap of child labour, as they never get the opportunity to learn anything else. Absence of compulsory education at the primary level, parental ignorance regarding the bad effects of child labour, the infectivity of child labour laws in terms of implementation, non-availability and non-accessibility of schools, boring and unpractical school curriculum and cheap child labour are some other factors which encourages the phenomenon of child labour.

Ghana Statistical Service (2008) explained that it is also very difficult for immature minds and undeveloped bodies to understand and organize themselves against exploitation in the absence of adult guidance. Poverty and over population have been identified as the two main causes of child labour. Parents are forced to send little children into hazardous jobs for reasons of survival, even when they know it is wrong. Monetary constraints and the need for food, shelter and clothing drives their children in the trap of premature labour. Over population in some regions creates paucity of resources. When there are limited means and more mouths to feed children are driven to commercial activities and not provided for their development needs.

Illiterate and ignorant parents do not understand the need for wholesome proper physical, conflictive and emotional development of their children. They are themselves uneducated and unexposed, and so they don't realize the importance of education for their children. Adult unemployment and urbanization also causes child labour. Adults often find it difficult to find jobs because of non-existing jobs and it is more beneficial to employ children at cheap rates. This exploitation is particularly visible in agricultural activities

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of most rural areas. Adult exploitation of children is also seen in many places (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008).

Types of Child Labour

UNICEF (2004) has classified child work into three categories including the following:

Within the Family

Children are engaged without pay in domestic household tasks, agricultural pastoral work, handicraft/cottage industries etc.

Within the Family but outside the Home

Children do agricultural/pastoral work which consists of (seasonal/ full-time) migrant labour, local agricultural work, domestic service, construction work and informal occupation e.g. recycling of waste- employed by others and self-employed.

Outside the Family

Children are employed by others in bonded work, apprenticeship, skilled trades (Carpet, embroidery, and brass/copper work), industrial unskilled occupations/ mines, domestic work, commercial work in shops and restaurants, begging, prostitution and pornography.

Migrant Child Labour

Child migrate from the rural area to the urban or from smaller to larger towns cities either with their families or alone. They migrate either for better employment opportunities or to escape from bondage

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Bonded Child Labour

Children are pledged by their parents/guardians to employers in lieu of debts or payment. The rates of interest on loans are so high that the amount to be repaid accumulates every year, making repayment almost impossible. The phenomenon of urban child labour includes street children. These children belong to three broad categories:

Children on the Street

Working children who have families, but spend most of their time on the streets. They earn for themselves and may or may not contribute to the family income.

Children off the Streets

Working children who have left their families in villages or towns and have migrated to the city. They do not have a place to live and hence spend their nights at the railway platforms, bus stands etc. They live independently and usually spend all that they earn in the same day.

Abandoned/Orphaned Children

Working children without families or whose families have abandoned them. They spend their lives on the streets without any kind of support and are hence the most exploited and abused of the lot.

Invisible Child Labour

Children work in the unorganized or/and informal sector. They do not come under the purview of law. They constitute a substantial proportion of the child labour in the country. Most of them do not go to school.

The IITA (2002) also distinguished between the different groups of labour, which are;

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Family Labour

Example children of the farmer or children of close relatives of the farmer who live on the farm.

Foster labour

Example children with well-established kinship or communal ties to the household.

Salary labour

Example children who work for a salary without any kind of family, kinship or communal ties to the farm household in which they work.

Legal and Policy Approach

In discussing children's activities international policy perspective has classified children's participation as economic activity or work and non-economic or non-work activities. The non-economic activities including household chores done in the child's own household and schooling. According to WACAP (2004) the definition of child labour is based on economic activity or work which is described below. It is important to be clear with these terms and concepts as defined international policy direction if any meaningful discussion on child labour can be achieved.

Economic Activity

The definition of 'economic activity' derives from the System of National Accounts (SNA), the conceptual framework that sets the international statistical standards for the measurement of the market economy. It covers all the market production and certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. According to WACAP (2004), economic

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activity is a broad concept that encompasses most productive activities undertaken by children, whether for the market or not, paid or unpaid, for a few hours or full time, on a casual or regular basis, legal or illegal. It includes chores undertaken in the child's own household and schooling.

To be continued as economically active, a child must have worked for at least one hour on any day during a seven-day reference period. 'Economically active children' is a statistical rather than a legal notion. It should be clarified that economic activities include not only unpaid work by a family member in a family business of any kind, but also household chores or work of a domestic nature performed within household by any individual (such as helping on a food plot or gardening, helping on a cattle post, fetching water or collecting fire wood, wild crops, berries or drying or pounding food grains, etc.

Market Economic Activity

Market economic activities are activities that lead to production of goods and services that are primarily intended for sale or are sold on the market.

Non-Market Economic Activity

Own account production of goods: production of agricultural crops, their storage, cutting wood, firewood collection, hunting, fishing, production of other primary products such as mining salt, water supply, processing agricultural products, other kinds of processing such as weaving cloths, tailoring, production of footwear, pottery, utensils and other durables. Own account construction and substantial repairs, household activities such as re-

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plastering of walls, repairing of roofs, major renovations or extension to dwellings.

Non-economic Activity

'Non-economic activity' is defined as any productive activity falling outside the SNA production boundary. It consists mainly of work activities performed by household members in service to the household and its members.

Description of Non-Economic Activity

Housework: Household activities such as cooking, washing, indoor cleaning, upkeep of abode, care of textiles, installation, servicing, repair of personal and household goods, minor home improvements, maintenance and repair, care of family members and procurement of household goods and services, volunteering and community service and organizational volunteer work.

Non-Productive Activities

These activities include education, training, study, leisure, culture and personal care. Many children all over the world combine going to school with work at home to help parents with household chores or with family economic activity. Poverty compels many families to use their children as cheap labour to sustain income for the family. In developing countries, children participating in family economic activity are practiced also as family tradition to teach children skills and the family trade. In most cases it is to ensure that as the children grow up they will have a trade to survive on. Even in developed countries, children undertake short term economic activities during vacation to earn some pocket money.

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Overview of Ghana's Child Labour Laws

According to MMYE (2006), Ghana recognizing the problem of working children had earlier adopted the International Convention on the Right of the Child in 1990, the Organization of African Unity (OAU) Charter on the Right of the Child in 1992, and enacted the Children's Act in 1998 all of which seek to protect the rights of the child including safeguarding his or her education, health and normal development.

The 1992 Ghanaian Constitution guarantees the child protection from engaging in any work that is considered injurious to his or her health, education and development. The Children's Act of 1998 has a separate chapter on the employment of children and stipulates what constitute exploitative child labour and which seek to protect the rights of the child, including the right to education, health and shelter. Labour is exploitative if it deprives the child of his or her health, education and development. Ghana's labour laws and regulations prohibit child labour, putting the minimum age for employment at 15 years, but allow light work from the age of 13 years.

Ghana ratified ILO Convention 182 in June, 2,000, but has yet to ratify Convention 138, although the Children's Act appears to comply with the latter's main provision. The enactment of ILO Convention 182 on the elimination of the worst forms of child labour and implementation of the national Time-Bound Programmes (TBP) by the ILO/IPEC in 2004 demonstrates Ghana's commitment to the ILO to eradicate child labour. In the cocoa sector, Ghana is working towards certification status based on the Harkin-Engel protocol which commenced in July, 2008. According to Amoo

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(2007) the laws of Ghana also ensures that a child has got 9 years compulsory basic education, even though the laws are not strictly enforced.

Child Labour Laws and Enforcement

Ghanaian laws, for instance the Children's Act sets the minimum age for employment at 15 years and the minimum age for light work at 13 years. The US Department of Labour (2008) defined light work as work that is unlikely to be harmful to the health and development of a child and does not affect the child 's attendance or ability to benefit from school. The Children's Act stipulates that children 15 years older, or children who have completed basic education, can work as apprentices if the craftsman provides food, training and a safe and healthy work environment.

According to the Children's Act, children less than 18 years may not engage in night work between 8 p.m. to 6 a.m. The Act also prohibits persons less than 18 years from engaging in hazardous labour, which includes work in the mines or quarries, at sea, in bars, hotels and entertainment venues likely to expose children to immoral behaviour, in manufacturing that involves chemicals, in places that operate machinery, or in any job that involves carrying heavy loads (US Department of Labour, 2008). Employers who violate any of the above provisions regulating children's employment, with the exception of those related to apprenticeships, are subject to a fine and or 2 years of imprisonment. Employers who operate in industrial undertakings other than agriculture or commerce must keep a register with the dates of birth or apparent ages of the children they employ. Failure to keep this register is punishable by a fine.

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The laws prohibit forced labour, slavery and servitude. Ritual servitude is illegal in Ghana and is punishable by a minimum of 3 years of imprisonment. The law prohibits persons with custody, charge or care of a child less than 16 years from encouraging or causing that child to become involved in prostitution. It is a misdemeanor to procure females less 21 years, except 'known prostitutes'. The law also prohibits forced prostitution of children less than 18 years (US Department of Labour, 2008).

According to US Department of Labour (2008) Ghanaian law contains specific provisions against trafficking in persons, including trafficking children less than 18 years of age, providing another person for trafficking, and using a trafficked person. Each of these offences carries a penalty of 5 years of imprisonment. The law mandates the police officers respond to all request for assistance from trafficking victims and offer protection to persons who report cases of alleged trafficking, even if such person is not the victim. The law provides for rescue and temporary shelter and care, counseling, family tracing and rehabilitation of victims of trafficking. It also established a human trafficking fund to assist victims.

The Children's Act

Non-discrimination

According to the Children's Act (1998), no person shall discriminate against a child on the grounds of gender, race, age, religion, disability, health status, custom, ethnic origin, rural or urban background, birth or other status, socio-economic status or because the child is a refugee.

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Right to grow up with Parents

No person shall deny a child the right to live with his parents and family and grow up in a caring and peaceful environment unless it is proved in court that living with his parents would:

a) Lead to significant harm to the child; or

b) Subject the child to serious abuse; or

c) Not be in the best interest of the child.

Parental Duty and Responsibility

1. No parent shall deprive a child his welfare whether:
   a) The parents of the child are married or not at the time of the child's birth, or
   b) The parents of the child continue to live together or not.
2. Every child has the right to life, dignity, respect, leisure, liberty, health, education and shelter from his parents.
3. Every parent has the rights and responsibilities whether imposed by law or otherwise towards his child which include the duty to;
   a) Protect the child from neglect, discrimination, violence, abuse, exposure to physical and moral hazards and oppression.
   b) Provide good guidance, care, assistance and maintenance for the child and assurance of the child's survival and development.
   c) Ensure that in the temporary absence of a parent, the child shall be cared for by a competent person and that a child under 18 months of age shall only be cared for by a person of 15 years and above, except

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where the parent has surrendered his rights and responsibilities in accordance with law.

Penalty for Contravention

Any person who contravenes a provision of this sub-part commits an offence and is liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding GH¢ 5 million or to a term of imprisonment not exceeding one year or to both.

Harkin-Engel Protocol

Boas and Huser (2006) asserted that in September 2001, negotiations between the Chocolate Manufacturers Association (CMA), the World Cocoa Foundation (WCF) and the congressional offices of United States Senator Tom Harkin and United States Representative Eliot Engel culminated in the CMA and WCF signing the protocol for the growing and processing of cocoa beans and their derivative products in a manner that complies with ILO Convention 182 concerning the prohibition and immediate action for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour.

The Six Steps of the Harkin-Engel Protocol

Boas and Huser (2006) explained that the Harkin- Engel protocol includes:

- Issue a public statement by the cocoa industry acknowledging the problem of forced child labour in West Africa and the industry's intention to continue to commit significant resources to address the problem.
- Form a multi-sectoral advisory group to investigate labour practices in West Africa, and develop appropriate remedies for the elimination of worst forms of child labour in the growing and processing of cocoa.

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- Sign a joint statement of the need to end the worst forms of child labour in cocoa production and identify alternatives for children removed from the cocoa sector.
- Develop a memorandum of cooperation between the major stakeholders to establish a joint action programme of research, information exchange and mutually agreed action to enforce international standards to eliminate the worst forms of child labour in the cocoa sector. Establish an independent system to monitor and report compliance with standards.
- Establish a joint international foundation to manage and sustain anti-child labour effort, promote field projects and establish a clearing house of best practices to eliminate worst forms of child labour.
- Develop an industry-wide certification process that ensures that cocoa beans and their derivative products have not been grown and or processed without any of the worst forms of child labour (Boas and Huser, 2006).

On July 1, 2005, the joint statement from US Senator Tom Harkin, Representative Eliot Engel and the Chocolate/Cocoa Industry on effort to address the worst forms of child labour in cocoa growing announced the extension of the Harkin- Engel protocol and the industry's agreement to have in place a certification system covering 50 percent of the cocoa growing areas in Cote d'Ivoire and Ghana by July 1, 2008. In signing the joint statement, the International Cocoa Industry also pledged to commit USD 5 million annually from 2005-2008 to support the full implementation of the certification system and for programmes to improve the well-being of the farm families producing

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cocoa in West Africa, including efforts to eliminate worst forms of child labour. In June 2008, the Harkin- Engel protocol was extended until the end of 2010, with the industry expanding its commitment to cover 100 percent of the cocoa growing areas by that time (http://www.fedbizopps.gov).

The critical component of the protocol was to ascertain the extent to which abusive child labour and trafficking occurred in cocoa production as the numerous reports on the practice were largely anecdotal In July 2002 the IITA completed a study to determine the extent of child labour in the four major cocoa producing countries of West Africa, thus Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Cameroon.

Strategies for Eliminating Child Labour

There are several strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour which includes a broad selection of ILO-IPEC's "good practices" in using education as a key tool to eliminate child labour which will hopefully inspire, motivate and guide those who are actively working to support working children or former working children, their families and their communities (Jankanish, 2007). It aims to provide them with effective alternatives to impart education, skills training and related services to help all involved to recognize the dangers of child labour, recognize the importance of quality education and training, and ensure that all children benefit from these and can aspire to a better future and quality of life. On the basis of this experience, Jankanish 2007 highlighted some key underlying principles that characterize some of the good practices that have been emerging, for example:

- Multi-sectoral approaches have a much more effective and sustained impact in the elimination and prevention of child labour, combining

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the involvement of relevant government line ministries, social partners and civil society

- Education is a necessary, but not sufficient, intervention in the case of children working in hazardous and exploitative labour. In addition to receiving education of good quality and relevance, working children also need to benefit from a protective rights-based environment and access to legal, health and other services
- Child labour must be mainstreamed into Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP), EFA, national plans of action and other resource allocation frameworks
- Partnerships within the broader framework of the UN system and other international and national organizations must be actively pursued and implemented
- Particular attention should be paid to the situation of girls' work and education through gender specific strategies, and to the situation of particularly vulnerable groups of children, for example, the very young
- Formal education strategies are vital to the long-term success of interventions, and
- Practices should be grounded in country-specific realities when dealing with the issue of child labour, while recognising broader issues that may go beyond any one specific country.

COCOBOD (2008) also outlined different strategies for dealing with child labour in the cocoa sector which include the following:

- Enhancement of Knowledge-Base on Child Labour

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a. Conduct surveys to know the extent of prevalence and incidence of child labour
b. Capacity Building Training for Opinion Leaders and Key Actors
c. Organization of awareness and sensitization programmes through
d. farmers rallies and radio programmes etc
e. Use all available means to create awareness and sensitization on child labour

- Strengthening of the Legal Framework to deal with Child Labour
  a) Empower the law enforcement agencies to enforce existing laws
  b) Develop bye-laws at the district and community levels and enforce them
- Social Mobilization (empowering community members to act e.g. putting farmers into groups to act)
- Promotion of Universal Basic Education (Enrolment drive, attendance, Retention, etc)
- Promote the use of labour saving technologies
- Improving the income of farmers or guardians of children in labour or at risk (creating additional livelihood programmes for them)

Various efforts at addressing the child labour problems

Many issues are implicated in the problem of worst forms of child labour which makes the problem very complex. Key among these issues are

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illiteracy, ignorance, poverty, broken homes, death of parents, high fertility rates, HIV/AIDS, unemployment, unpleasant cultural practices and gender inequalities. Sustainable efforts to address worst forms of child labour must also address these issues. There have been efforts by government and its development partners since the 1990s to address the issue of child labour starting with Street Children's programmes. These efforts have been accelerated since the year 2,000 to include all worst forms of child labour and child trafficking.

In Ghana, there are policies, legislation, programmes and activities in place which directly or indirectly address the issue of child labour. Specifically, Ghana's Constitution (1992) contains several clauses on child care and protection; the Children's Act (Act 560, 1998) is a comprehensive law that ensures children's rights and protection. The Human Trafficking Act (Act 694) was passed in 2005, while the Domestic Violence Law has been passed by Parliament in 2007 and will soon become law. The Whistle Blower's Bill that mandates citizens to report crime of any kind has also been introduced. Government Policies that directly impact on WFCL include the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS 2) which prioritizes child labour as an issue for elimination, the Sector-Wide Education Policy to ensure Education for all by 2015, and the Capitation Grant (2005) which makes education free at Primary and Junior Secondary School levels.

Government also has put in place a broad institutional framework for addressing issues of child labour such as creating a Child Labour Unit in the year 2000, the establishment of a Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs in 2001, Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU) of the

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Ghana Police (2000), Social Services Sub-Committee of Parliament, Child Panels in the District Assemblies and Child Labour Monitoring Systems in some districts. Government programmes that indirectly address child labour include the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) established in 2002 which provides unemployed youths with skills for employability. In its efforts to increase accessibility to primary schools and Junior Secondary Schools, the government has, since 2002 embarked on increasing school infrastructure in rural areas. This, together with the Capitation Grant, has greatly improved school enrolment in poor rural communities.

Also significant for increasing school enrolment and attendance, and reducing school drop-outs, is the introduction of a two-year pre-school programme starting at age four as an integral part of the basic education system, and the planned expansion of the school feeding programmes. The development of school infrastructure, provision of school text books, curriculum reforms and teacher training programmes will all contribute to the improvement of the quality of basic education in public schools. The National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) has also enhanced the patronage of the health facilities in communities which have access to them.

However, there is the need to provide more health facilities in cocoa growing communities due to their remoteness from the cities. In 2000, Ghana ratified ILO Convention 182 on the elimination of the worst forms of child labour and signed a Memorandum of Understanding with ILO to put in place policies, programmes and projects to eliminate worst forms of child labour and child trafficking in Ghana. This resulted in the several programmes, projects

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and activities by a large number of partners. The work has been sustained to date, continues to grow and now includes the following:

The Ghana Country Programme supported by ILO/IPEC started off projects for the elimination process. It built a large partnership among government ministries, departments and agencies, employers' organizations, trades unions, NGOs and donor organizations that have continued to work together and expand with time. The Country Programme also created a forum for sensitization and awareness creation on the issue, capacity building, withdrawal and establishment of a Tracking Database for children withdrawn from work, and projects to withdraw children from ritual servitude (Trokosi), porters (Kayayee) and children in sex tourism, as well as inclusion of child labour in existing curricula for sensitizing school children as a means of cutting down drop-out rates. This programme was supported by ILO/IPEC and US Department of Labour (USDOL). The programme withdrew and enrolled in school 2,200 children caught up in child labour or at risk of entering child labour.

In 2002, the government launched a programme to eliminate child trafficking in Ghana and set up a Task Force to work on this. Through this programme, awareness on child trafficking has been intensified. There has been a training of security officers including police, immigration and customs officers at border posts towards the identification, interception of child traffickers and rescue of child victims for support. The Capacity Building Project which started in 2003 was able to withdraw a further 2000 children and enroll them in school.

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The West Africa Cocoa and Commercial Agriculture Programme (WACAP) which was specifically designed to eliminate the worst forms of child labour in selected cocoa and rice growing communities was carried out with support by ILO/IPEC and USDOL (Boas & Huser (2006).

The Time-Bound Programme for eliminating worst forms of child labour from other sectors including agriculture is also currently being implemented, with support from ILO/IPEC and the USDOL. Almost all the projects linked with ILO/IPEC support to Ghana received funding from USDOL.

The National Programme for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour in the Cocoa Sector from 2006-2011 has been formulated and is currently being implemented, with the World Cocoa Foundation being a main supporting partner.

In the cocoa sector, there has been increased intervention since 2003 when the problem became known. Direct involvement of Government started with a Stakeholder Consultative Meeting organized by COCOBOD in collaboration with the International Cocoa Initiative in 2004 where several decisions were taken to ensure elimination of WFCL in the sector. Since then, the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment has mainstreamed the cocoa sector into the work of the National Steering Committee and has been coordinating activities in the sector. Work in the cocoa sector started with the West African Cocoa and Commercial Agriculture Project (WACAP). Through this project, 1,200 children were withdrawn in over 52 cocoa communities and 9 rice communities; the children were enrolled in school, child labour committees were established in several communities and awareness on child

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labour in the cocoa sector was created. The Sustainable Tree Crop Project was also established in 2003 to organize farmer field schools with the aim of helping farmers to improve cocoa farming practices that will reduce disease and increase yield. The WACAP project also established a child labour monitoring system for the cocoa sector (Boas and Huser (2006).

Since the signing of the Harkin-Engel Protocol, other partners have come to support Ghana's efforts at eliminating WFCL and forced labour in the cocoa sector. These include the World Cocoa Foundation (WCF) and the International Cocoa Initiative (ICI). They have both signed Memoranda of Agreement with the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment. Through such collaboration, the WCF is helping with data collection for certification. Through funding and support from the International Cocoa Initiative, a community-based dialogue and sensitization programme was started in 2004. This was done with local implementing partners in three districts (two in Western Region and one in Ashanti Region) and a total of 24 communities (ILO-IPEC, 2001).

The programme took place from November 2004 to December 2006. Participatory Development Associates (PDA) as the Local Coordinating Agency (LCA) helped to design, inform, coordinate, and monitor the implementation by three district-level NGOs (implementing partners) of the pilot processes with communities. The three implementing partners are Hope for Humanity in New Edubiase, Community Development Consult (CODESULT) in Asankrangwa, and Support for Community Mobilization Project/Programme (SCMPP) in Daboase. PDA implemented directly actions in six communities in Asankrangwa. Rescue Foundation provided training and

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technical backstopping to PDA and the implementing partners on worst forms of child labour and its related concepts (ILO-IPEC, 2001).

The approach adopted by ICI/PDA and the implementing partners was community-driven and child-centered. The project sought to work with the entire community in each of the 24 communities in the three districts. The two key stages of the process, namely the dialogue and sensitization on child labour and related concepts and the formulation and validation of the community action plans were done as community wide activities. In this regard, the project could be said to have reached the following numbers of people in the communities in the districts (ILO-IPEC, 2001):

- Three separate leadership training exercises for 572 community leaders (435 men & 137 women) were completed
- All the 24 pilot communities developed Community Action Plans (CAPs) and have mobilized resources to improve education infrastructure and community development in general and to address issues in education, adverse labour practices, especially hazardous labour. Based on the success of the pilot, ICI/PDA strategy and programme plan for 2006-2009 is to scale up the programme of direct facilitation in communities to at least 500 communities.

If the same results can be achieved on that scale, one can conclude it is possible to extend it nation-wide. ICI has also been collaborating with COCOBOD and Future Resource Development to train COCOBOD field staff and staff of Licensed Buying Companies (LBCs). Through this collaboration 204 district officers and regional officers have been trained in both knowledge and skills to carry out sensitization and awareness in cocoa communities

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through farmer rallies. Through this effort 8,800 farmers and children have been reached with messages on WFCL. From 2007, ICI is supporting the training of media personnel in Radio and FM Stations and television stations in the five major cocoa producing regions. The purpose is to get awareness on radio and television intensified in the cocoa communities (WACAP, 2004).

ICI is also supporting Rescue Foundation for the identification, rescue and victim support to child victims of trafficking who may be found in the cocoa sector. In 2006, the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment developed a plan of action for the elimination of WFCL, in collaboration and with support from national stakeholders and ILO/IPEC. A National Programme Coordinator and Communication Officer were employed. This programme is being supported by DANIDA, Ghana COCOBOD, ICI, UNICEF and WCF.

The programme has so far instituted sensitization programs in the six districts where the pilot survey on cocoa labour practices were conducted. Lists of hazardous and light activities were also deduced from community gatherings as part of the sensitization. A communication policy for the program has been drafted and plans have been made to implement the policy.

Follow-up visits have been paid to a few communities where seemingly distressed child labour cases had previously been identified. A partners' forum has also been instituted to involve NGOs and district assembly sub-committees to enhance work towards eliminating worst forms of child labour in cocoa (and also in other sectors), increase impact and avoid duplication of work and to reduce the burden of work on each organization.

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Global Context and UNICEF's Involvement in the fight Child Labour

International action against child labour

Throughout the past two decades, child labour has elicited much heated debate and analysis, which have influenced responses both internationally and locally. The debate has focused on the concepts and development issues surrounding child work vs. child labour, household and outside the household or external child labour, hidden or invisible child labour, the worst forms of child labour, and defining the words "labour" and "work". As a result, efforts have increased towards understanding the underlying causes of child labour; adopting appropriate policy measures; and supporting programmes/projects that range from rehabilitative to preventive WACAP, 2004).

Attempts have been made to link the preventive and rehabilitative measures that countries take to eliminate child labour to Education for All (EFA) goals and efforts. While education is an obvious response to child labour, it can also be part of the problem. Without accessible, quality, equitable, equal, safe, valued, flexible, and affordable education, and family and community support systems, the viable and immediate alternative for the child is to enter the labour market, where she/he often gets placed in hazardous and exploitative work conditions. This is problematic with regard to protecting child rights and achieving the goal of universal primary education by 2015 (ILO, 2005).

International advocacy has been promoting free and compulsory quality education for all children until they reach the minimum employment age per ILO Convention 138, and protection from the worst forms of child

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labour per ILO Convention 182, and many governments have been adopting legislation to conform to international standards. However, in spite of increasing levels of global and national awareness of and action on child labour, and the attention given to national educational systems to make them more accessible, inclusive, and of improved quality in line with goals espoused and committed to at the World Education Conferences at Jomtien (1990) and Dakar (2000), the reality is that there are still millions of working children (ILO, 2005).

Out of this vulnerable group of children, about two-thirds work in agriculture and related activities, with the remainder working in manufacturing, trade, hotel and restaurant, domestic service, transport, construction, mining and quarrying. A large number of children also work the streets hawking goods, running errands, shining shoes, and cleaning/tending cars. Only an estimated 5% of working children actually work in the formal sector. Many children in harmful and hazardous work are involved in the worst forms of child labour, which include slavery, bondage, commercial sexual exploitation and trafficking, and child soldiering, making them especially vulnerable to sexual abuse and exploitation, and exposure to diseases, such as HIV/AIDS.

In particular, it is estimated about 1 million children every year are coerced into the sex trade, and 300,000 children are soldiers in armed conflicts around the world. In all regions, the data indicate that more boys than girls work, but, as UNICEF and others have perceptively indicated, if household domestic work were included in the data collection and analysis, it would indicate that more girls work than boys. Furthermore, the majority of the

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estimated 120 million school-aged children who are not in primary school are girls, many of whom are working. This is but one of several indicators that has prompted many international agencies, organizations, and countries to give extra attention to girls' education, which has been accelerating since the latter half of the 1990s.

Identifying and researching the factors that contribute to child labour has increased understanding of why so many children work and helped with the formulation of strategies aimed at the elimination of child labour. First and foremost among them is poverty, which causes children to work to contribute to family income needed for survival. It is usually combined with other interrelated factors, such as cultural and societal practices; economics, especially in connection to globalization processes; politics; and the unavailability of accessible, equitable, equal, safe, affordable, and quality education.

There has been a growing international consensus on issues related to child labour; evident in various declarations, platforms, conventions, programmes of action, etc.; reflecting the state of knowledge, attitudes, and experiences with regard to child labour and child rights. They represent international benchmarks that communicate the outcome of processes of finding common ground, offer guidance and potential solutions for solving the multifaceted problem of child labour, and ensure all children are included in exercising their full set of rights, especially their right to a quality education.

The following are a selection of influential global instruments /gatherings/ programmes for action that have influenced UNICEF and other

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partners' vision and developmental approaches to addressing issues and concerns surrounding child labour and child rights:

- Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979)
- Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1989) (including the two optional protocols: one on the sale of children, child prostitution, and child pornography, and the other on children in armed conflict)
- World Summit on Children/World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children/Plan of Action (1990)
- World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand (1990)
- Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action from the World Conference on Human Rights (1993)
- Programme for Action from the Cairo Conference on Population and Development (1994)
- Declaration and Programme for Action from the Copenhagen World Summit for Social Development (1995)
- Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action from the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995)
- Stockholm Declaration and Agenda for Action of the World Congress against Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children (1996)
- Chair's Summary and Conclusions from the Amsterdam Child Labour Conference (1997)
- Declaration of the Ninth SAARC Summit in Malé (1997)
- Cartagena Declaration on the Elimination of Child Labour (1997)

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- Recommendations of the Organization of African States (OAU) Summit in Harare (1997)
- International Conference on Child Labour in Oslo, Norway: Agenda for Action (1997)
- International Labour Organization (ILO) Conventions, particularly of ILO Convention (no. 29) on forced labour (1930), ILO Convention (no. 138) on minimum age (1973) and ILO Convention (no. 182) on the worst forms of child labour (1999)
- Millennium Development Goals (2000)
- World Education Forum – The Dakar Framework for Action (2000)
- UNGASS – World Fit for Children (2002)

Evolution of UNICEF's approach to child labour

Since the 1990s, UNICEF has been progressively internalizing, supporting, and advocating a child rights/human rights-based strategic approach in its programming that contributes to ensuring children's rights are fully accessed as framed in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and backed by other human rights-based instruments and declarations, especially the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (1979). UNICEF's official mandate per the United Nations General Assembly is to advocate for the protection of children's rights, help them meet their basic needs, and expand their opportunities to reach their full potential (UNICEF, 2004).

The UNICEF Executive Board adopted a Mission Statement in January 1996 that succinctly affirmed that the CRC was to guide all of UNICEF's work. UNICEF programming from a rights perspective is based on

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human/child rights principles that emphasize accountability with regard to the rights of children; the universality of rights; the indivisibility and interdependence of rights; non-discrimination; the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival, and development, and taking into account the views of the child (UNICEF, 2004).

The child rights perspective has caused new programmatic areas to emerge and gain priority, such as child labour, sexual exploitation and abuse, child soldiers and children in armed conflict, and juvenile justice. It has contributed to raising the level of awareness and focusing attention on the millions of working children around the world who are denied their rights to a quality education, health care, adequate nutrition, etc. For many years prior to the formulation and implementation of the UNICEF Global Child Labour Programme, UNICEF was building knowledge through support of diverse country-based policy and programmatic processes affecting working children, which were and continue to be propelled forward by abroad-based cadre of UNICEF players and partners (UNICEF, 2004).

During the 1980s, there was increasing awareness of the plight of child workers, sexually exploited children, street children, children affected by war and violence, and abandoned child drug users in developing countries, which prompted UNICEF to develop and implement its "Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances" (CEDC) programme. By the 1990s, UNICEF had become a chief proponent of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), and began to develop and engage in implementing a rights-based approach throughout the entire UNICEF programme, which contributed to giving more

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focus to the vulnerable and hard-to-reach groups of children, such as child workers.

The attention on child workers was further reinforced with media exposure of exploited children producing goods, such as soccer balls, sneakers, garments, and rugs for well-known corporations of industrialized countries that raised public awareness and outcry against the practice. UNICEF Country Programmes of Cooperation, such as those in India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Brazil, responded through existing and new activities aimed at protecting working children, which helped UNICEF define a comprehensive strategic framework on the eradication of child labour.

By 1995, UNICEF had formed a Working Group on Child Labour to promote strategic dialogue worldwide on the issue, which resulted in the UNICEF Executive Board adopting a child protection policy called "Children in Need of Special Protection" (CNSP). That policy built on the CEDC programme, and the expression of a comprehensive strategy statement on child labour, which was communicated in the paper, UNICEF: Towards a Global Strategy on Working Children (July, 1997). The comprehensive strategy statement was an output of the Turin capacity-building workshop on child labour, which helped UNICEF prepare and actively participate in the Oslo Conference on Child Labour in October 1997. Out of this conference came the critical Agenda for Action, which clearly linked child labour and education?

It was enthusiastically endorsed by the many participants, including UNICEF and funders. In 2001, UNICEF's Executive Board approved the Medium-Term Strategic Plan (MTSP) for 2002–2005, which gave priority to

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improving protection of children from violence, exploitation, abuse, and discrimination. This along with the other organizational priorities; girls' education, integrated early childhood development, immunization "plus", and fighting HIV/AIDS; connect to child labour the issues and multi-sectoral strategic actions to be taken by UNICEF and partners that aim to "mainstream" attention to vulnerable groups of children, such as working children (UNICEF, 2004).

Current Initiatives to Counter Child Labour in Cocoa Production

The first three programs described herein are complementary initiatives that work together to combat the use of child labour in cocoa production. They are all implemented through the ILO with U.S. with international support.

Sustainable Tree Crops Programme

The Sustainable Tree Crops Programme (STCP) is a public-private partnership that seeks to raise the income and quality of life in cocoa-producing communities. The cocoa/chocolate industry addresses abusive child labour through its efforts to improve agricultural marketing and production, and support farmers' organizations. The U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID), along with the World Cocoa Foundation (WCF), the International Labor Organization (ILO), the Governments of Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea, and Nigeria, and local agribusiness firms, share in the management and implementation of the programme. In Cote d'Ivoire, the government reportedly funds the trainers in the Farmer Field Schools discussed below.

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Recognizing that abusive forms of child labour are often a symptom of poverty and STCP aims to increase access to environmentally friendly technology that raises profitability, productivity and efficiency of smallholder tree crop systems. According to STCP representatives, farmers who have participated in pilot programmes in Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana have experienced boosted crop yields of between 20% and 50%. As a result, STCP staff report that some farmers have been able to afford school fees for their children. Additionally, STCP staff reported that more than 4,000 farmers have been sensitized in Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana on the dangers of abusive child labour.

Key activities of the programme include:

- Farmer Field Schools - where farmers work together to solve crop disease and pest problems;
- Spraying minimization;
- Crop rotation techniques;
- Agribusiness skills training;
- Child labor sensitization; and
- HIV/AIDS awareness.

Combating Trafficking of Children for Exploitive Labour

The U.S. Department of Labour's International Child Labour Programme (ICLP) implements a regional anti-trafficking programme in West Africa through the ILO to stop child trafficking within the affected countries and across the borders. The programme received $225,525 in 1999 financial year, $7.3 million in 2001 financial year and $2 million in 2004 financial year. Upon completion in 2007, the initiative would have been implemented in

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Benin, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Gabon, Mali, and Togo. Key activities of the project included (IITA, 2006):

- Rescue and rehabilitate trafficked children (rehabilitation includes placing rescued children in educational and/or vocational programmes);
- Establish awareness-raising campaigns among at-risk groups;
- Develop sub-regional and bilateral coordination mechanisms for the prevention of child trafficking, withdrawal from exploitative labour, and re-integration;
- Facilitate the development of a national legal environment that would implement actions against child traffickers;
- Train border authorities to detect and intercept child trafficking; and
- Provide non-formal education, referral to local schools, or occupational skills training (IITA, 2006).

West Africa Cocoa/Commercial Agriculture Programme

International Child Labour Programme (ICLP) also implements through the ILO a complementary West African regional programme to prevent and eliminate the use of child labour in the cocoa sector. The West Africa Cocoa/Commercial Agriculture Programme (WACAP) received $5 million from United States Department of Labour in 2002. Upon completion in January 2006, the programme would have been implemented in Cameroon, Ghana, Guinea, and Nigeria. To date WACAP has reportedly reached more than 25,000 people through its awareness raising and capacity building activities. Also, according to Ivorian and Ghanaian STCP officials, more than 3,000 of the targeted 9,000 children below age 13 involved in child labour

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have been identified, counseled, withdrawn from work, and placed in educational or vocational training facilities (WACAP, 2004).

Ultimately, the project seeks to:

- Develop a National Plan of Action for prevention and elimination of hazardous and exploitative child labour in the cocoa/agriculture sector;
- Prepare and launch awareness raising campaigns to combat and prevent child labour in the cocoa/agriculture;
- Inform local communities and local administrative authorities about national child labour legislation;
- Educate approximately 9,700 children who have been withdrawn from work under the programme;
- Provide skills to at least 500 adult family members to enhance their Income earning potential;
- Train children 12 years and older in marketable skills;
- Monitor the use of child labour in the cocoa sector;
- Prevent/protect about 70,000 children between 13 and 18 years from engaging in hazardous work;
- Rehabilitate children removed from hazardous work through education and vocational training provisions;
- Establish an independent child labour monitoring/verification system in participating countries; and
- Integrate labour inspection programmes with child labour monitoring/verification system.

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Since launching WACAP, Cote d'Ivoire, for instance, has ratified the ILO Minimum Age Convention 138 and the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labor Convention 182, has established a national steering mechanism for a country-wide anti-child labour programme, set up a national Cocoa Task Force, and has integrated Convention 182 into its national laws. Nigeria and Ghana have also initiated national anti-child labour programmes (WACAP, 2004).

Fair Trade Certified TM Cocoa

In an effort to combat the use of child labour in cocoa production, Fair Trade Label Organizations International (FLO) encourages the formation of farmer cooperatives. Participating farmers are guaranteed a minimum price per pound through direct sales to Fair Trade buyers under long-term contracts. Specifically, farmers who sell to Fair Trade buyers receive a minimum of $1,750 per metric ton ($1,950 per metric ton organic). If the world price rises above $1,600 per metric ton, the Fair Trade price meets the world price and adds a $150 premium per metric ton ($200 premium per metric ton for organic). In exchange for receiving above market price sales, farmers must not use forced or child labour. This process is certified by the Fair Trade Label Organizations International (FLO) (IITA, 2006).

Additionally, farmers are required to reserve a portion of their revenues for social projects, such as community development and technical training. To date, 42,000 cocoa farmers and their families participate in eight Fair Trade cooperatives in Ghana, Cameroon, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Dominican Republic, and Ecuador. Additional key elements of the cooperatives include:

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- Promotion of environmentally sustainable practices, such as shade cultivation, composting, and minimization of chemical inputs;
- Encouragement of crop diversification;
- Regular farm inspection to ensure compliance of labour standards;
- Access to credit for labour and production costs; and
- Training in marketing and records keeping (IITA, 2006).

Some economists point to fair trade schemes or to labeling schemes as effective ways to raise labour standards, including discouraging child labour, while providing producers with increased returns and compensation for increased costs (from not using children). A difficulty with Fair Trade approaches, however, is that their scope may be limited by the numbers of producers involved and by the number of consumers willing to pay a higher price for a "fairly traded" product (IITA, 2006).

Policy Options

Trade Agreements

The Trade and Development Act of 2000 expanded the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP) eligibility criteria to include barring the Worst forms of child labour. The Generalized System of Preferences (GSP) is a program that extends duty-free entry to a wide range of products from more than 140 countries and territories. U.S. Trade Representative, 2005 Comprehensive Report on U.S. Trade and Investment Policy toward Sub-Saharan Africa and Implementation of the African Growth and Opportunity Act, May 2005.The act prohibits any country from GSP consideration if "such

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country has not implemented its commitments to eliminate the worst forms of child labour."

Some trade analysts advocate the recession of trade benefits for countries that continue to use child labour in cocoa production. The Africa Growth and Opportunity Act (AGOA), seeks to offer sub-Saharan African countries greater access to the U.S. market. Although Côte d'Ivoire gained GSP/AGOA status in 2002, 43 according to the USTR, on January 1, 2005, Côte d'Ivoire's AGOA beneficiary status was terminated for reasons related to lack of progress on key economic reforms and the Ivorian government's decision to unilaterally violate the U.N. monitored cease-fire in November 2004.

Côte d'Ivoire is also subject to U.S. sanctions under Section508 of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961, as amended, that bar bilateral U.S. assistance, with some exceptions. These sanctions are in place due to a change of government by military coup in 1999. Consequently, there may be a relative paucity of options to impose further assistance or trade-based sanctions on Côte d'Ivoire (the largest producer of cocoa) for its use of abusive child labour. Furthermore, as cocoa beans enter the U.S. market on a duty free basis, they are not included in GSP/AGOA preferential schemes.

Nonetheless, advocates of a trade-based solution underscore that the child labour provision should be considered for the other cocoa-producing countries and for Côte d'Ivoire if and when Côte d'Ivoire's GSP/AGOA status is restored. Furthermore, it has been pointed out that a number of cocoa containing products do enter the United States under these preferential schemes. One option may be to withdraw preferences for cocoa containing

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products on the basis that the exporting countries are not abiding by their child labour commitments.

Enhance Harkin-Engel Protocol

The Harkin-Engel Protocol calls for the establishment of a certification system in cocoa-producing countries by July 1, 2005. Critics maintain that the Protocol should be augmented to include enforcement mechanisms. Since the Protocol is a voluntary, self-regulatory agreement, advocates of tougher measures argue that the Protocol may have a minimal impact on the use of abusive child labour. Furthermore, observers note that national governments may not have the capacity or the will to ensure that the worst forms of child labour are not used in cocoa production. Some advocates are calling for an outline stipulating how a certification process could work, and detailing who might fund such an effort.

Industry proponents say that it is premature to consider alternatives to the industry certification plan that was slated to begin on July 1, 2005. It appears that the industry certification plan will begin as a series of pilot projects in Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana with a focus on farm level conditions, rather than on the other supply chain components including sorting, transport, and storage networks. Industry spokespersons say that given the size of the sector — there are 1.5 million cocoa farms in the two countries (Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana) it will not be possible to certify that all cocoa beans have been produced and harvested without child labour. However, according to a July 1, 2005, press release issued by Senator Harkin, Representative Engel, and the cocoa/chocolate industry, 50% of all cocoa producing areas will be certified by 2008.

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Encourage Enforcement of U.S. Tariff Act of 1930

Child rights advocates claim that legislation already exists to prevent the use of abusive child labour in cocoa production. Proponents argue that the U.S. Customs Service should prohibit the importation of cocoa derivative products from some sources, citing the Tariff Act of 1930, as amended. In 2,000, Congress amended the Tariff Act to explicitly state that the statute applied to goods made with forced or indentured child labour. Supporters assert that the U.S. Customs Service (USCS) is failing to enforce this anti-child labour law. Non-governmental organizations, Global Exchange, the International Labour Rights Fund (ILRF), and the Fair Trade Federation have reportedly filed a lawsuit against the U.S. Customs Service to force the Service to act under the Tariff Act.

Using Section 307 of the Tariff Act of 1930, as amended, to ban imports of cocoa from Côte d'Ivoire or other producing countries raises a number of potential law implementation concerns. Trade analysts differ as to whether such a ban to enforce child labour standards could withstand a challenge in a World Trade Organization (WTO) dispute settlement. Some maintain that WTO agreements do not include labour standards and that violation of labour standards, with one exception, is not covered under WTO rules. The only specific mention of a labour standard is in Article XX (e) of General Agreement of Trade and Tariffs (1994) which permits exceptions to GATT obligations in cases where prison labour has been used to produce a product. Conversely, others argue that U.S. imposition of an import ban, because of the use of abusive child labour in production could withstand WTO

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challenges because of more general language in Article "XX" (b) which permits exceptions to GATT rules in order to protect human health.

This position is based on the notion that abusive child labour is injurious to health, and that children have been reportedly found to be using pesticides without adequate protection. Proponents of banning cocoa imports because they are produced using abusive child labour practices also argue that recent WTO dispute panel decisions validate a broad approach to enforcement of a member country's laws when health considerations are involved.

Some contend that an import ban on cocoa produced using abusive child labour might contribute little to improving the lot of children in rural Côte d'Ivoire or other cocoa producing countries. Critics do not argue that abusive or unsafe child labour practices should be ignored, but rather that the underlying cause of child labour is rural poverty which should be the focus of efforts to improve the lot of children.

Questions of targeting and fairness are also at issue. As trade data above show, while the United States imports about 1/4 of its cocoa beans from Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana, about 65% of Ivorian cocoa goes to Europe, from which the United States imports cocoa products. To what extent would an import ban cover imports of products from Europe manufactured from cocoa beans produced under conditions of abusive child labour, as well as to the bean-producing countries?

Other Framework Agreement Models

The Harkin-Engel Protocol is an agreement by which two cocoa/chocolate industry groups committed themselves and their members to

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the goals outlined in the protocol. Their pledge was witnessed by the government of Côte d'Ivoire, Members of Congress, the International Labor Organization (ILO), and several private labor rights groups.

Were the Protocol to experience implementation challenges, or if broader participation were found to be useful, based on Protocol implementation experience, the creation of other cooperative action plans or framework agreements could conceivably be pursued. One possible model for such an effort is the Kimberley Process Certification Scheme (KPCS), an international voluntary agreement that seeks to regulate the trade in rough diamonds through the creation of a closed system of trade between "legitimate" traders of rough diamonds, as defined under the KPCS. The system is based upon the use of certificates issued by state participants, which accompany and vouch for the legitimacy of diamonds that they import or export.

The aim of the KPCS is to prevent trade in "conflict diamonds" (diamonds sold by rebel groups to fund armed insurgencies, mostly in Africa) while helping to protect the legitimate rough diamond trade. The KPCS is comprised of states and regional economic integration organizations that are eligible to trade in rough diamonds under the KPCS. The diamond industry and civil society groups act as observers to the KPCS, and actively take part in monitoring and improving the scheme. The KPCS could be viewed as a restraint on trade under WTO. These are cited as a lack of independent monitoring and oversight; statistical anomalies pertaining to reporting requirements, and lack of internal controls and tracking of diamonds domestically from "mine to export point" in some countries. Trade

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Organization (WTO) rules, has a temporary WTO waiver that expired in 2006.Observers expect a further WTO waiver to be sought to continue the Process.

While the KPCS has what some observers see as drawbacks, it is undergoing continued review by Participants and Observers. Some may argue, however, that creating a similar process aimed at ending abusive labour processes in the cocoa industry could delay implementation of efforts to achieve that goal, since the time that would likely be involved in negotiating such an agreement could be lengthy. In addition, such an effort could lead to the adoption of "lowest common denominator labour standards", since implementation of such a framework would likely be arrived at by voluntary consensus by participating governments, some of which may lack the capacity or legal mechanisms to ensure adherence to strict labour standards. In addition, some non-participating countries might object to such a scheme as restraint on trade under WTO rules, and challenge it in the WTO. While a waiver similar to that under the KPCS could potentially be sought, some observers believe that WTO rule exceptions related to public health and morals might not be applicable to such a cocoa trade regime; from this perspective, such a regime might not conflict with WTO rules.

Multilateral Poverty Reduction Strategies

Researchers note that cocoa-producing countries could use findings about cocoa agricultural labour patterns for their benefit. The use of child labour in cocoa production, for instance, could be seen as an indicator of poverty. Consequently, countries could potentially incorporate education-based anti-child labour initiatives into their country Poverty Reduction

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Strategies (PRS). According to STCP officials, Ghana and Côte d'Ivoire have already programmed some of their revenues gained through the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative to bolster their educational infrastructure, and thereby address one of the basic goals of anti-child labour efforts.

Other Issues

Impact of Political Instability

Ivorian officials for instance maintain that their country is committed to ending the use of abusive child labour in cocoa production and that they are working vigorously to combat the problem and expand anti-child labour efforts, but face significant challenges in doing so. They note that large parts of key cocoa-growing areas in western Côte d'Ivoire are the site of instability and armed conflict related to the larger civil conflict that afflicts the country. The government of Côte d'Ivoire has reportedly spent more than $1 million on countering abusive child labour in cocoa production largely through STCP.

Limited Educational Infrastructure

Analysts point out that even in instances when children can be removed from the worst forms of child labour, there may not be educational institutions available to them. Many farms in West Africa are in rural areas where educational infrastructure is limited, and transport to schools over long distances is limited or virtually non-existent. Furthermore, many farmers are unable to afford school fees, uniforms, and/or books. Although in Ghana primary education is free and compulsory, the government reportedly does not enforce the law because it knows that there are not enough schools to service

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all children. Many of the teachers in the country are obtained through the compulsory national service, a limited service programme.

Level of education

Many adoption studies show some relationship between technology adoption and the educational level of farmers. The more complex the technology, the more likely it is that education will play a role (CIMMYT, 1993). Singh and Singh (1992), Akorhe (1981) and Nweke (1991), reported that adoption of technology is influenced by the level of education of the farmer. Gurung and Rasali (1996) identified literacy to be one of the factors that greatly influence adoption of technology.

A study Amponsah (1995) indicated that adoption was positively influenced by the respondents' educational level. Rogers (1995) reported that adoption of innovation could be regarded as managerial concern that requires certain managerial skills which are often gained through education.

According to Rahm and Huffman (1984), farmers' schooling enhances the efficiency of adoption decision. They noted that adoption of new technology involves farmers in acquiring and decoding information about modern inputs and in learning how to use inputs effectively. Farmers having low level of schooling may require longer time lag to select, assimilate and allocate new farming skills.

Low World Prices for Cocoa

Interviews conducted during the IITA survey revealed that greater employment of family labour was a common response to the drop in cocoa prices during the 1990s, and the resulting decline in cocoa incomes. In

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addition to the substitution of family labour for paid labour, farmers have also reduced the use of purchased inputs, such as fertilizers. The net effect of both of these factors has led to lower productivity and incomes, and to reduced household investments in children's education. Some analysts argue that the fall of world cocoa prices led to an increase in the use of child labour. Labour rights advocates argue that if farmers could gain greater profits from their crops, then they would be less likely to use children in cocoa production.

Child Education and Labour in Contemporary Ghana

According to Ghana Statistical Service (2003), Ghana has a young population; 49.7 % of the population is under 18 years and can be considered children. Child labour has been an issue of concern to the government for some years. Ghana has ratified ILO's worst forms of child labour convention 182, but not the Minimum Age Convention 138 (ILO, 2005). The government of Ghana has however, passed a law to strengthen the rights of children and protect them from exploitation. The Children's Act (1998) has a separate chapter on employment of children and stipulates that which constitute exploitative child labour. Labour is exploitative if it deprives the child of its health, education and development. The minimum age for employment is 15 years old, but from the age of 13 years old children can do light work. The minimum age for hazardous employment is 18 years old.

The Ghana child labour survey in 2003 was the first nationwide survey specifically designed to collect information about the issue. The survey identified poverty as the underlying cause of child labour, and recognized the importance of legislation and access to education in the fight against child

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labour. According to the parents of 93 % of the children engaged in economic activity, child work is basically to contribute to the economic welfare of the household. If parents had the choice they would prefer their children to be either in school or in training. The children themselves would prefer to go to school and complete their education before starting to work (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003).

Ghana has got 9 years of compulsory basic education, which is education mandated by constitutional and legislative law. These laws require that children within a certain age range are enrolled in school, even though the laws are not strictly enforced (Boas and Huser, 2006). Ghana has high enrollment in primary school compared to other countries in West Africa. The net primary school enrollment rate in Ghana was 60 % for boys and 57 % for girls in the period of 1997 to 2000, whereas in the same period the enrollment rate for Burkina Faso 42 % for boys and 29 % for girls. In Mali it was 51 % for boys and 36 % for girls (UNICEF, 2004).

The net enrollment rate is an indicator showing the number of children enrolled in primary school who belong to the age group that officially corresponds to primary schooling. However, not all children who are enrolled in school actually attend school. The net primary school attendance in Ghana for the period 1992 to 2002 was 74 % for both boys and girls (UNICEF, 2004). Whereas the net enrollment rate are approximately the same period in Ghana and Cote d'Ivoire, the school attendance rates are 74 % in Ghana, for Cote d'Ivoire it is 62 % for boys and 52 % for girls.

In 1995 education was made free through the implementation of the FCUBE. Although primary and junior High School are formally not entitled to

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charge school fees from parents, most schools have designed fees attached to meals and other activities in order to supplement their tight budgets (UNICEF, 2004). This adds to the costs of books and uniforms, and can make it difficult for some parents to keep their children in school.

Over the past two decades the government has strived to improve the educational system by increasing the number of teachers and the physical infrastructure of schools. Policies towards gender equality have been promoted and the gap between boys and girls have been narrowed considerably compared to 1984 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003). However, there is still a high level of illiteracy in Ghana. The child labor survey has estimated that 46.7 % of the adult population is illiterates (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003), whereas UNICEF reported that 20 % off men and 37 % of women are illiterates (UNICEF, 2004).

History of Cocoa Production in Ghana

The Basel Missionaries, who worked under the aegis of the Danish government, first introduced cocoa to Ghana in 1857 when they planted seeds that they had received from Surinam on their land in Akropong (Sundiata, 1974). However, the seedlings died the following year so they tried again, this time with seeds bought from Cape Palmas. By 1861, the plantings had turned into ten (10) little cocoa trees; yet by 1863, only one survived- beetles or worms had destroyed the tree. The missionaries distributed pods from the one remaining tree in Akropong to other Basel Mission stations at Aburi, Akwapim Mampong and Krobo Odumase where some of the plants survived (Sundiata, 1974).

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In 1879 Tetteh Quarshie planted the seeds at Akwapim Mampong with some success. Friends and relatives also undertook the planting of cocoa when pods were distributed to them. Soon other farmers followed suit. It was only at this point that the Basel Missionaries stepped into the picture by importing large quantities of the crop into the country. From the Gold Coast (Ghana) cocoa beans or cuttings were sent to other countries such as Nigeria and Sierra Leone. The export of cocoa from Ghana began in 1891, and the official export in 1893 Two (2) bags exported. Ghana once provided almost half of world output. Between 1910 and 1980 Ghana was the world's largest exporter. This position was ceded due to bush fires. However, Ghana's cocoa is still of the highest quality and the country earns hundreds of millions of dollars annually from the export of the beans and processed materials (Sampson, 1969).

Ghana is the world's second largest producer of cocoa, responsible for producing around 20 per cent of the world's bulk cocoa in 2005-2006 (ICCO, 2006). Cocoa is Ghana's dominant cash crop and single most important export product. Cocoa production in Ghana is the major economic activity for over 700,000 households, with around 6.3 million Ghanaians (representing around 30% of the total population) depending on cocoa for their living.

In 2006, exports of cocoa butter, powder, beans, paste, and waste totaled US 1,241 million, equivalent to more than 33% of Ghana's merchandise exports (WTO, 2008). Cocoa production and marketing accounted for 32.2 percent of export earnings (ISSER, 2007) and 8.5% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2006, up from 4.9% in 1998 with the European Community being the main export destination for cocoa produced in Ghana (IMF, 2007).

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Cocoa production trends

Though the first export of cocoa from the Gold Coast was said to have been made in 1885, the first documented shipment of two bags, which was sent to Hamburg, was in January 1893. Production grew rapidly to reach 20,000 tons by 1908. At a production level of 41,000 tons in 1911, Ghana was rated the world's leading producer. In the early 1920s, Ghana was contributing about 40 percent of the total global cocoa supply with production of 165,000 tons to 213,000 tons. The volume of exports grew rapidly to 218,000 tons in 1925, reaching a level of 311,000 tons in 1936 after which it dropped to between 200,000 tons and 300,000 tons in the 1940s due to severe drought and outbreak of diseases and pests (Amoah, 1995).

Prominent among the diseases was the Cocoa Swollen Shoot Virus, which was discovered and found to be prevalent in the Eastern Region from where the bulk of the cocoa was being cultivated. Action was initiated through a series of reforms in a form of rehabilitation and replanting of farms, mass spraying against diseases and pests, and increase in the producer price to arrest the declining trend in production. However, due to difficulties encountered in re-planting the farms in the Eastern Region as a result of problems of environmental degradation, coupled with the loss of soil fertility, the centre of production shifted to the Ashanti and Brong Ahafo regions in the 1940s where fresh forest lands had been planted to cocoa (Amoah, 1995).

Due to the rapid expansion in cultivation and the measures instituted to revamp the farms, especially the mass spraying scheme against capsids, national production rose again between the 1960s and 1970s, reaching a record peak of 580,000 tons in the 1964/65 season, which gave Ghana a 33 percent

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share of global supply. Cocoa production slumped back again in the 1970s and 1980s to the 1930s production levels of 200,000 tons per annum due to unattractive producer price and destruction of farms through bush fires. Thus, production levels came as low as 159,000 tons during the 1982/83 production season (Curtis, 1987). Among the factors identified as being the causes of the decline in yield were the old age of farmers and the trees, illiteracy status of the farmers, which delayed the degree of technology adoption with regard to diseases and pests control. Other factors included inadequacy of good planting materials for rehabilitation, lack of credit facilities for farmers, and consistent absence of remunerative prices (Bronwyn, 1987). La Anyane (1985) reported that the average age of the cocoa farming community was between 60 and 65 years, and this affected productivity as the ability to undertake cultural practices was hampered, especially when there were no farm hands.

The Masdar Consultancy (1997) reported that the elderly farmers were less able to perform heavy tasks such as spraying and weeding, thus exposing the farms to diseases and pests attack. The unavailability of good planting materials in sufficient quantities at the time also made rehabilitation of the old farms impossible as the old planting materials were found to be susceptible to most pests and diseases. The unavailability of credit facilities to the cocoa farmer inhibited his ability to procure inputs and hire enough labour to maintain the farms, thus, leading to a continuous decline in productivity of the farms at the time.

Finally, the absence of remunerative producer prices for cocoa caused a shift in the attention of most of the farmers from cocoa to other crops, which had better returns and so led to the neglect of most of the farms. These factors,

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among others, led to the declining production trends in cocoa output witnessed in the late 1960s to the middle 1980s. Output again started picking up around the late 1980s after most of the problems had been addressed. A regular upward revision of the producer price attracted more of the youth into the cocoa sector, while provision of sufficient good planting materials and technology packages by the Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana enhanced the rehabilitation of most of the farms. Output rose to 295,000 tons in 1985, which formed 12.3 percent of the world's total production (COCOBOD, 1999). Ghana was ranked third largest producer at that time. The centre of production again shifted in the mid-1980s to the Western region, where there had been intensive cultivation of forest lands by migrant farmers mainly from the Eastern, Ashanti and Brong Ahafo regions. The bulk of Ghana's cocoa is now produced in the Western region, which commands about 55 percent of the national production. Production has generally been picking up gradually since 1988/89 when output stood at 300,047 tons (COCOBOD, 1999). In the past 3 years, average production hovers around 800,000 metric tons according to statistics from COCOBOD.

Cocoa policy interventions

Policies and interventions to boost cocoa production have always been in the areas of diseases and pests control, farm rehabilitation, producer price management, produce payment processes, soil fertility management, planting materials, and research and extension services. By 1930, after Ghana had been the leading producer of cocoa for about 20 years, cocoa production in the Eastern Region was plagued with pests and diseases, which caused production

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to fast decline. The situation called for policy interventions that could control the problems and arrest the declining production trends (COCOBOD, 1999).

A strange disease, cocoa swollen shoot virus, which was detected and reported by a farmer, Opanin Yaw Sarbeng, from Nankese in the Eastern region in 1936, formed the basis for the first disease control policy in cocoa production. The disease was later learnt to have been there since 1920 and had even spread over the area. The Agricultural Adviser to the British Minister of State for the Colonies, Sir Frank Stockdale, who studied the problem, recommended in 1935, the setting up of a Research Station at Tafo. The station was mandated to investigate the disease and pest problems of cocoa in the country in order to recommend the best control measures so as to maintain production levels. Based on the recommendations of the Research Station, the policy of cutting out diseased cocoa trees was enacted (Amoah, 1995).

This policy intervention mandated the Agricultural Workers to cut out all affected trees since the causal agent was identified to be a virus. Currently, the Cocoa Swollen Shoot Virus Disease Control Unit, a division of COCOBOD, has been entrusted with the mandate to cut out all identified diseased trees and their contacts after which treatment/ex-gratia grant is paid to the farmer. Hybrid seed planting materials are then supplied to the farmer for replanting of the treated area, which then paves the way for the payment of first and second replanting grants.

In recent years, the cocoa black pod disease has also come to add to the disease problems and poses a big threat to cocoa production in Ghana. The incidence was reported to be very high in the Ashanti and Brong Ahafo regions in the early 1980s. Crop losses were estimated to be between 50

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percent and 100 percent. The Research Station at Tafo, now Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana (CRIG), identified the causal agent to be Phytophthora megakarya and recommended the use of fungicides in spraying the cocoa farms as a means of control (COCOBOD, 1999). Due to the intensity of the disease, a programme of mass spraying dubbed "Ye Wafuo Yie" (maintain your farm properly) was introduced by COCOBOD in 1986 to encourage the effective and efficient application of recommended farm practices alongside fungicidal spraying to achieve improved yields.

In order to sustain the interest of farmers and as a sequel to this initial programme, the "si anonom kwan preko" (prevent the incidence of black pod disease) was again put in place and made competitive in 1988. Disease and pest problems continue to plague the cocoa industry and to efficiently manage these problems, the Government through the Ghana Cocoa Board, has since the 2001/02 cocoa season, been organizing a nation-wide cocoa diseases and pests control programme (mass spraying) free of charge for the farmers. This programme has had positive impact on national cocoa production, resulting in production in excess of 700,000 metric tons during the 2003/04 and 2005/06 cocoa seasons (IITA, 2006).

Control of capsids was also started in 1944 using 1 percent aqueous DDT suspension, which had been screened and recommended by the Research Station. A large scale capsids control programme (dubbed mass spraying) was organized in 1956, using Gammalin 20 (lindane) when the effects of capsids damage on the cocoa farms became very devastating. This programme resulted in high increases in cocoa yields and Ghana's peak production of 580,000 tons in 1964/65 was attributed largely to the 'saturation spraying'

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campaign in the early 1960s. The current policy intervention in a form of "mass spraying programme" is seen as a replication of the spraying policy of the 1960s. Apart from swollen shoot and capsids control programmes, Government instituted other interventions in the form of bilateral aid projects aimed at sustaining cocoa production.

These were dubbed "Cocoa Rehabilitation projects I, II and III". The first two projects, which covered the Suhum area in the Eastern Region (Suhum Cocoa Project) and parts of the Ashanti Region (Ashanti Cocoa Project), were carried out from 1970 to 1979. The main aim of the projects was to replant and rehabilitate all dead and abandoned cocoa farms in the two regions for the farmers, the cost of which were to be defrayed from proceeds from the farms when the farmers started harvesting. The areas that were rehabilitated under the projects are now the heaviest production centres in the regions, especially in the Eastern Region.

After a series of studies by the Cocoa Research Institute of Ghana, it was realised that the low land productivity being experienced in the cocoa farms were as a result of soil mining from continuous harvesting of pods. To turn around the declining trends in land productivity, therefore, the fertilizer application programme, dubbed "Cocoa Hi-tech" was introduced in the 2002/03 crop year after a series of on farm trials. This programme encourages cocoa farmers to apply fertilizers to a minimum of two bags per acre of their cocoa farms for a start, to help improve the performance of the farm.

The fertilizers under this programme were supplied on credit to the beneficiary cocoa farmers in the initial stages. Payments were to be made during the ensuing harvesting season by installments. Unfortunately, this

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policy intervention though has enjoyed maximum participation from the farmers, is bedeviled with high indebtedness from the beneficiary farmers. The programme has now been repackaged and only farmers in a cooperative society or an association can benefit from the credit distribution after payment of an initial deposit (IITA, 2006).

Another key intervention is the supply of planting materials to cocoa farmers, which has gone through a series of developmental stages, dating back from the first introduction of cocoa beans into Ghana. The cocoa varieties supplied to farmers as planting materials started from the old type brought in by Tetteh Quarshie, which is Amelonado. This was supplemented with the Amazonian type of cocoa from Trinidad. Through scientific research, a new variety, hybrid, was developed from a cross between the Amelonado and Amazonian. Currently, the policy is to gradually phase out all the old Amelonado and Amazon varieties and replaces them with the high yielding and early bearing hybrid variety of cocoa. The hybrid has been found to be very prolific and to produce all year round if only favourable weather conditions are experienced. Thus, it has the potential to help increase national output. The third phase of the cocoa rehabilitation project of 1988 to1996 addressed the issue of low producer price with a policy to increase it annually to 65 percent of the world market price.

For a start, the producer price was raised from ¢85,000 per metric tons to ¢150,000 in 1988, which had immediate impact on production. The policy was again reviewed in 1999, and the producer price was projected to be raised gradually to reach 70 percent of fob price by the 2004/05 cocoa season (Ghana Cocoa Sector Development Strategy, 1999). Currently, farmers are paid

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¢9,150,000 per tons, which forms about 72 percent of fob after a review of the producer price based on the policy direction. The annual increases of the producer price have resulted in the retrieval and rehabilitation of abandoned farms, expansion of old farms, and the establishment of new ones. All these are contributory factors to the increasing trends of cocoa production witnessed in the country, especially in the past four years.

Payment for farmers' produce has since the establishment of the cocoa industry, been by cash at the farm gate. The need was, however, realised to encourage the cocoa farmers to cultivate the habit of savings as a means of proper financial management as well as have access to credit from the banks. There was also the need to discourage the Buying Agents from withdrawing huge sums of money from the banks for produce payment purposes. Consequently, the Akuafo Cheque payment system was introduced in 1986 for use in the payment of farmers' produce.

By this process, all cocoa buying agents were to cover all cocoa purchases with cheques only, which were drawable at the nearest banks in the cocoa growing communities. Unfortunately, this policy could not stand the test of time and so collapsed some few years after its introduction due to a number of factors. The most important of these factors have been the unavailability of banks in most of the cocoa growing communities and the delay in paying the farmers when they present the cheques at the banks.

Child labour in Ghana

About 31 percent of Ghana's population of 20.3 million is made up children aged 5-17 years. The Ghana Child Labour Survey (GCLS) shows that 2.47 million children aged 5–7 years (that is, about 39 percent of the estimated

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6.36 million children in the age group) were engaged in economic activities. Half of rural children and one-fifth of urban children were economically active. Eighty-eight percent of the working children were unpaid family workers and apprentices, while 5.9 percent were self-employed. As many as 1.59 million children were working while attending school. Nearly 20 percent of children (about 1.27 million) were engaged in activities classified as child labour. The phenomenon is prevalent in all regions of the country (GSS, 2003; MMYE, 2008).

There is also a broad consensus that some Worst Forms of Child Labour are prevalent. These include head porters (Kayayee), child domestic labour, the "Trokosi" system (ritual servitude), commercial sexual exploitation of children, quarrying and "galamsey" (illegal small scale mining), fishing and cash-crop agriculture. Significant numbers of child labourers are also found in transportation, "chop bars" (traditional restaurants) and, especially, petty trading, with street children becoming an increasingly visible phenomenon. (MMYE, 2006).

The socio-cultural context of child work and child labour in Ghana

The socio-cultural milieu within which child work or child labour is examined is important to help the correct interpretation of the various activities of the child that are categorized, and the circumstances of the child involved in such activities. In the case of Ghana, a key area of interest in looking at the circumstances of the child is the influence of the extended family system. It is very normal for a child not to live with the parents but with the aunts or uncles, or even grand-pa or grand-ma. In some cases, parents

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living in the same town or village with some relatives may choose to send the child to live with the relative instead. In most communities, the upbringing of the child is not just the responsibility of the parents but the entire community.

Thus, except in the case of hazardous work or the unconditional worst forms of child labour, the activities children are involved in such as house chores and light work on the farm are considered normal and indeed healthy to the proper upbringing of the child. Traditionally, working on family farms and with family enterprises is seen as part of the process by which children are trained towards adulthood.

Child labour in cocoa production

The issue of child labour is an age-long global problem. Its main causes can be assigned to poverty and socio-cultural practices in some countries. Child labour was being considered in general terms, till recent publications and discussions in the western media that thousands of children were being forced to work on cocoa farms in West Africa. This concern has led to threats by consumers of chocolate products in America and Europe to boycott chocolate products if the practice is not stopped. There have been consistent efforts to find interventions to combat and eliminate the use of worst forms of child labour and forced adult labour in cocoa farming since 2001.

In addition, a few studies have been conducted on the problem of child labour in the cocoa sub-sector. The 2003 GCLS does not provide detailed information allowing for an estimation of the number of children in the cocoa sub-sector. The survey, however, indicates that an estimated 1,128,072 children are engaged in agriculture, forestry and fishing. These represent 57

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percent of the working children. The report also states that 88 percent of the total working children were unpaid family workers and apprentices. Due to its predominantly peasant nature, with much of the production taking place in an environment of subsistence agriculture, cocoa production in Ghana tends to be labour intensive. The main sources of labour for cocoa farming activities are caretakers or sharecroppers, hired labour, and family labour. Children's involvement in the production of cocoa is an age-old tradition which, besides the immediate labour value, constitutes a traditional way of imparting cocoa farming skills to them and equipping them to take over from ageing parents and relatives (MMYE, 2007). There is no agreement yet among the stakeholders as to what constitutes hazardous work in the cocoa sector.

Agriculture Programme (WACAP) to Combat Hazardous and Exploitative Child Labour, the Ghana Health Service has conducted a study into occupational safety and health in the cocoa sub-sector, and identified specific hazards for discussion among stakeholders. There is a lack of empirical information about the prevalence of the unconditional WFCL, such as trafficking, debt bondage and other forms of forced labour, in the cocoa sub-sector.

Cocoa production and the organization of labour

According to Boas and Huser (2006), cocoa farms in Ghana are usually small and family-run. The average size of farm is five hectares. Currently, the Western Region along the border to Cote d'Ivoire produces the largest volume of cocoa per year. The Ashanti region is second and Brong Ahafo is third. In the Western and Brong Ahafo regions, farms tend to be bigger than other parts

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of the country, while in the Central Region many farms are between one and two hectares.

The main harvest, according to ICI (2004), starts in August and may last up to December. In a good year the cocoa farmer also harvest in May. On large farms where the trees are well maintained, it is possible to harvest some pods throughout the year. During harvest, the cocoa pods are cut off the trees with an implement tied to a long stick. This work is difficult and physically demanding. It is important to cut at the exact right spot in order to avoid harming the tree. The pods are gathered in small piles and carried to open space where workers are ready to split the pods a specially designed knife and take out the soft beans. The beans are then covered with plantain/banana leaves and let to ferment for 6 days. Cutting off the pods and splitting them should be done immediately since the fermenting process of the beans starts immediately. On large farms this work requires a large number of workers.

ICI (2004), indicated that fermentation brings out the cocoa taste and flavour, and if the beans are not left to ferment properly, the beans might be slatty and bitter. During drying, the beans must be cleared of any unwanted substances and constantly turned to dry evenly. In case of rain, the beans must be covered up. After drying, the beans are ready for sale. They packed in bags of 64 Kilograms and transported to a selling point nearby.

Labour requirement and sources in cocoa production in Ghana

Cocoa production, particularly under the smallholder system as occurs in Ghana, is highly labour intensive. It begins with land preparation for establishing the cocoa farm, involving tree felling, slashing of the vegetative cover, burning of the bush and clearing of the debris. Men largely undertake

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land preparation. Cocoa beans may be sowed directly or planted as seedlings, which may be purchased or nursed by the farmer. The young cocoa plants are interspersed with food crops to provide shade for the plants and food for the farmer during the formative years of the farm. Before the cocoa trees form a canopy, weeding is carried out about three times in a year. The farm is sprayed with insecticide about four times in a year to control capsids which can attack the cocoa trees (Amoah, 1995).

Harvesting of cocoa beans is carried out from time to time and the beans prepared for sale. Farmers use a combination of family, hired and communal (Nnoboa) labour in cocoa production. In general, the farmer's household is the main source of labour for the cocoa farm, contributing almost 60 percent of the total labour requirement. The children of the farm household provide about 14 percent of the labour on the farm (Amoah, 1995).

Sources of Cocoa Farm Labour

All the cocoa production processes require the services of matured and adult labourers for their execution. Although the farm owners contribute their own labour, hired labourers are often used to provide some of these services. The hired labourers may either be caretakers, daily wage earners or contract workers. The labour required for any particular activity by any farmer depends on some important factors. For instance, the land to be cleared for cocoa farm establishment may either be a virgin forest, which will be more involving and so demand more man-days compared to a secondary forest.

Also, secondary forests may contain few or no big trees to be felled and in effect require even less man-days. Also, the number of labourers required to harvest, gather and heap as well as break pods from a hectare of

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cocoa farm is largely dependent on the performance of the farm. If yield is high, the labour requirement is correspondingly high, and vice-versa.

Table 1: *Sources of Cocoa Farm Labour*

Category	Percent contribution
Farmer	30.00
Spouse(s)	15.20
Hired Labour	27.60
Communal labour (Nnoboa)	6.50
Children	14.00
Others	6.70
Total	100.00

Source: WACAP (2003).

Cocoa Production Methods and Farm Labour

Cocoa, used in chocolate products is obtained from the processed beans of fruit pods produced by the tropical evergreen cocoa tree (Theobroma cacao), a plant of new world origins. According to Salaam-Blyther *et al.* (2005), there are three main varieties of cacao tree; Criollo, Trinitario and Forastero; the latter predominates in West Africa. Each pod contains 20 to 40 large, fat-rich seeds. Cocoa trees are grown in rainy, tropical equatorial zones within twenty degrees of the Equator, primarily in West Africa, South East Asia and South and Central America.

Amoah (1995), indicated that after harvest, cocoa beans are fermented, which kills the bean and helps develop the distinct taste of cocoa; dried and roasted. They are then typically used to produce semi-processed cocoa paste (also known as cocoa liquor or mass), further refined products such as cocoa butter and cocoa cake (paste with most cocoa butter removed), cocoa powder

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and chocolate. Prior to processing, the farm-based work of cultivating and harvesting cocoa is labour-intensive.

According to Dand (1999), in West Africa, cocoa farming typically begins with the thinning or partial clearing by hand of primary or mature tropical forest growth, which is used to shelter cocoa trees. Although varieties of cocoa tree can thrive in the sun if sufficient nutrients and water are present, shade also helps to reduce damage by certain types of tree pest and diseases, and helps retain adequate moisture. Such forest areas are also used because they provide a ready-made source of shade that does not require planting of cover plants, and because forest areas are rich in nutrients resulting from the decomposition of organic forest detritus.

Amoah (1995), continued that the tropical soils in many areas of West Africa where cocoa is grown are thin and easily leached of their nutrients. Matured forest is also cleared because of widespread local traditional agricultural techniques is to open new or long-disused land to farming, use it until the soil is exhausted and then leave it in regenerative fallow for lengthy periods, sometimes many years. Such practices are changing in many areas; the application of chemical fertilizers and alternatively, the use of organic growing methods are becoming more common, increasingly allowing more intensive farming to take place. Traditional land use methods, however, remain widespread, and in many areas cocoa farming continues to be undertaken by clearing matured forest areas.

Laird et al, (1996), asserted that planting of seedlings, which are usually transplanted after propagation and take three to five years to reach full productive fertility, and also takes place by hand, as does by weeding, which is

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especially intensive in the year or so after forest are cleared for planting and the application of fertilizers and pesticides. Harvesting, which is usually on-going during months of the year, is also labour intensive. Cocoa pods must be cut carefully from the cacao tree branches, known as broom, so as not to damage the flower 'cushions' from which the fruits grow. Pods are then usually split and emptied by hand to remove the seeds and pulp for purpose of fermentation and drying, which are typically undertaken at the farm level. It is in the harvesting process that child labour has been reportedly most commonly found.

Children in cocoa production

According to Mull and Kirkhom (2005), people around the world share a love of chocolate, one of the most delicious and pleasurable foods on earth. Thousands of children in West Africa are forced to labour in the production of cocoa, chocolate's primary ingredient. The West African nation of Cote d'Ivoire (Ivory Coast) is the leading supplier of cocoa, accounting for more than 40% of global production (WACAP, 2004). Low cocoa prices and thus the need for lower labour costs drive farmers to employ children as a means to survive. The US Department of State estimates that more than 109,000 children in Cote d'Ivoire's cocoa industry work under "the worst forms of child labour," and that some 10,000 are victims of human trafficking or enslavement (Mull and Kirkhom, 2005).

According to the United States Department of Labour 2008, these child workers labour for long, punishing hours, using dangerous tools and facing frequent exposure to dangerous pesticides as they travel great distances in the grueling heat. Those who labour as slaves must also suffer frequent beatings

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and other cruel treatment. Cote d'Ivoire's child labourers are robbed not only of their freedom but of the right to a basic education. In a country where more than half the population is illiterate, basic education of "cocoa children" takes on an even more critical significance for Cote d'Ivoire's future. Increased access to education must be a key component in any effective strategy to reduce poverty and exploitative child labour.

According to the United States Department of Labour (2008), in 2001, in an attempt to avoid government regulation and intense media scrutiny, major cocoa companies made a voluntary commitment (the Cocoa Industry Protocol) to certify their cocoa "child labour-free" by July 2005, but that deadline passed with little fanfare. The deadline was then extended to certify 50% of farms "child-labour free" by July 2008. The cocoa companies trumpeted a few pilot programs, but continue to purchase and reap profits from child labour cocoa. The major cocoa importers need to use their vast influence on the cocoa market to bring about the kind of systemic changes necessary to eliminate child slavery once and for all. The International Labour Rights Forum is committed to combating the scourge of forced child labor in the cocoa industry through public education and corporate campaigns.

Work in cocoa harvesting has been identified as a hazardous occupation affecting children 17 years of age or younger. Various Non-Governmental Agencies and Organizations have targeted chocolate and cocoa producers and have highlighted concerns regarding hazardous practices. In response to these issues, a major review of the cocoa production practice in West Africa was undertaken by the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) in 2001. IITA identified various hazardous practices

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through a randomized interview methodology focusing upon employer responses. The current article reviews the hazards identified by lead author Diane Mull during the 2003 non-peak harvest season (i.e., August to September). This report differs from the IITA report in that hazard assessment is based upon direct observation of work practices as well as interviews of adult and youth workers.

This hazard review was conducted with funding by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The purpose of the activity was to undertake a brief observational study to map tasks and work-related activities performed by children and young people who grow and harvest cocoa and identify injuries and symptoms resulting from performing these activities. This information was used for setting project indicators related to the reduction of child labour in the cocoa sector and for the design of a vocational literacy life skills curriculum and radio social messaging campaign on child labour in cocoa production.

Agriculture is the mainstay of the rural economy in Ghana, employing 69% of the rural labour force. A Child Labour Survey carried out by the Ghana Statistical Service in 2003 highlights the importance of agricultural work and the differences between urban and rural child labour. That survey serves as the source for the following information. The largest proportion (62.5%) of working children of both sexes aged 5–17 is engaged in agricultural work to some degree. However, a greater proportion of rural children (73.6%) work in agriculture compared with urban children (21.5%). Overall, an estimated 21.7% of children of Ghana are engaged in economic activity, with a higher percentage in rural areas (39.7%) compared with urban

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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.

According to the survey conducted in 2003 by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2003), 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. The proportion of child labor is greater than 30% in the western region where the present project was undertaken, and that percentage per region ranks as the highest category in Ghana. Other significant economic indicators of Ghana are (1) 40.6% of the rural population is age 5–19, with approximately 80% of those from age 5–14; (2) 47% of the western region is functionally illiterate compared with 51% nationally; (3) 63% of children in the western region are engaged in economic activity, higher than the national average of 57.5%; and (4) 84% of the children attend school, with more than 70% of the children attending school or training while working. Nearly 32% of rural children in Ghana or western Ghana are reported to have experienced a work-related injury or illness. In contrast, an estimated 33,000 individuals younger than 20 years of age in the United States (2% of the population in the same age ranges) were injured on farms.

Cocoa is the major cash crop and source of foreign exchange in Ghana. There are two primary harvest seasons: a small non-peak season from late July to early September and a peak season from November through January. Labour requirements on cocoa farms are seasonal and intensive at the time of

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land clearing and harvesting. Sharecropping is common and engaged in by community and migrant families. Land is communally owned and leased, sold, or, most commonly, lent out under an abusa or abunu system—a formal land sharecropping strategy involving varied economic conditions and responsibilities. The Ghana component of the IITA survey conducted in 2002 reported the family unit as the primary unit of labour supply, but there was a trend to hire day labourers, although no children younger than age 18 were reported as permanent workers (IITA, 2002). The same survey reported that cocoa pod production was the most commonly reported practice for children and that less than 1% of the farms indicated employment of family children for applying pesticides. According to the 2002 IITA report, children and young people are major contributors to the cocoa production work force, the majority of which are younger than age 14, and numerous children are involved in hazardous activities (IITA, 2002).

In general, Ghana has progressive child labour laws and has ratified all the major conventions related to labour and child rights. Under the 1998 Children's Act, children younger than 15 years of age are not authorized to be employed but can do light work if they are 13 years of age and older. The act stipulates the age of 18 years as the minimum age for engagement in hazardous work. However, enforcement mechanisms are weak or non-existent, and communities are largely unaware of the requirements of the laws, especially in rural areas' (Amoo, 2007).

Cocoa production is under threat from insect and fungal infestations and decreasing fertility of the land. After Ghana attained 1 million metric tons in the 2010/2011 crop season, there has been an increase in the more

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destructive variant of black pod disease and significant loss resulting from capsids that have affected at least 25% of the producers. Due to economic factors, producers in Ghana apply pesticides at less than the recommended intervals. It is suspected that declining conditions in the rural economy, including deteriorating soil fertility, smaller land holdings, population growth, fluctuating commodity prices, and high rates of post-harvest losses have exacerbated the problem of children's early involvement in rural activity and the increased reliance on agricultural (Namise, et al, 2012).

Rural Work Environment

Amoo (2007), explained that cocoa farming like all agricultural work is carried out in the countryside. Working children are not only subject to safety and health hazards inherent in the specific work processes involved, but also to those in rural environment. Child labour in rural setting is directly conditioned by the variety and characteristics of local climate and geography. This is all the more so for children who live where they work, where there is no clear cut distinction between working and living conditions.

Amoo (2007), further indicated that the rural environment is one of the harsh environments to work in more so for children. Large numbers of people live below the poverty line. Socio-economic, cultural and environmental factors that influence the working and living conditions of agricultural workers include:

- Poor housing condition
- Inadequate nutrition and are exposed to both general and occupational diseases

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- Primitive remote areas where roads are usually non existing
- Depend on general public health services in the areas where provision of healthcare are inadequate
- Lack of education and information on health hazards
- Complex and interwoven of problems.

Reason for Difficulty in Cocoa Sector

WACAP (2004), intimated that over 60 % of children describe work as difficult citing several reasons. The reason implies that the hazards are not only limited to the work or environment, but the conditions and circumstances under which they work. Issues like long hours, long distances, hunger, missing important classes, frequent illness and no time to play can make virtually any work hazardous by the ILO definition.

Agricultural Sector and hazardous Work

The strategic importance of agriculture in the overall economic development of Ghana stems from the fact that agriculture is a source of food, a major foreign exchange earner and most importantly it is a significant source of employment, particularly in the rural areas, for millions of men, women and children. MMYE (2008), it is also a hazardous sector, in fact, the third most hazardous sector after mining and construction, responsible for millions of injuries, diseases and fatalities annually.

It is also the sector responsible for most child labour use in the world, nearly 70 % of all child labourers' work in agriculture (IPEC, 2006). The cocoa sector is no exception sparking off international media, consumer groups and the general public outcry on the use of children's time and energy

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in the cocoa sector, particularly in activities that may be injurious to their health, education and development.

Hazardous Features of Agriculture

Amoo (2007), argued that many agricultural jobs involve multiple tasks and multiple locations, both on a daily and seasonal basis. Some of the specific features of agricultural work which may be mentioned are:

- The fact that most of the task are carried out in the open air, exposing the workers to climatic conditions
- The seasonal nature of the work and the urgency of certain task in specific periods
- The variety of task to be performed by the same person
- The type of working postures and the length of the tasks performed
- The contacts with animals and plants, thus exposing workers to bites, poisoning, parasitic diseases, allergies, toxicity and other health problems
- The use of chemical and biological products

Sources of Hazards in Cocoa Farming

Amoo (2007), outlined sources of occupational hazards in cocoa farming as illustrated in Table 2. Health harm to a working child could originate from harmful substances such as pesticides and from engaging in dangerous processes or using dangerous equipment. Conditions of work that create physical or psychological strain are common. The farming work environment is particularly harsh, especially to children who rarely use any

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protective equipment. A combination of these source of which the child is exposed makes farming one of the hazardous occupation.

Table 2: *Sources of Hazards in Cocoa Farming*

Harmful Substance	Dangerous equipment & processes
- Mix, load and apply toxic pesticides	- Dangerous cutting tools
- Exposed to organic dust	- Power-driven machinery
- Allergens and toxic plants	- Harvesting
	- Climbing of trees and maneuvering
	Noise
Conditions that create physical strain	**Conditions that create psychological strain**
- Lifting and carrying heavy loads	- Hours of work tend to be extremely
- Awkward positions, bending over, twisting	long during planting and harvesting
- Repetitive forceful movements as in cutting, holing, etc	- Missing important lessons in school
- Physical demanding and strenuous tasks	- Threat of beating or verbal abuse
	No time to play
	- Poverty and hunger
Conditions of work are harsh and poor	**Personal protection is inadequate**
- Exposure to weather elements, extreme temperatures i.e. heat of hot days and cold during rainstorm	- No personal protective clothing, footwear or equipment
- Bush burning smoke inhalation and burns	- Lack of drinking water and water for washing
- Reptiles, thorns and tree stumps	- Little or inadequate or erroneous information on possible work hazards
- Animals and insects stings	- The nearest hospital or healthcare centre is far

Source: Amoo (2007)

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Health Problems of Working Children

WACAP (2004), in their occupational health research identified the following categories of health problems through survey, clinical and laboratory examination from working children as illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: *Health Problems of Working*

Injuries	**Diseases**
- Prick	- Malaria
- Cuts and lacerations	- Typhoid fever
- Scars and scalp	- Diarrhea
- Neck pain, backbone pains, spinal deformities	- Skin rashes, foot rot
	- Anemia
- Eye injuries	- Respiratory problems
- Children caught by traps set for game	- Buruli ulcer
- Exhaustion	- Poor health and physical development, stunting
	- Physical disabilities and impairment
Social effects	**Psychological effects**
- Violence	- Low intelligent quotient of children
- Sexual abuse	- Less emphasis on education
- Sexually transmitted diseases	- Poor performance at examination and high school dropout rate
- Indulgence in drugs	
- Drug addiction	- Low future employment opportunities
- Social misfit and deviant behaviour	- Low income earning ability and poor living standards
	- Poor outlook to life

Source: WACAP (2004)

These problems are not unique to cocoa farming, but represent health problems of rural children working on farms. It illustrates that hazards of which these children are exposed to could have far reaching health implications, hence the need for urgent intervention to eliminate hazardous work.

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Work-associated ergonomic exposures and injuries in cocoa production

A survey conducted by Mull and Kirkhom in 2005 on manual labour and material handling, the use of sharp tools, application of pesticides, and lack of personal protective equipment and clothing characterized cocoa production in western Ghana. Children of all ages participated in cocoa production, but usually adolescents aged 14 years and older who are migrant workers or members of sharecropper families did the most intensive work. Although there was a general pattern of delineation of work tasks based upon age and gender, children younger than age 17 were found performing tasks regardless of the degree of hazard associated with the job.

Key tasks identified included clearing virgin forest, planting cocoa seeds or seedlings, weeding and thinning, pruning, pesticide application, harvesting and carrying pods, opening pods with a cutlass (machete), extracting beans from pods, sorting and drying cocoa beans, and carrying beans in various stages for processing and storage.

Hazardous tools included long and short cutlasses; 'sosa' (long bamboo poles with attached cutting knives), chain saws, and pesticide backpack spray devices. The most hazardous activities that children and young people engaged in were the following: clearing virgin forests and weeds using chainsaws; pruning trees while climbing heights greater than nine feet; mixing, loading, and applying pesticides; harvesting pods using short and long cutlasses; opening pods using short cutlasses; and transporting heavy baskets and/or bags of pods and beans for long distances. Non-hazardous activities, although associated with repetition and force, included gathering individual

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pods from the ground, extracting beans by hand from open pods, and spreading and sorting beans on the drying mats.

Common ergonomic problems included frequent bending, twisting, and lifting heavy objects. Additional hazards included climbing trees and maneuvering among branches, cutting overhead pods with sharp blades, and carrying heavy loads. A full bag of dried cocoa beans may weigh 60–65 kg. Cuts, deep lacerations, and severed fingers may occur when clearing land, cutting grass and weeds, and cutting open cocoa pods to extract the beans. Other hazards included slips and falls when climbing or carrying heavy loads on uneven ground obscured by thick ground cover.

Pesticide exposures

Mull and Kirkhom (2005), indicated that due to the extent of crop infestation, pesticides were widely used and encouraged. Most community members were unaware of the hazards associated with pesticides and took little or no precautions with respect to mixing, loading, application, storage, or disposal of the agricultural chemicals. Training for workers and community members on pesticide safety was weak or nonexistent.

During cocoa production, children came into direct contact with pesticides when they served as applicators and/or acted as assistants or helpers. Pesticide containers were commonly carried on top of the head. Adolescents as young as 14 years of age worked as pesticide applicators, and children as young as 10 years assisted applicators during the mixing, loading, and application processes, resulting in pesticide exposure. Children were observed carrying backpack sprayers containing liquid pesticides supported on

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their heads without personal protective equipment to prevent exposure from spilling and leaking. More than 95% of children in rural areas did not use protective equipment.

Boys usually worked in short pants, short sleeve or sleeveless tee shirts, and flip-flops. Their female counterparts wore skirts or dresses, short-sleeve or sleeveless tee shirts, and flip-flops. Protective clothing reported as being worn largely by adults included spraying coats (usually cotton without chemical resistance properties), soft cotton masks, and rubber sandals. Adult and older-youth male workers shared mid-calf rubber boots. Pesticide exposure was found to be significant and occurring in the presence of inadequate personal protective equipment and clothing, which is critical but rarely, if ever, available. We also noted that Restricted Entry Intervals (REIs) were not observed.

Mull and Kirkhom (2005), indicated that pesticides identified and reported were fungicides and insecticides including Ridomil (metalaxyl + cuprous oxide), Champion, Cocostar (*pirimiphosmethyl*), Nordox Super 75 (*cuprous oxide or copper oxide*), Unden 20 (*propoxur*), and Thionex (*lindane*). The active ingredients of primary concern contained in most pesticides identified in the production of cocoa include the following: inorganic copper compound fungicides; *pirimiphosmethyl,* an organophosphate insecticide; *propoxure* and carbamate insecticide; and lindane, an organochlorine insecticide. Due to varying trade names that often change and multiple formulations for variations on the same trade name, identifying the specific compounds and active ingredients is difficult unless the actual labels can be obtained.

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Reported physical symptoms and injuries

Amoo (2007), described symptoms most commonly reported following physical work activities were pain in the neck, back, shoulders, and arms. The types of injuries reported were strains and sprains of the back and upper and lower extremities. These are symptoms consistent with work-related musculoskeletal disorders that are distinguished from acute musculoskeletal injuries.

Amoo (2007), asserted that major injuries included lacerations to the head, fractures of the wrists and arms, and dislocated shoulders. Separating beans was associated with pain in the hands and wrists, while hand and finger cuts and severed fingers occurred while cutting open the tough pods with a cutlass. Eye injuries were commonly reported from debris falling into the eyes while harvesting. Symptoms associated with pesticide application included headaches, burning eyes and skin, dermal rashes, coughing, nausea, and dizziness. Heat-related syndromes and dehydration were associated with very strenuous activities. Children performed strenuous work activity in the same manner as adults without taking frequent breaks and fluid replacement. Fears expressed by the interviewees included snake bites and bee stings that occur while clearing fields and harvesting, pruning, climbing trees to cut pods, and removing the raw beans from pods.

Child Labour and Education

It is estimated, based on GLSS 1992 survey, that around 28 percent of children between the ages 7-14 years were involved in child labour in Ghana. This nationally amounts to around 800,000 children in child labour. However,

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over the three rounds child labour rates changed from 30.5 in 1987 to 22.4 in 1988 and 28 in 1992, which corresponds to the trend in the agricultural income between 1987-92. In 1992 out of the total number of children who were working 66 percent were also going to school and 90 percent were involved in household chores. 20 percent of boys and 17 percent of girls were observed to do both - working and going to school. The main difference was in those who did nothing; 14 percent of boys and 22 percent of girls did nothing. Male labour force participation for 7-14 year age group is 33.4 compared to 27.6 for girls, although if domestic chores were to be included the participation rates will change to 88 for girls and 75 for boys. These trends are similar to what has been observed in other developing countries where data is available (ILO, 1996).

On the other hand, school participation rates have evolved over time with 58.6 percent in 1987, 68.0 in 1988 and 72.7 in 1992. The girls' school participation increased from 53 to 68 percent, while that of boys increased from 64 to 76 percent between 1987 and 92. Urban schooling participation rates for the 7-14 year age group have increased from 68 to 83 percent while rural rates increased from 53 to 67. All this indicate the positive trend in school participation rates, despite the existence of child labor. However, these figures do not give any comfort as more than one quarter of children in the school age population are not attending school.

In terms of total Labour Force Participation (LFP), children constitute 12.1 percent of the labour force. Out of the total labor force in rural areas 14.4 percent and 4.4 percent in urban areas are child workers. However, in terms of total number of labour hours children in the 7-14 year age group contribute 5.3

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percent with those above 65 years contributing 5.5 percent. Of the total male LFP 14 percent is from those below 15 years, while the corresponding figure for females is 10 percent. All these data indicate the magnitude of child labor in Ghana. If household chores were to be included, as noted in the literature (ILO, 1996), girls will easily outnumber the boys in LFP.

A child begins to work as early as five years in rural Ghana, although the current data source only gives labor participation information for those above 7 years of age. The average age of child labour for a boy is almost twelve while for a girl it is around 11, indicating that girls start working early. Girls also work more hours than boys and this difference is more pronounced if we take hours spent on household chores. More than 5 percent of total labour hours nationally is contributed by children, signifying the importance of child labour in the national economy.

One of the claims in the literature that child labour increases with high levels of welfare is not convincingly proved in our analysis. Poverty incidence and depth in rural Savannah and rural forest is highest but child labour in rural forest is not high. Incidence and depth of poverty in rural coastal areas are lower than rural forest, yet the incidence of child labour is not lower than rural forest. From all this, it is clear that school participation is highly correlated with household welfare, indicating that households are willing to send their children to school as long as they have enough resources to do so. Child labour probably exists as long as the threat of poverty lingers in the household, pushing households who are above the poverty line also to send children to work. In poor households 7.3 percent and in non-poor households 8.6 percent of the children were working, while the corresponding figures for schooling

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were 54.2 and 56.7 percent. As we will see later from our econometric analysis household welfare is indeed weakly related to the incidence of child labour and strongly related to school participation trends.

In relation to education, the study by IITA in 2002 found that:

- In Cote d'Ivoire, one third of school age (6 to 17 years) living on cocoa farms have never attended school.
- In Cote d'Ivoire, children working in all cocoa farming tasks were less likely to be enrolled in school (34 % enrollment rate) compared to those children who did not work (64 % enrollment rate).
- In Cote d'Ivoire, children of immigrant cocoa farmers are also less likely to be enrolled in school.
- In all the four countries where the study was carried out, thus Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Cameroon, girls have lower enrollment rates than boys.

Farmers Income and Child Labour

Compensation trends were also covered by the IITA study in 2002 which found out that:

- In West Africa cocoa production is labour intensive.
- Most cocoa production is by small-scale farmers with few resources who often use the entire family to contribute to cocoa farming.
- Average annual cocoa revenues ranged from $ 30.00 to $ 205.00 per household members. However, wages varied significantly in Cote d'Ivoire, child workers reportedly received a mean annual payment of $ 80.00, while adult workers reportedly received $ 135.00 per year. In

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Nigeria, children reportedly earn $ 115.00 annually, while adult workers were paid an annual average salary of $ 205.00.

- Cocoa accounts for a large share of total household income among cocoa farmers, 50 % in Cameroon, 55 % in Ghana, 66 % in Cote d'Ivoire and 68 % in Nigeria.
- Even though cocoa farming is the main source of income, the quantity of cocoa production is relatively low, making it difficult for families to have sufficient income to meet their needs.

Theoretical Framework

Experiential learning theory

Experiential learning theory defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, 1984).

The ELT model portrays two dialectically related modes of grasping experience Concrete Experience (CE) and Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and two dialectically related modes of transforming experience Reflective Observation (RO) and Active Experimentation (AE).

In 1971 David Kolb developed the Learning Style Inventory (LSI) to assess individual learning styles. While individuals tested on the LSI show many different patterns of scores, research on the instrument has identified four statistically prevalent learning styles thus, Diverging, Assimilating, Converging, and Accommodating.

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The following summary of the four basic learning styles is based on both research and clinical observation of these patterns of LSI scores (Kolb, 1984; Kolb 1999).

The Diverging style's dominant learning abilities are Concrete Experience (CE) and Reflective Observation (RO). People with this learning style are best at viewing concrete situations from many different points of view. It is labeled "Diverging" because a person with it performs better in situations that call for generation of ideas, such as a "brainstorming" session. People with a Diverging learning style have broad cultural interests and like to gather information. Research shows that they are interested in people, tend to be imaginative and emotional, have broad cultural interests, and tend to specialize in the arts. In formal learning situations, people with the Diverging style prefer to work in groups, listening with an open mind and receiving personalized feedback.

The Assimilating style's dominant learning abilities are Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Reflective Observation (RO). People with this learning style are best at understanding a wide range of information and putting into concise, logical form. Individuals with an Assimilating style are less focused on people and more interested in ideas and abstract concepts. Generally, people with this style find it more important that a theory have logical soundness than practical value. The Assimilating learning style is important for effectiveness in information and science careers. In formal learning situations, people with this style prefer readings, lectures, exploring analytical models, and having time to think things through.

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The Converging style's dominant learning abilities are Abstract Conceptualization (AC) and Active Experimentation (AE). People with this learning style are best at finding practical uses for ideas and theories. They have the ability to solve problems and make decisions based on finding solutions to questions or problems. Individuals with a Converging learning style prefer to deal with technical tasks and problems rather than with social issues and interpersonal issues. These learning skills are important for effectiveness in specialist and technology careers. In formal learning situations, people with this style prefer to experiment with new ideas, simulations, laboratory assignments, and practical applications.

The Accommodating style's dominant learning abilities are Concrete Experience (CE) and Active Experimentation (AE). People with this learning style have the ability to learn from primarily "hand-on" experience. They enjoy carrying out plans and involving themselves in new and challenging experiences. Their tendency may be to act on "gut" feelings rather than on logical analysis. In solving problems, individuals with an Accommodating learning style rely more heavily on people for information than on their own technical analysis. This learning style is important for effectiveness in action-oriented careers such as marketing or sales. In formal learning situations, people with the Accommodating learning style prefer to work with others to get assignments done, to set goals, to do field work, and to test out different approaches to completing a project.

Maslow Theory of Need

Maslow wanted to understand what motivates people. He believed that people possess a set of motivation systems unrelated to rewards or

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unconscious desires. Maslow (1943) stated that people are motivated to achieve certain needs. When one need is fulfilled a person seeks to fulfill the next one, and so on. The earliest and most widespread version of Maslow (1943) hierarchy of needs includes five motivational needs. This five stage model can be divided into basic (or deficiency) needs (e.g. physiological, safety, love, and esteem) and growth needs (self - actualization).

According to Maslow (1943), the deficiency, or basic needs are said to motivate people when they are unmet. Also, the need to fulfill such needs will become stronger the longer the duration they are denied. One must satisfy lower level basic needs before progressing on to meet higher level growth needs. Once these needs have been reasonably satisfied, one may be able to reach the highest level called self-actualization.

According to Maslow (1943), the original hierarchy of needs five-stage model includes:

1) Biological and Physiological needs -air, food, drink, shelter, warmth, sleep.
2) Safety needs - protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.
3) Love and belongingness needs - friendship, intimacy, affection and love, - from work group, family, friends, romantic relationships.
4) Esteem needs - achievement, mastery, independence, status, dominance, prestige, self-respect, respect from others.
5) Self-Actualization needs - realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.

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Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework describes the relationships between the key concepts which lead to child labour. Consequently such parents tend to hunt for part-time employment after school hours for their children (ILO- IPEC, 2001).

Parents do not value the importance of education because of poverty. Empirical evidence suggests that most of the child labourers come from poor rural families in Ghana. The cost of a child's education is very threatened for poor households. Parents are discouraged to send their children to school when direct costs of books, uniforms, writing materials, transportation to school, need to be covered by families.

Demographic characteristics like age, gender, education level of household head and household size are important and they show correlation between the level of poverty and household composition between poor and well-off households. The research done in Ghana by Niels-Hugo and Dorte (2000) on the link between poverty and child labour shows that while several factors such as orphanage, married disintegration, child abuse and negligence of parents or guardians were important, the major conclusions emerging from the study were the positive relationship between poverty and child labour. Some research works however, indicates that children out of School have resulted in large pool of Children to be used on family farms. Apart from demographic characteristics, income or cost of engaging children which are typically used to determine whether a household is poor or not, other economic characteristics that correlate with poverty are whether the heads of households are employed.

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The reason behind is that not only children from these families are forced to work so as to contribute to household income in the context of poverty and hardships, but also many children do not go to School because they often do not have access to School. Some children also want to work on the cocoa farms so that they may inherit the farms in the Future. Children might have to sacrifice their education in order to participate in cocoa in cocoa production activities because of future inheritance (Sareer, 2005).

Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework for the study. The researcher posits the extent of child labour use in coca production (4) main factors (independent variables) namely;

a) Personal and form related characteristics
b) Perception and the use of child labour
c) Knowledge of the strategies to reduce child
d) Law enforcement

Educational background of Children and Parents

Detailed survey evidence from the cocoa growing areas of Ghana and Cote d'Ivoire provides another insight into the links between education and child labour. That evidence shows that most of the children involved in cocoa cultivation in both countries are in school. However, there are important differences between the two countries. Whereas over 90% of the children working in the cocoa sector in Ghana are in school that number drops to 60% for Cote d'Ivoire (Tulane University 2011). These static figures may also understate the problem since they do not take into account either the absenteeism associated with labour demands, or the consequences for learning of long-hours spent in work.

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The effect of education on child labour has been intensely debated. Empirical studies have shown that the level of education negatively affects the likelihood of child working Canagarah and Coulombe, (1998), Canagarah and Coulombe, (1997).

Gender

It is expected that farmers with experience will be able to better assess the hidden wealth of cocoa farming. Grootaert and Kanbur (1995) argued that child labour is perceived as a process of socialization in many African countries. Experienced farmers therefore believe that working as well as formal education enable a child to get acquainted with the necessary skills required for a better future. Some authors have emphasized that boys were more likely to be involved in the labour market while girls are more likely to do more housekeeping work (Patrinos and Psacharopoulos, 1994). A study by Canagarajah and Couloumbe (1998) in Ghana came out with gender discrimination, with boys having greater likelihood of going to school compared with girls.

Ownership of land

Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future. Kinship fostering or guardianship of orphans and non-orphans is a common practice in Africa (Case et al., 2002). However, inheritance laws favour biological son/daughter over foster children. Work experience is especially valuable for the children (especially the male children) of landowners, who can expect to inherit the farm, Bhalotra and Heady, (2001). It is expected that biological

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children to be more likely to work on the cocoa farm in preparation for inheritance.

A phenomenon discussed in the child labour literature is the impact of family ties on school enrolment (Case et al., 2002). Children who are cared for by adults other than their biological parents have been found to be disadvantaged.

Legal Enforcement

There are national legislations that contribute to promoting children's rights and protection by addressing various forms of child labour. These legislations are likely to have a positive effect on reducing child labour. Also, these legislations ensure that every Ghanaian child has access to education and health as well as providing the enabling environment and opportunity for self-development. However, some of these laws are not effectively enforced and there is no effective monitoring of abuses (SWAC and OECD, 2011).

The 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana guarantees the protection of children from any work that constitutes a threat to their health, education or development and includes the concept of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education. Section 28 of the constitution guarantees children "the right to be protected from engaging in work that constitutes a threat to (their) health, education or development". Ghana has ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child and ILO Convention 182. The provisions of these various conventions have been enshrined in national laws such as the Children's Act, 1998 (Act 560), the Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694), and the Domestic Violence Act, 2007 (Act 732).

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The government strengthened the legal protection of children by passing the Ghana Children's Act (Act 560) in 1998. This act brings together child-related laws from previous national legislations and it also includes amendments designed to meet the standards of the United Nations and that of the ILO. The Children's Act prohibits exploitative child labour, defined as labour that deprives children of health, education and development.

The Children's Act, 1998, (Act 560) provides for the rights of the child, including quasi-judicial and judicial child adjudication, parentage, custody, access and maintenance, fosterage and adoption, employment of children and institutionalized care and miscellaneous matters affecting children.

The Human Trafficking Act, 2005 (Act 694) seeks to ensure the safety of children from being used in exploitative activities such as child labour, child prostitution and pornography. The Act legislates for the prevention, reduction and punishment of human trafficking and the reintegration and rehabilitation of adults and children who have been trafficked.

Knowledge of strategies to reduce child labour use

According to UNICEF (2003), it is relevant to use education as a main entry point for the targeted children in all age groups. However, education can only be an adequate alternative to child labour if it is accessible, of good quality, relevant, affordable, equal, safe, and valued by and serving the needs of targeted populations. In reality, education is often part of the problem contributing to child labour. School settings can be harmful to children due to abusive treatment, discrimination, bias, and corporal punishment. Countries were as a whole supportive of using education as the key strategy by

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concentrating on children's access to quality education while addressing obstacles to children's education UNICEF (2003).

In 2006 the Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment in collaboration with the Ghana Cocoa Board and the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MOFEP), the International Cocoa Industry, ILO and other partners established the National Programme for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Cocoa (NPECLC) as Ghana's response to addressing the worst forms of child labour in cocoa (NPECLC, 2008). The NPECLC seeks to enforce ILO Convention 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour which Ghana ratified in 2000, and the Children's Act 1998 (Act 560). The overall goal is to eliminate the worst forms of child labour in the cocoa sector by 2011 and contribute towards their elimination in all other sectors by 2015. The strategic objectives of the NPECLC include:

1. Enhancement of the knowledge base on child labour in the cocoa sub-sector to inform planning, project design and implementation, awareness raising and advocacy activities;
2. Strengthening of the legal framework for dealing with WFCL in cocoa growing areas, with the main emphasis on the enforcement of existing laws and regulations;
3. Mobilization of cocoa growing communities, district assemblies, the local cocoa industry and other key stakeholders to work together to eliminate child labour, with a particular focus on the WFCL;
4. Development and implementation of interventions for eliminating WFCL in cocoa growing areas, with priority emphasis on the different stages of the cocoa production process;

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5. Promotion of universal basic education and human resource development among cocoa growing communities;
6. Development and implementation of interventions that reduce the need for child labour in the cocoa sub-sector;
7. Development of institutional, technical and organizational capacities at central, regional, district and community levels to effectively address child labour in the country, with particular emphasis on WFCL in the cocoa sub-sector (MMYE, 2007).

Among the strategic objectives of the NPECLC, this study places emphasis on enhancement of the knowledge base on child labour in the cocoa sub-sector; promotion of universal basic education through full implementation of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) with priority given to cocoa growing communities; development and implementation of interventions that reduce the need for child labour in the cocoa sub-sector; and strengthening of the legal framework for dealing with WFCL in cocoa growing areas with emphasis on the enforcement of existing laws and regulations (Baidoo, 2014).

Interrelationships among the independent variables

Apart from the relationship described between the dependent variable the extent of clearing use) and independent variables, figure 1 also shown interrelationship between some of the independent variables. For example, the extent of child labour used in cocoa production have relationship with the demographic characteristic such law enforcement on child labour form affect the extent of child labour no cocoa production. The more effective the law enforcement agencies and child labour, that is, police Department of Social

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Welfare etc, the less farmers would be willing to use child labour no cocoa production.

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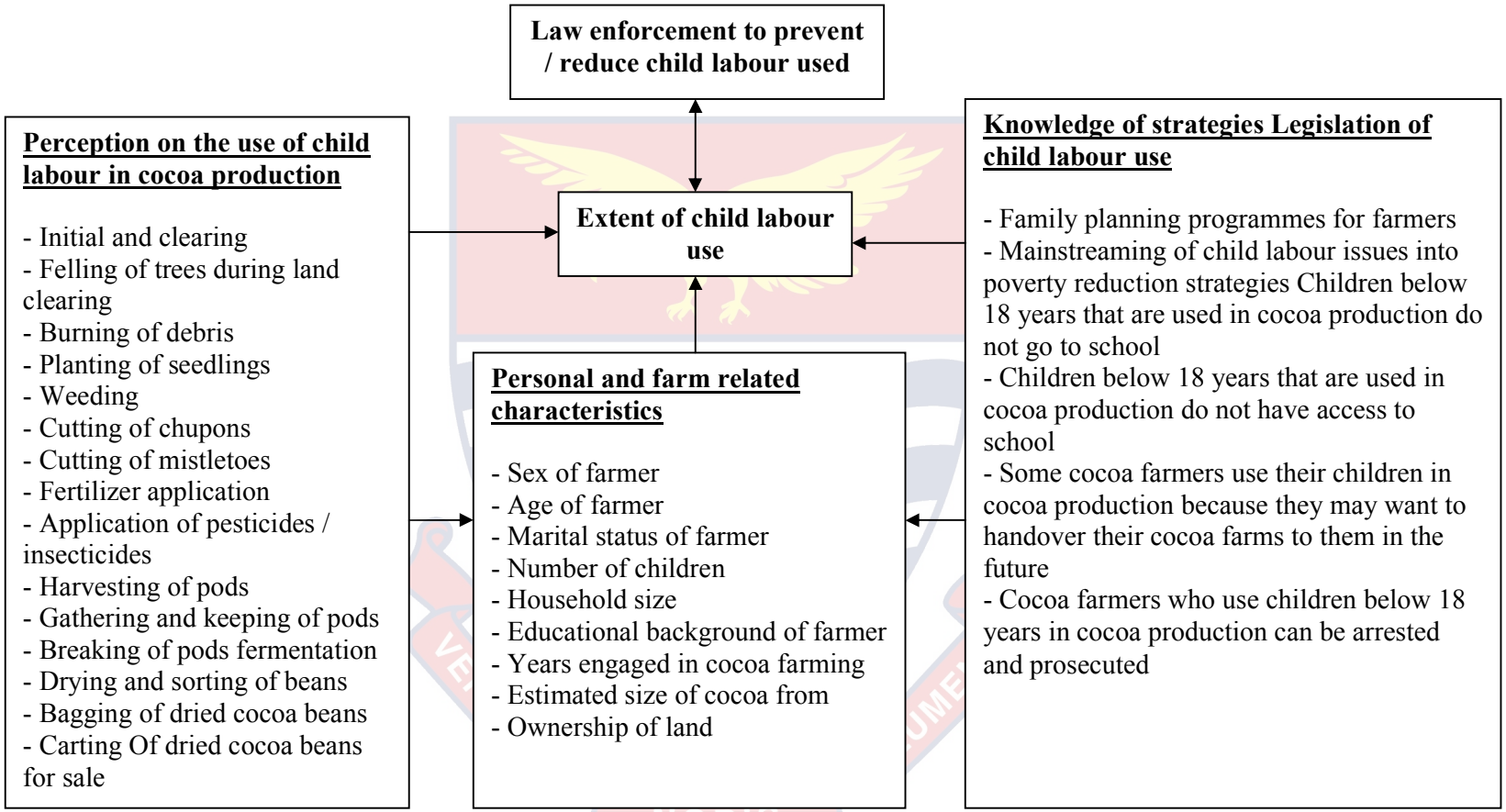


Figure 1: *Conceptual Framework Guiding the Study*

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter comprises of study area, research design, the population of the study, sampling method, instrumentation, pilot study and data analysis.

Study Area

The Sefwi area in the Western Region of Ghana is bounded to the west by Cote d'Ivoire, to the north by the Brong Ahafo Region, to the east by the Central and Ashanti regions and to the south by the Wasa, Aowin and Suaman districts as displayed in Figure 2. The people of Sefwi are predominantly farmers and almost every household is engaged in cocoa production. The rainfall regime in the area ranges between 1,200 to 1,600 mm and the average annual temperature is 25^{o}C with relative humidity ranging from 70 to 80% and Rhodic Ferralsols soil type (COCOBOD, 2016).

Because the bulk of Ghana's total cocoa production is obtained from the Sefwi area, it had attracted all manner of farmers from all the regions of Ghana to the area. In view of the afore-mentioned reasons, there are lots of tenant farmers in the area who own their lands through different land tenancy agreements. Apart from the Sefwis who are the indigenes, the next predominant tribe is the Brongs who obtained their lands either through lease or share-cropping (COCOBOD, 2016).

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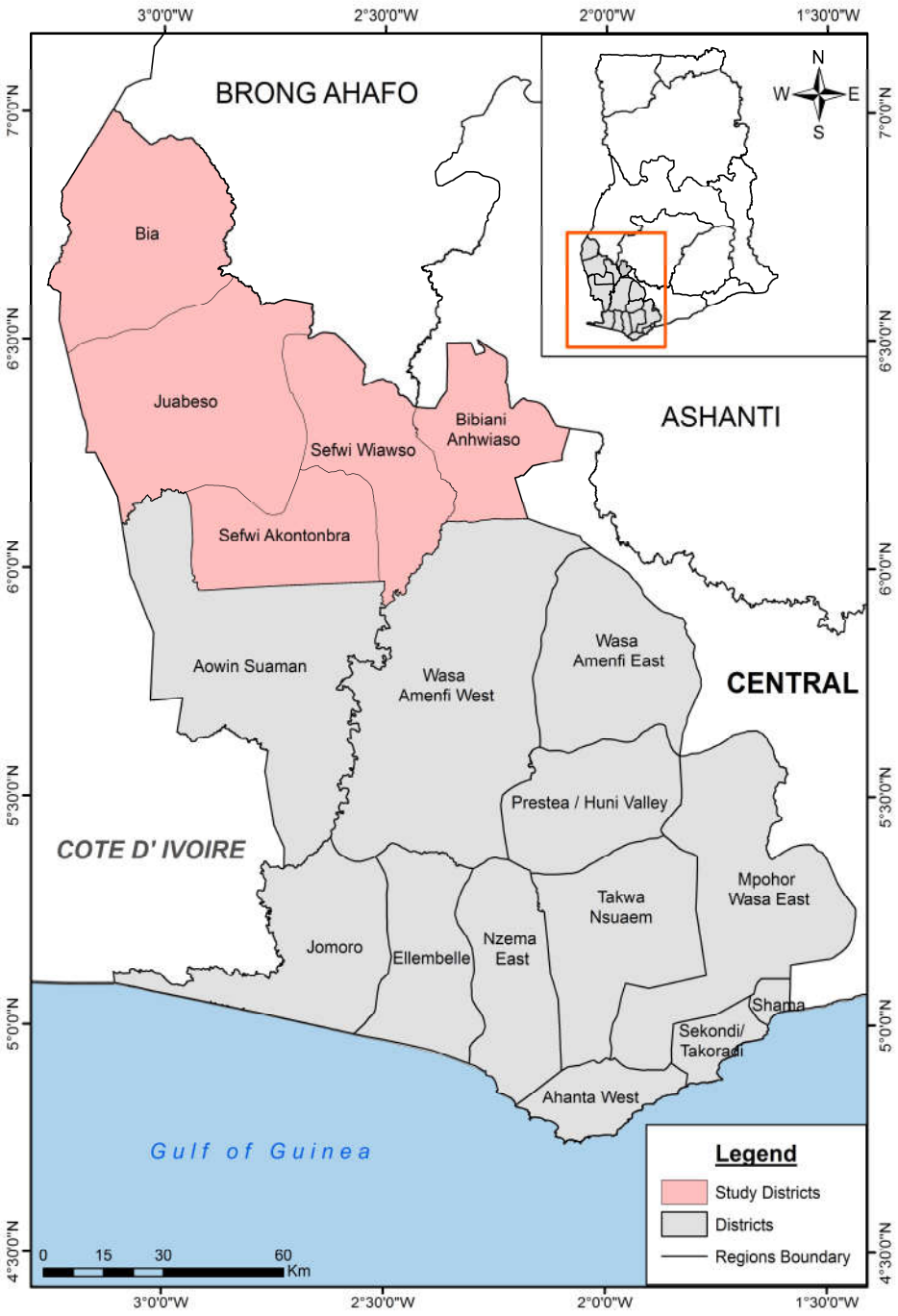


Figure 2: *The Sefwi districts of the Western Region of Ghana*

(Source: COCOBOD, 2016).

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Research Design

The study was done using a descriptive correlational survey to identify farmers' perception of the extent to which child labour is used in cocoa production in the Sefwi area of Ghana. The design is suitable because it allowed the researcher to collect data and information from over a large geographical area. Moreover, surveys have the tendency to give relevant information to describe a situation. The descriptive correlational design enabled the researcher to examine the relationships, the direction of the relationships, and the effects that are evident or trends that are developing amongst the variables (Best & Khan, 1995).

Population of the Study

The target population was cocoa farmers in the five cocoa districts in the Sefwi area of the Western Region. The districts are Sefwi Wiawso, Sefwi Akontombra, Bibiani-Ahwiaso-Bekwai, Juaboso and Bia. Available records at the Western North Regional Office and the respective district offices in of the Cocoa Health and Extension Division (CHED) of COCOBOD in the study area indicated that there are an estimated 75,000 cocoa farmers.

Sampling and Sample Size

According to Payne and McMorris (1967), and Krejcie and Morgan (1970), for a population of 75,000 a sample size of 400 will be large and representative enough for generalization to the population. Eighty cocoa farmers were selected randomly from each of the five cocoa districts to ensure equity in the comparism of the differences in child labour use amongst the

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districts. The researcher selected 80 farmers each from the five districts because they produce cocoa on the same scale, thus on a large scale irrespective of their locations. Their methods, modes, and applications for cocoa production is the same. Also since Sefwi generally is a cocoa growing area, each of the districts have large number of cocoa farmers therefore selecting 80 farmers through random sampling serve as an enhanced representative for the survey.

Simple random sampling procedure was used to draw the sample from each district. This was to ensure that the selected individuals for observation were true representative of the population and opportunity was created for each farmer to be represented (Best and Khan, 1995). The lottery method was employed to select the sample. The reference numbers of each cocoa farmer in each of the selected cocoa district was written on a piece of paper and placed in a container. The container was thoroughly shaken, and one paper picked after the other until 80 farmers were picked in each district. The concept of replacement was adopted where after picking a paper it was placed back into the container to ensure that each respondent was given equal chance to be represented in the sample.

Instrumentation

A semi-structured interview schedule was designed to collect data for the study (Appendix A). The interview schedule was divided into four sections; Section A sought to collect data on demographic characteristics of the respondents. Variables included age, sex, education, farm size, marital status, number of children, household size, ethnic group, name of village/ community /district, occupation, ownership of land and years in cocoa

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farming; Section B focus on perception of cocoa farmers on the frequency and use of child labour in cocoa production. Farmers were asked to indicate "yes" or "no" to a number of activities and the frequency at which they used children in such activities. The activities included: land clearing, planting of seedling, weeding, cutting of chupons and mistletoes, fertilizer application, pesticide application, harvesting, gathering and heaping of pods, breaking of pods, fermentation, drying and storing of beans and carting of dry beans for sale. Factors that contribute to child labour use in cocoa production were the focus on section C. Respondents were asked about the periods they used children in their cocoa farm. Their income level as well as their engagement in other farming activities was also elicited. They also responded to 10 statements relating to why they use child labour. Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) and 4 (strongly agree) was used. The factors that contribute to the use of child labour were categorized into economic, social, traditional and legal factors.

The section D elicits information on the strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour in cocoa production. The variables that were assessed in this last section include: respondents level of awareness, knowledge, and extent of compliance on the strategies (policy, education and community approaches) for dealing with child labour in cocoa production.

Carifio and Perla (2007), referred to studies like the Gene Glass Monte Carlo study of ANOVA (Glass, Peckham & Sanders, 1972) which showed that Likert response formats could be considered as interval scales logically with correct terms and conditions. The three main conditions identified according to Glass et al. (1972) as cited in Carifio and Perla (2007), were that:

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(a) the "scale or subscales should have 4 to 8 items but preferable closer to 8" ,

(b) the level of the data should be collected using 4 to 7 point likert-response format, and

(c) analysis should generally be done not on item by item (micro) bases on the format but on the scale bases (macro).

Pretesting of Instruments

The supervisors ensured the content validity of the instrument. The main purpose validity and reliability testing were to ensure that the instrument measures exactly what it purports to measure and nothing else. Questions that were not clear were reframed to bring about clarity.

To ensure that the instrument was reliable in terms of clarity, it was pre-tested on 56 farmers in the Aowin Suaman District of the Western Region. The Aowin Suaman District shares boundary with the Sefwi area. Therefore, the farmers used were expected to possess similar traits just as the selected Districts for the study.

The data on pre-tested interview schedules were entered into the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) analytical software version 15 for Cronbach Alpha reliability analysis. The Alpha reliability co-efficient of all the variables measured are presented in Table 4. According to Field (2011), for any instruments to be reliable to be used for data collection, the Alpha reliability test co-efficient should range between 0.6 and 0.9. All the Alpha coefficients fell within the range and the variables are therefore deemed reliable (Table 4).

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Table 4: *Cronbach Alpha reliability co-efficient for the selected variables of the study (N=56)*

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha reliability co-efficient
Frequency of use of child labour	16	0.940
Child labour	10	0.743
Level of awareness of strategies	10	0.886
Level of knowledge of strategies	10	0.837
Compliance with strategies	10	0.854

Source: Field Data (2013)

Data Collection

Technical Assistants from each of the five District offices of the CHED of COCOBOD were trained to collect data using the semi-structured interview schedule. The training ensured that each assistant understood the aims of the study and items on the research instrument. The researcher first administered the instrument with each of the assistants. Each assistant was given the opportunity to pre-test the instrument to build confidence in the use instrument. The mistakes made were discussed before the actual administration of the instrument. This exercise ensured the questions asked were consistent and accurate.

Four Technical Assistants in each of the five districts were selected to administer the semi-structured interview schedule to the farmers. Each Technical Assistant was supposed to administer twenty of semi-structured interview schedule to be answered. The administration of the interview took

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two months to be completed by each Technical Assistant, thus from 1st October to 1st December, 2012. The selected Technical Assistant faced numerous challenges during the data collection stage and these includes availability of the farmers, spending more time to explain the interview questions to each farmer and difficulties in reaching the farmers in their geographical locations. The Technical Assistants were given extra resources by their researcher in other to achieve their task and augment the extra cost of data gathering.

Data Processing and Analysis

The data collected by each assistant was scrutinized to identify errors and clarification of writings, especially the response to the open ended questions. The data was then coded and entered into the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software version 15.0 to generate appropriate statistics for the data analysis used to analyze the data collected from the respondents. The data was analyzed based on the specific objectives set for the study.

To describe the influence of demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers on the extent of child labour use (Objective 1), descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were generated. Additionally, the items were cross-tabulated to determine how these demographic characteristics influence child labour. Independent sample t-test was used to compare the difference between male and female cocoa farmers use of child labour (Hypothesis 1). To examine the perception of

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farmers on the use of child labour in cocoa production (Objective 2), frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were used.

Frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were computed to compare the levels of child labour use in cocoa production in the five cocoa districts of the Sefwi area (Objective 3). Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was run to compare the difference in means of the selected variables in the five cocoa districts (Hypothesis 2). Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were used to analyze the strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour in cocoa production (Objective 4).

Correlation co-efficient was run to determine the extent of relationships between factors that contribute to child labour use in cocoa production. Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression (with a stepwise multiple regression as a step of entry) was run to identify the best predictors of child labour use from the factors that contribute to child labour use (Objectives 5 or Hypothesis 3).

One of the ethical issues faced during the researcher was that, some of the Technical Assistants who collected the data failed to seek the full consent of participants in the research. Rather they informed and explained to the participants on the research topics, objectives and the significant of the research of which they agreed to participate and expressed their objective opinions.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the results of the data. The chapter is presented according to the specific objectives of the study.

Influence of Demographic Characteristics of the Cocoa Farmers on the Extent of Child Labour Use

The objective one was to describe the influence of demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers on the extent of child labour use. The demographic characteristics considered were: sex, age, marital status, number of children, number of dependents, educational level, experience in farming, farm size and land ownership,

Sex of the Respondents

The frequency distribution of the sex of the 400 respondents indicated that the majority (75.5%) were men. This implied that men dominated the headship of cocoa farm families or households. The result is also consistent with Ghana's demographic profile which shows that most household heads are males (MMYE, 2007). The low number could be attributed to poor access of women to resources for tree crop production.

Table 5: Frequency Distribution of Sex of Respondents

Sex	Frequency	Percent
Male	304	75.5
Female	98	24.5
Total	400	100.0

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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Gockowsi and Oduwole (2001) argued that the restricted access to land resources for women should be among the major factor limiting women participation in cocoa production. When women make more money, household food security and nutrition are improved (World Bank, 2008).

Table 6 shows the cross-tabulation between sex of the respondents and the various activities they use children for. The study reveals that out of the 29 respondents who said they often engage labour of children during initial land clearing, the majority (69%) are males headed households whereas the females headed households form the minority (31.0%). Other activities such as planting of seedlings, weeding, cutting of chupons, cutting of mistletoes, fertilizer application and insecticides application which require intensive labour also recorded a similar trend. This confirms the observations of Ellis (1999), that, gender is an integral and inseparable part of rural livelihoods involved in cocoa production as it pertains to ownership and control of productive resources.

Cocoa production in West Africa is labour intensive and most cocoa production is by small-scale farmers with few resources who often use child labour to contribute to the labour demand (IITA, 2002). Out of the total 400, four respondents refused to answer questions because of the sensitivity of the issues under discussion. Some felt embarrassed answering questions about their children involvement in child labour.

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Table 6: *Sex of farmers and engagement of child labour in cocoa production*

		Response		
Activities	Sex	Yes	No	Total
Initial land clearing	Male	20(69.0)	282(76.8)	302(76.3)
	Female	9(31.0)	85(23.2)	94(23.7)
	Total	29(100.0)	367(100.0)	396(100.0)
Felling of trees during land clearing	Male	8(66.7)	294(76.6)	302(76.3)
	Female	4(33.3)	90(23.4)	94(23.7)
	Total	12(100.0)	384(100.0)	396(100.0)
Burning of debris	Male	14(51.9)	288(78.0)	302(76.3)
	Female	13(48.1)	81(22.0)	94(23.7)
	Total	27(100.0)	369(100.0)	396(100.0)
Planting of seedlings	Male	62(66.0)	240(79.5)	302(76.3)
	Female	32(34.0)	62(20.5)	94(23.7)
	Total	94(100.0)	302(100.0)	396(100.0)
Weeding	Male	70(64.2)	232(80.8)	302(76.3)
	Female	39(35.8)	55(19.2)	94(23.7)
	Total	109(100.0)	287(100.0)	396(100.0)
Cutting of chupons	Male	20(66.7)	282(77.0)	302(76.3)
	Female	10(33.3)	84(23.0)	94(23.7)
	Total	30(100.0)	366(100.0)	396(100.0)
Cuttings of mistletoes	Male	7(58.3)	295(76.8)	302(76.3)
	Female	5(41.7)	89(23.2)	94(23.7)
	Total	12(100.0)	384(100.0)	396(100.0)
Fertilizer application	Male	24(61.5)	278(77.9)	302(76.3)
	Female	15(38.5)	79(22.1)	94(23.7)
	Total	39(100.0)	357(100.0)	396(100.0)
Application of pesticides/insecticides	Male	10(62.5)	292(76.8)	302(76.3)
	Female	6(37.5)	88(23.2)	94(23.7)
	Total	16(100.0)	380(100.0)	396(100.0)

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie – Otoo (2013)

Age of the Respondents

The majority of the respondents representing about 60.0% were between the ages of 40 years and 59 years. This confirms the general perceptions that the general public has that majority of the youth are not

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involved in cocoa farming. Relatively, the elderly were not many and represented about 6 percent of the total number of respondents. This seems to suggest that the age of cocoa farmers may be shifting in recent years from one of older farmers to relatively younger ones, which augurs well for the future of cocoa in Ghana (MMYE, 2007).

The result contrasts other studies that revealed that cocoa farmers in cocoa farming communities have ages of between 50 to 70 years. For instance, Bosompem and Mensah (2012), found that the aged (above 60 years) dominates cocoa production in the Birim South District in the Eastern Region of Ghana. Marcella (2007), also reported that most cocoa farmers in Ashanti and Brong-Ahafo regions of Ghana are aged (65-70 years).

The study shows that majority of respondents who involve child labour in cocoa production activity fall within the age group of 40-49 years. Whereas, those in the age group 20-29 years hardly engage child labour.
Initial land clearing for instance indicated that out of the 28 farmers who engage child labour, 13 of them representing 46.4% fall within the age group 40-49 years. While farmers in the age group 50 and above had 7(25%) involvement of child labour as compared to those in the age group 20-29 years and 30-39 years who had 4 (14.3%) engagement of child labour each.

Relationship of farmer age and engagement of child labour in other cocoa production activity such as; cutting of chupons, mistletoes and fertilizer application also shows a similar trend.

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Table 7: *Frequency Distribution of Age of Respondents*

Age (Years)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
20-29	23	5.75	5.75
30-39	78	19.50	25.25
40-49	135	33.75	59.00
50-59	102	25.50	84.50
60 and above	62	15.50	100.00
Total	400	100.00	

n=400 Source: Field Survey Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

The findings also indicate that the total involvement of child labour during weeding as part of cocoa production activity is relatively higher (Table 8). From the results, it can be seen that six (6) respondents refused to answer some of the questions. Farmers within the productive age mostly enticed children into cocoa production activity because they provide cheap and reliable labour for maximum productive. This result is similar to finding of Johnson and Neumar (1997) productive age of cocoa farmer is normally considered to be between age 15 and 49.

Marital Status of the Respondents

Majority of the respondents were married representing 84.0%. This confirms Naminse, Fosu and Nongyenge (2012), who found in similar results in a study on the impact of mass spraying programme on cocoa production in Ghana. Cocoa farming is noted to be labour intensive and mostly rely on family members as some cheap labour to farms. Farmers get married hoping to have many children to assist in their farming activities.

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Table 8: *Age of Farmers and Use of Child Labour in Cocoa Production Activity*

Activities	Response			
	Age (Years)	Yes	No	Total
Initial land clearing	20-29	4(14.3)	18(4.9)	22(5.6)
	30-39	4(14.3)	73(19.9)	77(19.5)
	40-49	13(4.8)	121(33.1)	134(34)
	50-59	2(7.1)	99(27.0)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	5(17.9)	55(15.0)	60(15.2)
	Total	**28(100)**	**366(100)**	**394(100)**
Felling of trees during land clearing	20-29	0(0)	22(5.7)	22(5.6)
	30-39	1(9.1)	76(19.8)	77(19.5)
	40-49	7(63.6)	127(33.2)	134(34.0)
	50-59	1(9.1)	100(26.1)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	2(18.2)	58(15.1)	60(15.2)
	Total	**11(100)**	**383(100)**	**394(100)**
Burning of debris	20-29	1(3.8)	21(5.7)	22(5.6)
	30-39	7(26.9)	70(19.0)	77(19.5)
	40-49	13(50.0)	121(32.9)	134(34.0)
	50-59	3(11.5)	98(26.6)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	2(7.7)	58(15.8)	60(15.2)
	Total	**26(100)**	**368(100)**	**394(100)**
Planting of seedlings	20-29	3(3.3)	19(6.3)	22(5.6)
	30-39	15(16.7)	62(20.4)	77(19.5)
	40-49	44(48.9)	90(29.6)	134(34.0)
	50-59	20(22.2)	81(26.6)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	8(8.9)	52(17.1)	60(15.2)
	Total	**90(100)**	**304(100)**	**394(100)**
Weeding	20-29	2(1.9)	20(7.0)	22(5.6)
	30-39	19(17.8)	58(20.2)	77(19.5)
	40-49	47(43.9)	87(30.3)	134(34.0)
	50-59	25(23.4)	76(26.5)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	14(13.1)	46(16.0)	60(15.2)
	Total	**107(100)**	**287(100)**	**394(100)**
Cutting of chupons	20-29	1(3.3)	21(5.8)	22(5.6)
	30-39	4(13.3)	73(20.1)	77(19.5)
	40-49	21(70.0)	113(31.0)	134(34.0)
	50-59	2(6.7)	99(27.2)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	2(6.7)	58(15.9)	60(15.2)
	Total	**30(100)**	**364(100)**	**394(100)**
Cuttings of mistletoes	20-29	0(0)	22(5.7)	22(5.6)
	30-39	3(27.3)	74(19.3)	77(19.5)
	40-49	6(54.5)	128(33.4)	134(34.0)
	50-59	1(9.1)	100(26.1)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	1(9.1)	59(15.4)	60(15.2)
	Total	**11(100)**	**383(100)**	**394(100)**
Fertilizer application	20-29	2(5.3)	20(5.6)	22(5.6)
	30-39	8(21.1)	69(19.4)	77(19.5)
	40-49	15(39.5)	119(33.4)	134(34.0)
	50-59	12(31.6)	89(25.0)	101(25.6)
	60 and above	1(6.7)	21(5.5)	22(5.6)
	Total	**38(100)**	**356(100)**	**394(100)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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Asamoah, Ansah, Anchirinah, Aneani and Agyapong (2013), study on insight into the standard of living of Ghanaian cocoa farmers found a higher percentage of married cocoa farmers (94%).

Table 9: *Frequency distribution of marital status of respondents*

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	27	6.75
Married	337	84.25
Divorced	12	3.00
Widowed	15	3.75
Separated	9	2.25
Total	400	100.00

n= 400 Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Table 10 presents marital status and results on involvement of child labour in cocoa production. The relationship between marital status and child labour involvement in initial land clearing showed that about 22 (75.9%) of the children from married families were engaged in child labour compared to 3.4% of the children from widowed were involved in child labour. Single parent households 6 (20.7%) were engaged in child labour compared to respondents who are separated as well divorced parent households who strongly affirmed that they hardly entertain such engagement. Cocoa farming is actually noted to be labour demanding and it support the reality that cocoa famers who are married frequently depend on children within the family for cheap labour on their cocoa farms. This finding is line with the study

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conducted by Niels-Hugo and Dorte (2000) children from married households were found to be more likely to engage in child labour than those from single households.

The married cocoa farmers who use child labour in cocoa farming involve children in weeding (80%) and planting of seedlings (89.9%). Before the cocoa trees form a canopy, weeding is carried out about three to four times in a year. Some farmers involve children in weeding and in cutting of chupons; because they want the children to learn from them, whilst others involve them because they are cheap source of labour. Few married farmers involve children in felling of tree (12) and initial land clearing (12). All these activities involve the use of sharp machetes which the working child may be too inexperienced to handle. According to Amoo (2007), health harm to a working child could originate from harmful substances such as pesticides and from engaging in dangerous processes or using dangerous equipment. Conditions of work that create physical or psychological strain are common. The farming work environment is particularly harsh especially to children who rarely use any protective equipment.

A combination of these source of which the child is exposed makes farming one of the hazardous occupation. Laird et al, (1996), asserted that planting of seedlings, which are usually transplanted after propagation and take three to five years to reach full productive fertility, and also takes place by hand, as does by weeding, which is especially intensive in the year or so after forest are cleared for planting.

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Table 10: Marital status of farmers' and child labour engagement in cocoa *production*

Activities	Response			
	Marital status	**Yes**	**No**	**Total**
Initial land clearing	Single	6(20.7)	21(5.7)	27(6.8)
	Married	22(75.9)	315(85.4)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	0(0)	12(3.3)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	1(3.4)	14(3.8)	15(3.8)
	Separated	0(0)	7(1.9)	7(1.8)
	Total	**29(100)**	**369(100)**	**398(100)**
Felling of trees during land clearing	Single	1(8.3)	26(6.7)	27(6.8)
	Married	11(91.7)	326(84.5)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	0(0)	12(3.1)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	0(0)	15(3.9)	15(3.8)
	Separated	0(0)	7(1.8)	7(1.8)
	Total	**12(100)**	**386(100)**	**398(100)**
Burning of debris	Single	1(3.7)	26(7.0)	27(6.8)
	Married	24(88.9)	313(84.4)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	1(3.7)	11(3.0)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	0(0)	15(4.0)	15(3.8)
	Separated	1(3.7)	6(1.6)	7(1.8)
	Total	**27(100)**	**371(100)**	**398(100)**
Planting of seedlings	Single	6(6.5)	21(6.9)	27(6.8)
	Married	78(83.9)	259(84.9)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	4(4.3)	8(2.6)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	4(4.3)	11(3.6)	15(3.8)
	Separated	1(1.1)	6(2.0)	7(1.8)
	Total	**93(100)**	**305(100)**	**398(100)**
Weeding	Single	10(9.3)	17(5.9)	27(6.8)
	Married	87(80.6)	250(86.2)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	5(4.6)	7(2.4)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	3(2.8)	12(4.1)	15(3.8)
	Separated	3(2.8)	4(1.4)	7(1.8)
	Total	**108(100)**	**290(100)**	**398(100)**
Cutting of chupons	Single	0(0)	27(7.3)	27(6.8)
	Married	28(93.3)	309(84.0)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	2(6.7)	10(2.7)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	0(0)	15(4.1)	15(3.8)
	Separated	0(0)	7(1.9)	7(1.8)
	Total	**30(100)**	**368(100)**	**398(100)**
Cuttings of mistletoes	Single	1(8.3)	26(6.7)	27(6.8)
	Married	10(83.3)	327(84.7)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	0(0)	12(3.1)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	0(0)	15(3.9)	15(3.8)
	Separated	1(8.3)	6(1.6)	7(1.8)
	Total	**12(100)**	**386(100)**	**398(100)**
Fertilizer application	Single	4(10.3)	23(6.4)	27(6.8)
	Married	30(76.9)	307(85.5)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	3(7.7)	9(2.5)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	1(2.6)	14(3.9)	15(3.8)
	Separated	1(2.6)	6(1.7)	7(1.8)
	Total	**39(100)**	**359(100)**	**398)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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As shown in Table 11, relatively high number of married couples interviewed fully engages their children in application of pesticides/ insecticides, harvesting of pods as well as post-harvest activities of cocoa. For instance, about 14 (87.5%) of married couples do engage children during initial land clearing as compared to the divorced, widowed and the separated respondents who hardly engage children, whereas 2 (12.5%) was recorded for the singled parent respondents.

The findings also indicate that the percentage involvement of child labour in harvesting of pods, gathering and heaping of pods as well as breaking of pods as part of the harvesting activity in cocoa production engage was very high for married couple household. It has been argued that marital status is associated with the incidence of child labour (HBS, 2007). The results reveal that out of the total 400 respondents interviewed, two of them refused to answer certain questions for the reason that the discussion is sensitive.

Table 11: *Marital Status of Farmer and Child Labour Engagement in Cocoa Harvesting and Post-Harvest Activities*

		Response		
Activities	Marital status	Yes	No	Total
Application of pesticides/insecticides	Single	2(12.5)	25(6.5)	27(6.8)
	Married	14(87.5)	323(84.6)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	0(0)	12(3.1)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	0(0)	15(3.9)	15(3.8)
	Separated	0(0)	7(1.8)	7(1.8)
	Total	**16(100)**	**382(100)**	**398(100)**
Harvesting of pods	Single	9(12.9)	18(5.5)	27(6.8)
	Married	53(75.7)	283(86.5)	336(84.6)
	Divorced	3(4.3)	9(2.8)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	1(1.4)	14(4.3)	15(3.8)
	Separated	4(5.7)	4(1.2)	8(2.0)
	Total	**70(100)**	**327(100)**	**398(100)**

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Table 12: Continued

Gathering and heaping of pods	Single	14(7.3)	13(6.3)	27(6.8)
	Married	160(82.9)	177(86.3)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	7(3.6)	5(2.4)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	7(3.6)	8(3.9)	15(3.8)
	Separated	5(2.6)	2(1.0)	7(1.8)
	Total	**193(100)**	**205(100)**	**398(100)**
Breaking of pods	Single	14(11.7)	13(4.7)	27(6.8)
	Married	93(77.5)	244(87.8)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	6(5.0)	6(2.2)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	3(2.5)	12(4.3)	15(3.8)
	Separated	4(3.3)	3(1.1)	7(1.8)
	Total	**120(100)**	**278(100)**	**398(100)**
Fermentation	Single	8(11.8)	19(5.8)	27(6.8)
	Married	55(80.9)	282(85.5)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	2(2.9)	10(3.0)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	0(0)	15(4.5)	15(3.8)
	Separated	3(4.4)	4(1.2)	7(1.8)
	Total	**68(100)**	**330(100)**	**398(100)**
Drying and sorting of beans	Single	4(6.9)	23(6.8)	27(6.8)
	Married	47(81.0)	290(85.3)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	3(5.2)	9(2.6)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	3(5.2)	12(3.5)	15(3.8)
	Separated	1(1.7)	6(1.8)	7(1.8)
	Total	**58(100)**	**340(100)**	**398(100)**
Bagging of dried cocoa beans	Single	10(13.3)	17(5.3)	27(6.8)
	Married	55(73.3)	282(87.3)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	3(4.0)	9(2.8)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	4(5.3)	11(3.4)	15(3.8)
	Separated	3(4.0)	4(1.2)	7(1.8)
	Total	**75(100)**	**323(100)**	**398(100)**
Carting of dry beans for sale	Single	10(15.4)	17(5.1)	27(6.8)
	Married	46(70.8)	291(87.4)	337(84.7)
	Divorced	4(6.2)	8(2.4)	12(3.0)
	Widowed	3(4.6)	12(3.6)	15(3.8)
	Separated	2(3.1)	5(1.5)	7(1.8)
	Total	**65(100)**	**333(100)**	**398(100)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Number of Children of Respondents

The majority (62%) of the respondents have 5 or more children. The household sizes with 1-2 and 3-4 numbers of children of respondents had 53 and 99 representing 38.8%. This result contradicts the findings of (HBS, 2007) that the national average family size is 4.9 and 4.4 in rural areas and other urban areas respectively. URT (2005), Niels-Hugo and Dorte (2000),

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indicated in their studies that households with large family size are more likely to engage the services of children in cocoa production activity compared to those with small family size.

Table 13: *Frequency Distribution of Number of Children of Respondents*

Children	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-2	53	13.25	13.25
3-4	99	24.75	38.80
5-6	121	30.25	68.25
7-8	64	16.00	84.25
9 children and above	63	15.75	100.00
Total	400	100.00	

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Table 13 shows the results of number of children in a household and the level of their engagement as child labour in the cocoa production. URT (2005) and Niels-Hugo and Dorte (2000), indicated in their studies that households with large family size are more likely to engage the services of children in cocoa production activity compared to those with small family size.

The percentages of children engaged in cocoa production are relatively high in household with 5 - 8 children. About 52% of children engaged in initial land clearing in cocoa production are from household with 5-8 children, whereas 20.7% of child labour was recorded for household with 1-2 number of children. Over 25% of the respondents affirmed the engagement of children during weeding in cocoa production. ILO (2005), report on child labour estimated that about 55% of household with 5 - 8 numbers of children highly engaged child labour around the world.

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Table 14*: Number of Children and their Engagement in Child Labour in Cocoa Production*

Activities		Response		
	Number of Children	Yes	No	Total
Initial land clearing	1-2	6(20.7)	46(12.5)	52(13.1)
	3-4	5(17.2)	93(25.3)	98(24.7)
	5-6	10(34.5)	110(30.0)	120(30.3)
	7-8	5(17.2)	58(15.8)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	3(10.3)	60(16.3)	63(15.9)
	Total	29(100)	367(100)	396(100)
Felling of trees during land clearing	1-2	1(8.3)	51(13.3)	52(13.1)
	3-4	4(33.3)	94(24.5)	98(24.7)
	5-6	2(16.7)	118(30.7)	120(30.3)
	7-8	4(33.3)	59(15.4)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	1(8.3)	62(16.1)	63(15.9)
	Total	12(100)	384(100)	396(100)
Burning of debris	1-2	2(7.4)	50(13.6)	52(13.1)
	3-4	5(18.5)	93(25.2)	98(24.7)
	5-6	11(40.7)	109(29.5)	120(30.3)
	7-8	6(22.2)	57(15.4)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	3(11.1)	60(16.3)	63(15.9)
	Total	27(100)	369(100)	396(100)
Planting of seedlings	1-2	8(8.5)	44(14.6)	52(13.1)
	3-4	24(25.5)	74(24.5)	98(24.7)
	5-6	32(34.0)	88(29.1)	120(30.3)
	7-8	17(18.1)	46(15.2)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	13(13.8)	50(16.6)	63(15.9)
	Total	94(100)	302(100)	396(100)
Weeding	1-2	7(6.4)	45(15.7)	52(13.1)
	3-4	31(28.4)	67(23.3)	98(24.7)
	5-6	38(34.9)	82(28.6)	120(30.3)
	7-8	21(19.3)	42(14.6)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	12(11.0)	51(17.8)	63(15.9)
	Total	109(100)	287(100)	396(100)
Cutting of chupons	1-2	1(3.3)	51(13.9)	52(13.1)
	3-4	8(26.7)	90(24.6)	98(24.7)
	5-6	13(43.3)	107(29.2)	120(30.3)
	7-8	6(20.0)	57(15.6)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	2(6.7)	61(16.7)	63(15.9)
	Total	30(100)	366(100)	396(100)
Cuttings of mistletoes	1-2	1(8.3)	51(13.3)	52(13.1)
	3-4	4(33.3)	94(24.5)	98(24.7)
	5-6	3(25.0)	117(30.5)	120(30.3)
	7-8	4(33.3)	59(15.4)	63(15.9)
	9 &above	0(0)	63(16.4)	63(15.9)
	Total	12(100)	384(100)	396(100)
Fertilizer application	1-2	3(7.7)	49(13.7)	52(13.1)
	3-4	9(23.1)	89(24.9)	98(24.7)
	5-6	14(35.9)	106(29.7)	120(30.3)
	7-8	11(28.2)	52(14.6)	63(15.9)
	9 & above	2(5.1)	61(17.1)	63(15.9)
	Total	39(100)	357(100)	396(100)

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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The percentages of children engaged in cocoa production are relatively high in household with 5 - 8 children. About 52% of children engaged in initial land clearing in cocoa production are from household with 5-8 children, whereas 20.7% of child labour was recorded for household with 1-2 number of children. Over 25% of the respondents affirmed the engagement of children during weeding in cocoa production. ILO (2005), report on child labour estimated that about 55% of household with 5 - 8 numbers of children highly engaged child labour around the world.

Number of Dependants of Respondents

The majority (69.3%) of the respondents have between 5 and 12 dependants (Table 14). This means that the more the people in a household, the likelihood that farmers may engage them in cocoa production.

Table 15**:** *Frequency Distribution of Number of Dependants of Respondents*

Dependants	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-4	75	18.8	18.80
5-8	178	44.5	63.20
9-12	99	24.8	88.00
13-16	26	6.5	94.50
Above 17	22	5.5	100.00
Total	400	100.0	

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

A cross tabulation of members in household size and their effect over child labour in cocoa production activity is shown in Table 15. The results indicate that high number of respondents with dependents' ranging from 5- 8

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and 9-12 have the larger household size and may readily have access to cheap labour.

For instance, about over half 61.0% of the respondents with household dependents ranging from 5-8 and 9-12 engage children in the cocoa production activity as compared to those with 1-4 dependents' as well as 13 and above with 5 (17.2%) and 6 (20.6%) respectively. Other activities such as planting of seedlings, weeding, cutting of chupons, cutting of mistletoes, fertilizer application and insecticides application which require intensive labour also revealed a similar trend. Because there are a lot of mouths to feed in larger households, the heads of these households use them in their farming activities so as to generate some income in order to be able to feed them. The finding is similar to Sareer (2005), who estimated that dependent ratio is a determinant of child labourers in cocoa growing sectors.

Educational level of respondents

The results presented in Table 16, reveal that majority (76.5%) of the respondents have had formal education thus elementary education, secondary or senior high school education and tertiary education. This seems to suggest that the more farmers are literate. This contradicts with the studies by Dankwa (2002), Kumi (2003), who reported that about 50-55% of cocoa farmers in Ashanti Region and Eastern Region of Ghana respectively had no formal education about a decade ago.

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Table 16: *Household Size and Child Labour Engagement in Cocoa Production*

Activities		Engagement in child labour		
	Household Size	Yes	No	Total
Initial land clearing	1-4	5 (17.2)	70(18.9)	75(18.8)
	5-8	9(31.0)	169(45.6)	178(44.5)
	9-12	9(31.0)	90(24.3)	99(24.8)
	13-16	1(3.4)	25(6.7)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	5(17.2)	17(4.6)	22(5.5)
	Total	**29(100)**	**371(100)**	**400(100)**
Felling of trees during land clearing	1-4	1(8.3)	74(19.1)	75(18.8)
	5-8	5(41.7)	173(44.6)	178(44.5)
	9-12	4(33.3)	95(24.5)	99(24.8)
	13-16	0(0)	26(6.7)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	2(16.7)	20(5.2)	22(5.5)
	Total	**12(100)**	**388(100)**	**400(100)**
Burning of debris	1-4	6(22.2)	69(18.5)	75(18.8)
	5-8	9(33.3)	169(45.3)	178(44.5)
	9-12	10(37.0)	89(23.9)	99(24.8)
	13-16	2(7.4)	24(6.4)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	0(0)	22(5.9)	22(5.5)
	Total	**27(100)**	**373(100)**	**400(100)**
Planting of seedlings	1-4	13(13.8)	62(20.3)	75(18.8)
	5-8	45(47.9)	133(43.5)	178(44.5)
	9-12	20(21.3)	79(25.8)	99(24.8)
	13-16	8(8.5)	18(5.9)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	8(8.5)	14(4.6)	22(5.5)
	Total	**94(100)**	**306(100)**	**400(100)**
Weeding	1-4	19(17.4)	56(19.2)	75(18.8)
	5-8	46(42.2)	132(45.4)	178(44.5)
	9-12	30(27.5)	69(23.7)	99(24.8)
	13-16	7(6.4)	19(6.5)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	7(6.4)	15(5.2)	22(5.5)
	Total	**109(100)**	**291(100)**	**400(100)**
Cutting of chupons	1-4	3(10.0)	72(19.5)	75(18.8)
	5-8	13(43.3)	165(44.6)	178(44.5)
	9-12	10(33.3)	89(24.1)	99(24.8)
	13-16	3(10.0)	23(6.2)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	1(3.3)	21(5.7)	22(5.5)
	Total	**30(100)**	**370(100)**	**400(100)**
Cuttings of mistletoes	1-4	2(16.7)	73(18.8)	75(18.8)
	5-8	5(41.7)	173(44.6)	178(44.5)
	9-12	4(33.3)	95(24.5)	99(24.8)
	13-16	1(8.3)	25(6.7)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	0(0)	22(5.7)	22(5.5)
	Total	**12(100)**	**388(100)**	**400(100)**
Fertilizer application	1-4	7(17.9)	68(18.8)	75(18.8)
	5-8	18(46.2)	160(44.3)	178(44.5)
	9-12	9(23.1)	90(24.9)	99(24.8)
	13-16	4(10.3)	22(6.1)	26(6.5)
	Above 17	1(2.6)	21(5.8)	22(5.5)
	Total	**39(100)**	**361(100)**	**400(100)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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Though majority (76.5%) had formal education, few (17.5%) had had secondary or tertiary education. This trend is good for farmers in the Sefwi area since their level of education affects ability to receive, decode, and understand information and to a larger extent , determines the type of tasks they can undertake in any project, and therefore the type and level of participation (Byrness and Byrness, 1978).

A study Amponsah (1995), indicated that adoption was positively influenced by the respondents' educational level. Rogers (1995) reported that adoption of innovation could be regarded as managerial concern that requires certain managerial skills which are often gained through education. According to Rahm and Huffman (1984), farmers' schooling enhances the efficiency of adoption decision. They noted that adoption of new technology involves farmers in acquiring and decoding information about modern inputs and in learning how to use inputs effectively. Farmers having low level of schooling may require longer time lag to select, assimilate and allocate new farming skills.

Table 17: *Frequency Distribution of Educational Level of Respondents*

Education	Frequency	Percentage
No formal education	94	23.50
Elementary	236	59.00
Secondary/Senior high school	47	11.80
Tertiary	23	5.70
Total	400	100.00

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Some studies by Casely-Hayford (2004) and (Odonkor 2007) had identified poor educational standards of farmer as one of the main factors

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fuelling child labour in cocoa growing communities. The results for example, indicated that majority 19 (65.5%) of farmers who mostly engage children in cocoa farm activity have no formal education, whereas those with elementary education has 7 (24.1%) of child labour engagement in initial land clearing. With regards to felling of trees and burning of debris during land preparation, those with no formal education have higher percentage of child labour involvement.

The results also indicated that pruning activity (cutting of chupons and removal of mistletoes) and also fertilizer application have high level of child labour from farmers with no formal education. These results suggest that lower levels of education translate into higher odds of child labour. Thus the level of education of cocoa farmers can affect their understanding of the concept of child labour. This is in line with Rahm and Huffman (1984), who stated that farmers' education enhances their understanding of concept.

Table 18: *Educational Status of Farmers and Engagement of Child Labour in Cocoa Production*

Activities	Educational Background	Response		Total
		Yes	No	
Initial land clearing	No Formal Education	19(65.5)	75(20.2)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	7(24.1)	229(61.7)	236(59.0)
	Secondary/Senior High School	2(6.9)	45(12.1)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	1(3.4)	21(5.7)	22(5.5)
	Total	**29(100)**	**371(100)**	**400(100)**
Felling of trees during land clearing	No Formal Education	8(66.7)	86(22.2)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	3(25.0)	233(60.1)	236(59.0)
	Secondary/Senior High School	0(0)	47(12.1)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	1(8.3)	21(5.4)	22(5.5)
	Total	**12(100)**	**388(100)**	**400(100)**

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Table 17: Continued

Burning of debris	No Formal Education	13(48.1)	81(21.7)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	8(29.6)	228(61.1)	236(59.0)
	Secondary/Senior High School	3(11.1)	44(11.8)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	3(11.1)	19(5.1)	22(5.5)
	Total	**27(100)**	**373(100)**	**400(100)**
Planting of seedlings	No Formal Education	34(36.2)	60(19.6)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	43(45.7)	193(63.1)	236(59.0)
	Secondary/Senior High School	12(12.8)	35(11.4)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	5(5.3)	17(5.6)	22(5.5)
	Total	**94(100)**	**306(100)**	**400(100)**
Weeding	No Formal Education	34(31.2)	60(20.6)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	62(56.9)	174(59.8)	236(59.0)
	Secondary/Senior High School	8(7.3)	39(13.4)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	5(4.6)	17(5.8)	22(5.5)
	Total	**109(100)**	**291(100)**	**400(100)**
Cutting of chupons	No Formal Education	14(46.7)	80(21.6)	80(21.6)
	Elementary	13(43.3)	223(60.3)	223(60.3)
	Secondary/Senior High School	2(6.7)	45(12.2)	45(12.2)
	Tertiary	1(3.3)	21(5.7)	21(5.7)
	Total	**30(100)**	**370(100)**	**370(100)**
Cuttings of mistletoes	No Formal Education	8(66.7)	86(22.2)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	3(25.0)	233(60.1)	236(59.0)
	Secondary/Senior High School	0(0)	47(12.1)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	1(8.3)	21(5.4)	22(5.5)
	Total	**12(100)**	**388(100)**	**400(100)**
Fertilizer application	No formal education	17(43.6)	77(21.3)	94(23.5)
	Elementary	16(41.0)	220(60.9)	236(59.0)
	secondary/senior high school	3(7.7)	44(12.2)	47(11.8)
	Tertiary	3(7.7)	19(5.3)	22(5.5)
	Total	**39(100)**	**361(100)**	**400(100)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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They noted that farmers with low level of education may require longer time lag to assimilate and allocate feature that characterized child labour.

Years of farming experience of respondents

The majority (95.5%) of the respondents have had over five years of farming experience. This is consistent with Dankwa (2003) who found out in his survey that majority (80.7%) of the cocoa farmers had worked between 10 and 40 years. This considerable amount of experience may foster adoption of cocoa technologies. Anang, Fordjour and Fiatusey (2011) also found that about 25.5% of their respondents were experienced cocoa farmers with more than 21years in cocoa production in Central Region of Ghana.

Table 19: *Frequency Distribution of Years of Farming Experience of Respondents*

Years in farming	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percentage
0-4	18	4.5	4.50
5-9	48	12.0	16.50
10-14	65	16.2	32.70
15-19	78	19.5	52.20
20 and above	191	47.8	100.00
Total	400	100.00	

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Table 19 shows the cross tabulation between farmer's experience in cocoa production and engagement of child labour in cocoa production activity.

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The results indicate that few 14 (48.3%) of the farmers who often engage children in their cocoa farms have 20 years and above experience in cocoa production. Few less (10.3%) experience farmers (0-4years) engage children during land preparation. The most (65.5%) experienced farmers engage child labour in initial clearing.

The results indicate that 109 (27.25%) of the farmers do engage children in their cocoa farms for weeding, despite the fact that weeding is specifies as one of the activities hazardous for children working in cocoa production. Hazardous because implements for weeding are normally very sharp, and children may not be very experienced enough to handle them. The study indicated that the more farmers' have experience the more they tend to increase the number of children they engage in their cocoa production.

This finding is similar to the surveys conducted by Asuming-Brempong et al., (2007), who indicated that experienced farmers are careful in the engagement of children for activities on cocoa farms and try not to over burden them.

Farm sizes of respondents

Table 20 show that the majority (68.5%) of the respondents had farms with sizes below 15 acres (6.0 hectares). According to MMYE (2007), cocoa farmers in Ghana are generally smallholders, who operate mainly on family lands, and cultivate acreages that range from about three acres or less in the Eastern and Ashanti regions, to about mostly ten to twenty acres in the Western North and Western South regions.

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Table 20: *Experience in Cocoa Farming and Engagement of Child Labour in Cocoa Production*

Activities	Experience in cocoa farming (Years)	Response		
		Yes	No	Total
Initial land clearing	0-4	3(10.3)	15(4.0)	18(4.5)
	5-9	4(13.8)	44(11.9)	48(12.0)
	10-14	3(10.3)	62(16.7)	65(16.3)
	15-19	5(17.2)	73(19.7)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	14(48.3)	177(47.7)	191(47.8)
	Total	29(100)	371(100)	400(100)
Felling of trees during land clearing	0-4	0(0)	18(4.6)	18(4.5)
	5-9	2(16.7)	46(11.9)	48(12.0)
	10-14	1(8.3)	64(16.5)	65(16.3)
	15-19	1(8.3)	77(19.8)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	8(66.7)	183(47.2)	191(47.8)
	Total	12(100)	388(100)	400(100)
Burning of debris	0-4	0(0)	18(4.8)	18(4.5)
	5-9	2(7.4)	46(12.3)	48(12.0)
	10-14	7(25.9)	58(15.5)	65(16.3)
	15-19	8(29.6)	70(18.8)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	10(37.0)	181(48.5)	191(47.8)
	Total	27(100)	373(100)	400(100)
Planting of seedlings	0-4	2(2.1)	16(5.2)	18(4.5)
	5-9	9(9.6)	39(12.7)	48(12.0)
	10-14	15(16.0)	50(16.3)	65(16.3)
	15-19	25(26.6)	53(17.3)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	43(45.7)	148(48.4)	191(47.8)
	Total	94(100)	306(100)	400(100)
Weeding	0-4	2(1.8)	16(5.5)	18(4.5)
	5-9	10(9.2)	38(13.1)	48(12.0)
	10-14	18(16.5)	47(16.2)	65(16.3)
	15-19	28(25.7)	50(17.2)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	51(46.8)	140(48.1)	191(47.8)
	Total	109(100)	291(100)	400(100)
Cutting of chupons	0-4	0(0)	18(4.9)	18(4.5)
	5-9	1(3.3)	47(12.7)	48(12.0)
	10-14	6(20.0)	59(15.9)	65(16.3)
	15-19	9(30.0)	69(18.6)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	14(46.7)	177(47.8)	191(47.8)
	Total	30(100)	370(100)	400(100)
Cuttings of mistletoes	0-4	0(0)	18(4.6)	18(4.5)
	5-9	1(8.3)	47(12.1)	48(12.0)
	10-14	3(25.0)	62(16.0)	65(16.3)
	15-19	1(8.3)	77(19.8)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	7(58.3)	184(47.4)	191(47.8)
	Total	12(100)	388(100)	400(100)
Fertilizer application	0-4	1(2.6)	17(4.7)	18(4.5)
	5-9	4(10.3)	44(12.2)	48(12.0)
	10-14	9(23.1)	56(15.5)	65(16.3)
	15-19	9(23.1)	69(19.1)	78(19.5)
	20 and above	16(41.0)	175(48.5)	191(47.8)
	Total	39(100)	361(100)	400(100)

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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A few outliers may operate farms that are less than an acre, or up to about a hundred acres or more in some cases. There are therefore no cocoa farm plantations in Ghana. Edwin and Master (2003) also found from their survey that the average land size of cocoa farmers was 3.50 ha (8.8 acres). The current measurement of all cocoa farms by Cocoa Health and Extension Division (CHED) of COCOBOD indicates that over 80% of farmers have farms which are less than 4.0 hectares (10 acres).

Table 21: *Frequency distribution of Farm sizes of respondents*

Farm size (Acres)	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-5 acres	87	21.8	21.8
6-10 acres	134	33.5	55.2
11-15 acres	53	13.2	68.5
16-20 acres	43	10.8	79.2
Above 20 acres	83	20.8	100.0
Total	400	100.0	

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

The majority of the respondents who often engage services of children in cocoa production have farm size ranging from 1-10 acres. Land preparation activities in cocoa production in West Africa include land clearing, felling of trees during land clearing, burning of debris. Involvement of children in land clearing in the study area was found to be more half in cocoa farm ranging from 1-10 acres as compared with those with 11 and above acres partially engage services of children. The interviewed respondents were also asked about involvement of child labour in planting of seedlings. The percentage is 51%forfarm size 1-10 acres, whereas one-fourth of the child labour is engaged in farm size of 20 and above acres.

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The study also reveals that over one-fourth of the 400 respondents engage children in weeding, with more than half engage by respondents with cocoa farms ranging from 1-10 acres. Sanitation such as Cutting of chupons, and mistletoe control are done by a small percentage of children working in cocoa production.

Table 22: *Estimated Size of Cocoa Farm and Engagement of Child Labour in Cocoa Production*

Activities	Estimated size of cocoa farm (Acres)	Response		Total
		Yes	**No**	
Initial land clearing	1-5	10(34.5)	77(20.8)	87(21.8)
	6-10	7(24.1)	127(34.2)	134(33.5)
	11-15	2(6.9)	51(13.7)	53(13.5)
	16-20	3(10.3)	40(10.8)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	7(24.1)	76(20.5)	83(20.8)
	Total	**29(100)**	**371(100)**	**400(100)**
Felling of trees during land clearing	1-5 acres	2(16.7)	85(21.9)	87(21.8)
	6-10	4(33.3)	130(33.5)	134(33.5)
	11-15	1(8.3)	52(13.4)	53(13.5)
	16-20	1(8.3)	42(10.8)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	4(33.3)	79(20.4)	83(20.8)
	Total	**12(100)**	**388(100)**	**400(100)**
Burning of debris	1-5	9(33.3)	78(20.9)	87(21.8)
	6-10	8(29.6)	126(33.8)	134(33.5)
	11-15	3(11.1)	50(13.4)	53(13.5)
	16-20	2(7.4)	41(11.0)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	5(18.5)	78(20.9)	83(20.8)
	Total	**27(100)**	**373(100)**	**400(100)**
Planting of seedlings	1-5	18(19.1)	69(22.5)	87(21.8)
	6-10	30(31.9)	104(34.0)	134(33.5)
	11-15	13(13.8)	40(13.1)	53(13.5)
	16-20	10(10.6)	33(10.8)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	23(24.5)	60(19.6)	83(20.8)
	Total	**94(100)**	**306(100)**	**400(100)**
Weeding	1-5	26(23.9)	61(21.0)	87(21.8)
	6-10	36(33.0)	98(33.7)	134(33.5)
	11-15	14(12.8)	39(13.4)	53(13.5)
	16-20	12(11.0)	31(10.7)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	21(19.3)	62(21.3)	83(20.8)
	Total	**109(100)**	**291(100)**	**400(100)**
Cutting of chupons	1-5	3(10.0)	84(22.7)	87(21.8)
	6-10	9(30.0)	125(33.8)	134(33.5)
	11-15	7(23.3)	46(12.4)	53(13.5)
	16-20	2(6.7)	41(11.1)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	9(30.0)	74(20)	83(20.8)
	Total	**30(100)**	**370(100)**	**400(100)**

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Table 23: (Continued)

Cuttings of mistletoes	1-5	1(8.3)	86(22.2)	87(21.8)
	6-10	4(33.3)	130(33.5)	134(33.5)
	11-15	4(33.3)	49(12.6)	53(13.5)
	16-20	2(16.7)	41(10.6)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	1(8.3)	82(21.1)	83(20.8)
	Total	**12(100)**	**388(100)**	**400(100)**
Fertilizer application	1-5	8(20.5)	79(21.9)	87(21.8)
	6-10	11(28.2)	123(34.1)	134(33.5)
	11-15	6(15.4)	47(13.0)	53(13.5)
	16-20	5(12.8)	38(10.5)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	9(23.1)	74(20.5)	83(20.8)
	Total	**39(100)**	**361(100)**	**400(100)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

The study indicates that around 57.2% of children working in cocoa farms of size ranging from 1-10 acres participated in the harvesting of cocoa pods. Gathering and heaping of pods had close to 50% of 400 child labour involvement. Breaking cocoa pods and assisting in their fermentation process continues to be done by more than half of children working in cocoa, similar to the cocoa harvest activities, a relatively half percentage of children working in cocoa production are engaged by respondents with farm size 1-10 acres. Such children are engaged in post-harvest activities such as carting fermented cocoa beans, drying and sorting of beans, as well as carting of dry beans for sale (Table 23). This research affirmed the findings of Amoah (1995) which indicated that after harvest, cocoa beans undergo a number of steps prior to processing, the farm-based work of cultivating and harvesting cocoa is labour-intensive.

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Table 24: *Estimated Sizes of Cocoa Farms of Respondents' and Engagement of Child Labour in Cocoa Production*

Activities	Estimated size of cocoa farm (Acres)	Response		
		Yes	No	Total
Application of pesticides/insecticides	1-5	6(37.5)	81(21.1)	87(21.8)
	6-10	7(43.8)	127(33.1)	134(33.5)
	11-15	1(6.3)	52(13.5)	53(13.5)
	16-20	0(0)	43(11.2)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	2(12.5)	81(21.1)	83(20.8)
	Total	**16(100)**	**384(100)**	**400(100)**
Harvesting of pods	1-5	17(24.3)	70(21.3)	87(21.8)
	6-10	23(32.9)	111(33.7)	134(33.6)
	11-15	11(15.7)	41(12.5)	52(13.0)
	16-20	6(8.6)	37(11.2)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	13(18.6)	70(21.3)	83(20.8)
	Total	**70(100)**	**329(100)**	**399(100)**
Gathering and heaping of pods	1-5	44(22.6)	43(21.0)	87(21.8)
	6-10	66(33.8)	68(33.2)	134(33.5)
	11-15	30(15.4)	23(11.2)	53(13.3)
	16-20	22(11.3)	21(10.2)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	33(16.9)	50(24.4)	83(20.8)
	Total	**195(100)**	**205(100)**	**400(100)**
Breaking of pods	1-5	35(28.9)	52(18.6)	87(21.8)
	6-10	44(36.4)	90(32.3)	134(33.5)
	11-15	14(11.6)	39(14.0)	53(13.3)
	16-20	13(10.7)	30(10.8)	43(10.8)
	above 20	15(12.4)	68(24.4)	83(20.8)
	Total	**121(100)**	**279(100)**	**400(100)**
Fermentation	1-5	16(22,9)	71(21.5)	87(21.8)
	6-10	29(41.4)	105(31.8)	134(33.5)
	11-15	8(11.4)	45(13.6)	53(13.3)
	16-20	9(12.9)	34(10.3)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	8(11.4)	75(22.7)	83(20.8)
	Total	**70(100)**	**330(100)**	**400(100)**
Drying and sorting of beans	1-5	16(27.1)	71(20.8)	87(21.8)
	6-10	18(30.5)	116(34.0)	134(33.5)
	11-15	6(10.2)	47(13.8)	53(13.3)
	16-20	7(11.9)	36(10.6)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	12(20.3)	71(20.8)	83(20.8)
	Total	59(100)	341(100)	400(100)
Bagging of dried cocoa beans	1-5	13(17.1)	74(22.8)	87(21.8)
	6-10	26(34.2)	108(33.3)	134(33.5)
	11-15	11(14.5)	42(13.0)	53(13.3)
	16-20	9(11.8)	34(10.5)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	17(22.4)	66(20.4)	83(20.8)
	Total	**76(100)**	**324(100)**	**400(100)**
Carting of dry beans for sale	1-5	11(16.7)	76(22.8)	87(21.8)
	6-10	23(34.8)	111(33.2)	134(33.5)
	11-15	7(10.6)	46(13.8)	53(13.3)
	16-20	10(15.2)	33(9.9)	43(10.8)
	Above 20	15(22.7)	68(20.4)	83(20.8)
	Total	**66(100)**	**334(100)**	**400(100)**

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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Land ownership of respondents

In Table 23, the majority (70.5%) of the respondents possess their own lands. Sharecroppers are mainly migrant caretaker farmers who do not have lands of their own. According to MMYE (2008), this assertion brings to fore the fact that migrant farmers often take up the job of "caretaker" because migrants usually face difficulties accessing and owning land. According to Osei (1998), land owned by a clan should not be sold because it is said to belong to the clan members; the living, the dead and the unborn.

No individual can privately own this land but members of the clan have long term usufructuary rights. These usufructuary rights can be defined as the right of the individual citizen to cultivate the land and even to transmit this right by gift, will or inheritance to others. A non-citizen can purchase a usufructuary right or ask the local chief for permission to cultivate land in return for a part of the output. This system, called the 'abusa system' became prevalent in the cocoa growing areas in the 1930s (Boone, 2003).

Table 25*: Frequency Distribution of Land ownership of Respondents*

Ownership	Frequency	Percent
Own land	282	70.50
Sharecropper	43	10.75
Leased land	12	3.00
Family land	63	15.75
Total	400	100.00

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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Distinction between male and female cocoa farmers' engagement of child labour in cocoa production

Independent t-test was conducted to determine whether significant differences exist between the mean score of male and female cocoa farmers with respect to the use of child labour in cocoa production. There was not much difference between the mean score of male cocoa farmers ($\bar{X}$=1.37, SD= 0.36) on child labour use and that of female cocoa farmers ($\bar{X}$=1.25, SD= 0.42) on child labour use. Even though the means indicates that both males and females rarely used child labour, females used child labour more on their farms than their male counterparts

The result of the t-test run indicated that there was no significant difference at $p<0.05$ alpha level between male and female farmers in their use of child labour on their farms. The implication therefore is that the null hypothesis that was deduced for the objective five that; there was no significant difference between the male and female farmers in their use of child labour on their farms was accepted. The alternative hypothesis was rejected.

Table 26**:** *Independent Sample T-Test Comparing the Means between Male and Female Cocoa Farmers on Child Labour Use*

Sex of respondents	N	Mean	SD	Mean dif.	t	Sig.
Male	302	1.2457	.35788			
Female	98	1.3664	.41696	.12066	-2.530	0.13

Significance at alpha level = 0.05. 1=Nil, 2=Rarely, 3=Frequently and 4= Very frequently
Source: Field survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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The Perception on the Extent of Child Labour Use in Cocoa Production

The second objective was to determine the extent of child labour use in cocoa production. Table 25 shows the use of child labour in cocoa production. About 27.20% of the respondents agreed that they use child labour in weeding; about 49.0% agreed that they use child labour in gathering and heaping of pods and about 30.20% indicated that they use child labour in the breaking of cocoa pods.

Table 27: *Frequency of Cocoa Farmers' Perception of Child Labour Use*

Activities	Yes		No	
	F	%	F	%
Initial land clearing	29	7.20	371	92.80
Felling of tree during land clearing	12	3.00	388	97.00
Burning of debris	27	6.80	373	93.20
Planting of seedlings	94	23.50	306	76.50
Weeding	109	27.20	291	72.80
Cutting of chupons	30	7.50	370	92.50
Cutting of mistletoes	12	3.00	388	97.00
Fertilizer application	39	9.80	361	90.20
Application of pesticides/insecticides	16	4.00	384	96.00
Harvesting of pods	70	17.50	329	82.20
Gathering and heaping of pods	195	48.80	205	51.20
Breaking of pods	121	30.20	279	69.80
Fermentation	70	17.50	330	82.50
Drying and sorting of beans	59	14.80	341	85.20
Bagging of dried cocoa beans	76	19.00	324	81.00
Carting of dry beans for sale	66	16.50	334	83.50

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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According to MMYE (2006), the common activities, using this cut off participation rate, within the age groupings are the farm maintenance activities of weeding, water carrying for spraying; harvesting activities of pod gathering and heaping, pod breaking/fermentation and scooping of beans, and post-harvest activity of carting fermented beans. The larger proportion of these age groupings are found in weeding (27.2%), pod gathering and heaping (48.8%) and breaking of pods (30.2%). The implication is that as children age, more and more of them help in some activities on cocoa farms. It was clear from the results that child labour was not used much for difficult and delicate activities such as felling of trees during land clearing, burning of debris cutting of chupons, cutting of mistletoes, and application of fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides.

Levels of Child Labour Use in Cocoa Production in the Five Districts of Sefwi Area

The third objective of the study was to compare the levels of child labour use in cocoa production in the five districts of Sefwi area.

Extent of child labour use

The extent of child labour use in Cocoa Production can be determined from Table 26 below. From table 26, 95 of the respondents indicated that they rarely use child labour in planting of seedlings representing 23.8% and additional 43 (10.8%) of the respondents also asserted that they use child labour in planting of seedlings. Sixty-one (15.2%) of the respondents agreed that they rarely use child labour in weeding and additional 50 (12.5%) of the respondents also agreed that they frequently use child labour in weeding.

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Table 28: *Frequency Distribution of the Extent of Child Labour Use*

	N		R		F		VF	
Activity	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%
Initial Land Clearing	372	93.00	22	5.50	5	1.25	1	0.25
Felling of tree during land clearing	385	96.25	14	3.50	1	0.25	0	0
Burning of debris	370	92.50	22	5.50	6	1.50	2	0.50
Planting of seedlings	258	64.50	95	23.75	43	10.75	4	1.00
Weeding	285	71.25	61	15.25	50	12.50	4	1.00
Cutting of chupons	372	93.00	19	4.75	8	2.00	1	0.25
Cutting of mistletoes	381	95.25	12	3.00	5	1.25	2	0.50
Fertilizer Application	358	89.50	27	6.75	15	3.75	0	0
Application of pesticides /insecticides	380	95.00	16	4.00	4	1.00	0	0
Harvesting of pods	302	75.50	68	17.00	30	7.50	0	0
Gathering and Heaping of pods	194	48.50	106	26.50	83	20.75	16	4.00
Breaking of Pods	270	67.50	68	17.00	57	14.25	5	1.25
Fermentation	323	80.75	33	8.25	40	10.00	4	1.00
Drying and Sorting of Beans	319	79.75	39	9.75	36	9.00	6	1.50
Bagging of dried cocoa beans	324	81.00	34	8.50	34	8.50	8	2.00
Carting of dry beans for sale	332	83.00	28	7.00	34	8.50	6	1.50

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)
N=Nil, R=Rarely, F=frequently and VF= Very frequently

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Sixty-eight of the respondents agreed that they rarely use child labour in harvesting of pods representing 17.0% and additional 30 of the respondents also indicated that they frequently use child labour in harvesting of pods representing 7.5%.

One hundred and six of the respondents agreed that they rarely use child labour in gathering and heaping of pods representing 26.6% and additional 83 of the respondents also indicated that they frequently use child labour in gathering and heaping of pods representing 20.8%. Sixty-eight of the respondents agreed that they rarely use child labour in gathering and breaking of pods representing 17.0% and additional 57 of the respondents also indicated that they frequently use child labour in gathering and heaping of pods representing 14.2%.

Extent of child labour use according to respondents ratings

In relation to the extent of child labour use according to respondents ratings, Table 27 shows the extent of labour use is arranged in a descending order according to the respondents' ratings. The respondents rated gathering and heaping of pods as 'rarely' ($\bar{X}$=1.80, SD=0.90). The standard deviation of 0.90 shows that the respondents were mostly unanimous in their opinion on the extent of labour use.

According to MMYE, (2008), in terms of the involvement of children in cocoa production, it was observed that children of all age groupings are involved in the various cocoa activities. The involvement however differs by activity and age group, and as the children age, their involvement in cocoa farming activities also intensifies. The larger proportion of these age groups are found in weeding (50-75 percent), carrying water for spraying (61-73

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percent), pod gathering and heaping (84-89 percent), bean scooping (58-65 percent) and carting fermented beans (50-74 percent).

Table 29**:** *Means and Standard Deviation of Extent of Child Labour Use*

Activity	$\bar{X}$	SD
Gathering and heaping of pods	1.8020	0.90415
Breaking of pods	1.4925	0.78197
Planting of seedlings	1.4825	0.72526
Weeding	1.4325	0.74621
Drying and sorting of beans	1.3225	0.69980
Harvesting of pods	1.3200	0.60706
Bagging of dried cocoa beans	1.3150	0.71207
Fermentation	1.3125	0.68995
Carting of dry beans for sale	1.2850	0.68186
Fertilizer application	1.1425	0.44462
Burning of debris	1.1000	0.38778
Cutting of chupons	1.0950	0.37594
Initial land clearing	1.0875	0.34662
Cutting of mistletoes	1.0700	0.34699
Application of pesticides/insecticides	1.0600	0.27675
Felling of trees during land clearing	1.0400	0.20859

n= 400 Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)
1=Nil, 2=Rarely, 3=Frequently and 4= Very frequently

Pod plucking, drying of beans and carting dry beans for sale dominate among the 13-14 and 15-17 age groups.

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Table 30: *ANOVA to Compare the Means between the Selected Districts on Levels of Child Labour Use and Factors that Contribute to Child Labour in Cocoa Production*

Districts	N	Mean	SD	F	Sig
Bibiani	80	1.4705	.37842		
Wiawso	80	1.0477	.06615	20.108	.000
Juaboso	80	1.1445	.26133		
Bia	80	1.3383	.48297		
Akontombra	80	1.3609	.37288		

Significant at alpha level = 0.05

Source: Field survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene's Statistic	**Sig.**
38.365	0.000

P< 0.05 **Equal variance not assumed**

Table 28 shows results of an ANOVA run to compare the means of child labour use in cocoa production in the five districts. It was observed that significant differences existed amongst the five districts. A further analysis was conducted to identify where the significant difference existed with the post hoc test using the Tamhane's T2.

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Table 31: *Tamhane's T2 Post Hoc Multiple Comparison of Means*

District		Mean Difference		
A	B	(A-B)	Std. error	Sig.
Bibiani	Wiawso	.42281*	.04295	.000
	Juaboso	.32594*	.05142	.000
	Bia	.13219	.06860	.437
	Akontombra	.10953	.05940	.500
Wiawso	Juaboso	-.09688*	.03014	.018
	Bia	-.29063*	.05450	.000
	Akontombra	-.31328*	.04234	.000
Juaboso	Bia	-.19375*	.06140	.020
	Akontombra	-.21641*	.05091	.000
Bia	Akontombra	-.02266	.06822	1.000

Source: Field survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013) $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed)

From Table 29, significant difference existed between Bibiani and Wiawso districts (.000) and Bibiani and Juaboso districts (.000). There was also significant difference that existed between Wiawso and Juaboso districts (.018), Wiawso and Bia districts (.000) and Wiawso and Akontombra districts (.000). Additionally, there was also significant difference that existed between Juaboso and Bia districts (.020) and Juaboso and Akontombra districts (.000).

Farmers' level of Awareness of strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour in cocoa production

The objective five was to identify farmers' level of awareness of strategies to address child labour. This section addresses the objective with the support of the data collected.

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The awareness of strategies for dealing with child labour use

In Table 30, about 39.0% of the respondents were somewhat aware of legislation on child labour use and majority (59.0%) of the respondents, also were aware of law enforcement to prevent child labour use. Additionally, 59.0% of the respondents about were also aware of family planning programmes for farmers and 48.0% also agreed to the need to mainstream child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies.

The majority (50.5%) of the respondents representing were aware of the need to create alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels and 61.0% of the respondents were also aware of the importance of farmer education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc). Additionally, 63.0% of the respondents thus about were aware of the need for the expansion of educational facilities for every child to benefit while 41.0% were also aware that the formation of monitoring and evaluation committee at the district level for child labour monitoring will be extremely beneficial.

Fifty-three percent of the respondents were aware that the formation of monitoring and evaluation committee at the national level for child labour monitoring will be extremely beneficial. Finally, 52.0% of the respondents were also aware of the international commitments for the elimination of child labour.

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Table 32: *Frequency Distribution of the Awareness of Strategies for Dealing with Child Labour Use*

Strategies	N		S		A		H	
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
Legislation on child labour use	39	9.8	154	38.7	137	34.2	68	17.1
Law enforcement to prevent child labour use	50	12.5	44	11	234	58.6	71	17.8
Family planning programmes for farmers	54	13.5	56	14	237	59.4	52	13
Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies	71	17.8	117	29.4	191	48	9	4.8
Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels	46	11.5	67	16.8	202	50.5	85	21.2
Education(sensitization of farmers through Fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc)	14	3.5	30	7.5	245	61.2	111	27.8
Expansion of Educational opportunities for children	24	6	36	9	250	62.8	88	22.1
Monitoring and evaluation committee at the district level	112	28.3	89	22.5	163	40.7	36	8.5
Monitoring and evaluation at the national level	83	20.8	89	22.3	210	52.6	17	4.2
International commitments	82	20.6	82	20.6	205	51.5	29	7.3

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie – Otoo (2013)
1=Not aware (N):2= somewhat aware(S):3=Aware (A):4=highly aware (H)

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In Table 31, the awareness of strategies for dealing with child labour use is arranged in a descending order according to the respondents' ratings. The respondents were aware of the benefit of education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc) for the elimination of child labour ($\bar{X}$=3.13, SD=0.69). The respondents were also aware that the expansion of educational facilities for children will reduce children's lack of access to education ($\bar{X}$=3.01, SD=0.74). Additionally, the respondents were also aware of legislation on child labour use ($\bar{X}$=2.89, SD=0.88).

ILO (1999) recommended some basic strategies for dealing with child labour. It involves the enhancement of knowledge-base on child labour which includes the following:

a. Conduct surveys to know the extent of prevalence and incidence of child labour.
b. Capacity building training for opinion leaders and key actors.
c. Organization of awareness and sensitization programmes through farmers' rallies and radio programmes etc.
d. Use all available means to create awareness and sensitization on child labour.
e. Capacity building training for opinion leaders and key actors.
f. Organization of awareness and sensitization programmes through farmers' rallies and radio programmes etc.

Use all available means to create awareness and sensitization on child labour. On policy issues, ILO (1999) also recommended the strengthening of the legal framework to deal with Child Labour by adopting the following;

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Table 33: *Means and Standard Deviation of the Awareness of Strategies for Dealing with Child Labour Use*

Strategies	$\bar{X}$	SD
Education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc)	3.1325	.69002
Expansion of educational opportunities for children	3.0101	.74435
Legislation on child labour use	2.8922	.87736
Law enforcement to prevent child labour use	2.8170	.87057
Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels	2.8150	.89877
Family planning programmes for farmers	2.7193	.85737
International commitments	2.4548	.89876
Monitoring and evaluation at the national level	2.4035	.86244
Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies	2.3970	.83270
Monitoring and evaluation committees at the district level	2.2904	.96732

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)
1=Not aware (N) 2= Somewhat aware (S) 3=Aware (A) 4=Highly aware (HA)

a) Empower the law enforcement agencies to enforce existing laws.

b) Development of bye-laws at the district and community levels and enforce them.

c) Social Mobilization (empowering community members to act e.g. putting farmers into groups to act)

d) Promotion of Universal Basic Education (Enrolment drive, attendance, retention etc)

e) Promote the use of labour saving technologies

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f) Improving the income of farmers or guardians of children in labour or at risk (creating additional livelihood programmes for them)

Farmers' knowledge level on strategies for dealing with child labour use

In Table 32, 50.0% of the respondents indicated that they were knowledgeable in the legislation on child labour use and 51.0% also were knowledgeable in the law enforcement to prevent child labour use. Additionally, majority of the respondents, 57.8% were knowledgeable of family planning programmes for farmers' while 47.0% also were also knowledgeable of the need to mainstream child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies.

The majority 53.5% of the respondents were knowledgeable of the need to create alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels whiles 64.0% were also knowledgeable of the importance of farmer education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc). Additionally, 62.0% of the respondents were also knowledgeable of the need for the expansion of educational facilities for every child to benefit and while 42.0% were also knowledgeable that the formation of monitoring and evaluation committee at the district level for child labour monitoring will be extremely beneficial.

Fifty-one percent of the respondents were knowledgeable that the formation of monitoring and evaluation committee at the national level for child labour monitoring will be extremely beneficial. Finally, 51.0% of the respondents were also knowledgeable of the international commitments for the elimination of child labour.

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Table 34: *Frequency Distribution of the Knowledge Level of Strategies for Dealing With Child Labour Use*

Strategies	N		S		A		H	
	f	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
Legislation on child labour use	53	13.3	65	16.2	201	50.2	79	19.8
Law enforcement to prevent child labour use	48	12	86	21.5	204	51	62	15.5
Family planning programmes for farmers	50	12.5	59	14.8	230	57.5	61	15.2
Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies	65	16.3	126	31.5	188	47	20	5
Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels	38	9.5	69	11.2	214	53.5	76	19.1
Education(sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc)	13	3.2	42	10.5	256	64.2	88	22.1
Expansion of educational opportunities for children	27	6.8	54	13.5	247	61.8	72	18
Monitoring and evaluation committee at the district level	107	26.8	104	26	169	42.2	20	5
Monitoring and evaluation at the national level	84	21	103	25.8	204	51	9	2.2
International commitments	83	20.8	99	24.8	202	50.5	15	3.8

n= 400. 1=Not Knowledgeable (NK), 2=Somewhat Knowledgeable (SK), 3=Knowledgeable (K) 4=Highly Knowledgeable (HK)

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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From Table 33, the respondents indicated that were knowledgeable of the benefit of education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc) for the elimination of child labour ($\bar{X}$=3.09, SD=0.69).

The respondents were also knowledgeable that the expansion of educational facilities for children will reduce lack of access to education ($\bar{X}$=3.04, SD=0.78). Additionally, the respondents were also knowledgeable of alternative programmes to improve income levels of farmers. On the basis of this experience, Jankanish 2007 highlighted key underlying principles that characterize some of the good practices that have been emerging, for example:

- Multi-sectoral approaches have a much more effective and sustained impact in the elimination and prevention of child labour, combining the involvement of relevant government line ministries, social partners and civil society
- Education is a necessary, but not sufficient, intervention in the case of children working in hazardous and exploitative labour. In addition to receiving education of good quality and relevance, working children also need to benefit from a protective rights-based environment and access to legal, health and other services child labour must be mainstreamed into Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP), EFA, national plans of action and other resource allocation frameworks
- Partnerships within the broader framework of the UN system and other international and national organizations must be actively pursued and implemented

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Table 35: *Means and Standard Deviation of the Knowledge Level of Strategies for Dealing with Child Labour Use*

Strategies	$\bar{X}$	Std. Deviation
Education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media)	3.0925	0.68930
Expansion of educational opportunities for children	3.0404	0.78491
Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels	2.9775	0.87114
Family planning programmes for farmers	2.8622	0.87600
Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies	2.6231	0.83902
Monitoring and evaluation committees at the district level	2.5875	0.92709
International commitments	2.5525	0.93511
Monitoring and evaluation at the national level	2.5450	0.89441

n= 400. 1=Not Knowledgeable (NK):2=Somewhat Knowledgeable (SK):3=Knowledgeable (K):4=Highly Knowledgeable (HK)

Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

- Particular attention should be paid to the situation of girls' work and education through gender specific strategies, and to the situation of particularly vulnerable groups of children, for example, the very young
- Formal education strategies are vital to the long-term success of interventions

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- Practices should be grounded in country-specific realities when dealing with the issue of child labour, while recognising broader issues that may go beyond any one specific country.

The extent of compliance of strategies for dealing with child labour use

Sixty percent of the respondents (60.0%) indicated that they have complied with the legislation on child labour use and 52.0% also rated that they had complied with the law enforcement to prevent child labour use. Additional 60.0% of the respondents indicated that they had complied with family planning programmes for farmers and about 55.0% also were also acknowledged the need comply with the benefit of mainstreaming child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies.

About 48.0% of the respondents had complied with the need to create alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels and also about 61.0% had complied on the importance of farmer education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc). Also, 57.0% of the respondents indicated that they had also complied to the need for the expansion of educational facilities for every child to benefit and about 52.0% had also complied with the formation of monitoring and evaluation committee at the district level for child labour monitoring will be extremely beneficial.

Lastly, 54.0% of the respondents indicated that they had complied with the formation of monitoring and evaluation committee at the national level for child labour monitoring will be extremely beneficial while about 51.0% had

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complied with the international commitments for the elimination of child labour.

Table 36: *Frequency Distribution of the Extent of Compliance to Strategies for Dealing with Child Labour Use*

Strategies	N		S		A		H	
	F	%	F	%	f	%	F	%
Legislation on child labour use	44	11.1	31	7.8	238	59.8	85	21.4
Law enforcement to prevent child labour use	56	14	49	12.2	206	51.6	88	22.1
Family planning programmes for farmers	51	12.8	31	7.8	239	59.9	78	19.5
Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies	52	13.1	87	21.9	218	54.8	41	10.3
Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels	31	7.8	63	15.8	190	47.5	116	29
Education(sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc)	12	3	42	10.5	243	60.8	103	25.8
Expansion of Educational opportunities for children	24	6.1	42	10.6	224	56.6	106	26.8
Monitoring and evaluation committee at the district level	73	18.2	69	17.2	208	52	50	12.5
Monitoring and evaluation at the national level	72	18	76	19	214	53.5	38	9.5
International commitments	77	19.2	73	18.2	202	50.5	48	12

1=Not Complied (N): 2=Somewhat Complied (SC):3=Complied(C):4=Fully complied (FC)

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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From Table 35, the extent of compliance of strategies for dealing with child labour use is arranged in a descending order according to the respondents' ratings. The respondents indicated their extent of compliance of the benefit of education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media etc) for the elimination of child labour ($\overline{X}$=3.09, SD=0.69).

The respondents also acknowledged their level of compliance that the expansion of educational facilities for children will reduce children's lack of access to education ($\overline{X}$=3.04, SD=0.78). Additionally, the respondents also acknowledged their extent of compliance on the creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels.

The respondents indicated that they have complied through farmer education and the provision of educational facilities to make education more accessible to children. There have been efforts by government and its development partners since the 1990s to address the issue of child labour starting with Street Children's programmes. These efforts have been accelerated since the year 2,000 to include all worst forms of child labour and child trafficking.

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Table 37: *Means and Standard Deviation of the Extent of Compliance to Strategies for Dealing with Child Labour Use*

Strategies	$\bar{X}$	Std. Deviation
Education (sensitization of farmers through fora, rallies, workshops, mass media)	3.0925	.68930
Expansion of educational opportunities for children	3.0404	.78491
Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels	2.9775	.87114
Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies	2.6231	.83902
Monitoring and evaluation committees at the district level	2.5875	.92709
International commitments	2.5525	.93511
Monitoring and evaluation at the national level	2.5450	.89441

1=Not Complied (N):2=Somewhat Complied (SC):3=Complied (C):4=Fully complied (FC)
n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

In Ghana, there are policies, legislation, programmes and activities in place which directly or indirectly address the issue of child labour. Specifically, Ghana's Constitution (1992) contains several clauses on child care and protection; the Children's Act (Act 560, 1998) is a comprehensive law that ensures children's rights and protection. The Human Trafficking Act (Act 694) was passed in 2005, while the Domestic Violence Law has been passed by Parliament in 2007 and will soon become law. The Whistle Blower's Bill that mandates citizens to report crime of any kind has also been introduced. Government Policies that directly impact on WFCL include the

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Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (GPRS 2) which prioritizes child labour as an issue for elimination, the Sector-Wide Education Policy to ensure Education for all by 2015, and the Capitation Grant (2005) which makes education free at Primary and Junior Secondary School levels.

Government also has put in place a broad institutional framework for addressing issues of child labour such as creating a Child Labour Unit in the year 2000, the establishment of a Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs in 2001, Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit (DOVVSU) of the Ghana Police (2000), Social Services Sub-Committee of Parliament, Child Panels in the District Assemblies and Child Labour Monitoring Systems in some districts. Government programmes that indirectly address child labour include the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) established in 2002 which provides unemployed youths with skills for employability. In its efforts to increase accessibility to primary schools and Junior Secondary Schools, the government has, since 2002 embarked on increasing school infrastructure in rural areas. This, together with the Capitation Grant, has greatly improved school enrolment in poor rural communities.

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Table 38: *Frequency Distribution of Extent of Agreement on Child Labour Use*

Statement	SD		D		A		SA	
	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%
Children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have illiterate parents	29	7.2	141	35.2	160	40	70	17.5
Children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production come from large families	21	5.2	178	44.5	171	42.75	30	7.5
Children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have unemployed parents	22	5.5	118	29.7	212	53.4	45	11.2
Parents who migrate to cities have their children below 18 years engaged in child Labour	80	20.2	170	42.8	111	28	36	9.1
Children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production are orphans	39	9.8	154	38.7	137	34.2	68	17.1
It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production	81	20.4	131	32.9	128	32.2	58	14.5
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not go to school	26	6.5	171	43.1	170	42.8	30	7.6
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school	56	14	157	39.3	162	40.6	24	6
Some cocoa farmers used their children in cocoa production because they may want to hand over their cocoa farm to them in future	95	23.8	161	40.4	87	21.8	56	14
Cocoa farmers who use children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted	29	7.3	51	12.8	192	48.1	127	31.8

1=Strongly disagree (SD) 2=Disagree (D) 3=Agree (A) 4=Strongly agree (SA)
n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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Extent of agreement on child labour use

In Table 36, about 40.0% of the respondents agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have illiterate parents and about 43.0% also agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production come from large families. Additionally, 53.0% of the respondents also agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have unemployed parents. Twenty-eight percent also agreed that parents who migrate to the cities have their children below 18 years engaged in child labour.

About 39.0% of the respondents disagreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production are orphans and about 33.0% also disagreed that it is cheaper to use children in cocoa production. Additionally, about 43.0% of the respondents disagreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production do not go to school and 41.0% of the respondents also agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production do not have access to school.

About 40.0% of the respondents disagreed that some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to hand over their cocoa farms to them in future and about 48.0% also agreed cocoa farmers who use children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted.

Extent of agreement of child labour use according to the respondents' ratings

The extents of agreement of child labour use according to respondents' ratings are described in the table below. From Table 37, the extent of

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agreement of child labour use is arranged in a descending order according to the respondents' ratings. The respondents agreed that cocoa farmers who use children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted ($\bar{X}$=3.04, SD=0.86).

Table 39: *Means and Standard Deviation of the Extent of Agreement of Child Labour Use*

Extent of Agreement of Child Labour Use	Mean	SD
Cocoa farmers who use children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted	3.0451	.85829
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have unemployed parents	2.7053	.73944
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have illiterate parents	2.6775	.84574
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production are orphans	2.5879	.88426
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production come from large families	2.5250	.71108
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not go to school	2.5139	.73025
It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production	2.4095	.97092
Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school	2.3860	.79975
Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future	2.2607	.97570
Parents who migrate to the cities have their children below 18 years engaged in child labour	2.2594	. 88231

1= Strongly disagree, (SD) 2=Disagree, (D) 3=Agree (A), 4=Strongly agree (SA)

n= 400. Source: Field Survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

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The respondents also agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have unemployed parents ($\bar{X}$=2.71, SD=0.74). Additionally, the respondents agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have illiterate parents ($\bar{X}$=2.68, SD=0.85) and children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production are orphans.

Relationship between the levels of child labour use and factors that contribute to child labour in cocoa production

The dependent variable was respondents mean perceived extent of use of child labour in cocoa production and the independent variables were the factors that contribute to child labour in cocoa production which has been grouped as respondents personal characteristics, respondents perception on the use of child labour in cocoa production and respondents knowledge about the strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour use in cocoa production. The independent variables that was significant at $p < 0.05$ alpha level with the dependent variable is shown in Table 38. (See Appendix B for the correlation of all the independent variables that were significant and those that were not significant with the dependent variable).

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Table 40: *Correlates of Child Labour Use in Cocoa Farming*

Variable	Y	X_1	X_2	X_3	X_4	X_5	X_6	X_7	X_8	X_9	X_{10}	X_{11}	X_{12}
Y	-												
X_1	-.150**	-											
X_2	-.105*	.089	-										
X_3	-.160**	.221**	.282**	-									
X_4	-.115*	.068	.028	.048	-								
X_5	-.153**	.023	-.134*	-.062	.088	-							
X_6	.340**	.002	.036	.111*	.031	-.059	-						
X_7	.222**	.140**	-.044	-.002	.186**	.227**	.319**	-					
X_8	.128*	-.165*	-.006	-.082	-.116*	.075	.316**	.010	-				
X_9	-.196**	.138**	-.003	.133**	161**	189**	-.242**	048	.298**	-			
X_{10}	-.256**	.241**	.058	.198**	.058	.032	-.330**	-.088	-.259**	.383**	-		
X_{11}	-.292**	.180**	.051	.131**	.122**	.199**	.348**	.046	.250**	.407**	.710**	-	
X_{12}	-.134**	.212**	.034	.005	.144**	.171**	-.034	.251**	-.151**	.201**	.328**	.377**	-

n= 400, Source: Field, survey, Nii Tackie – Otoo (2013) *P< 0.05(2-tailed),**P< 0.01(2-tailed)

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Respondents Personal and Farm Related Characteristics

$X_{1=}$Educational background

$X_{2=}$ Marital status of respondents

$X_{3=}$ Gender (males)

$X_{4=}$ Ownership of land

Respondents' perception on the use of child labour in cocoa production

$X_{5=}$ Parents who migrate to the cities have their children used below 18 years engaged in child labour

$X_{6=}$ It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production

$X_{7=}$ Children below 18 years used in cocoa production do not have access to school

$X_{8=}$ Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future

$X_{9=}$ Cocoa farmers who use Children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted

Knowledge of respondents of the strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour use in cocoa production

$X_{10=}$ Legislation on child labour use

$X_{11=}$ Law enforcement to prevent child labour use

$X_{12=}$ Expansion of educational opportunities for children

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In Table 38, the results of the correlation matrix computed for the independent variables factors that contribute to the perceived extent of use of child labour in cocoa production indicates that at alpha level of 0.05 and 0.01, there was negative and positive associations between the twelve variables (independent variables from the three groups of factors) that contribute to the use of child labour in cocoa production. The independent variables X_1,X_3, X_5,X_6,X_7,X_9,X_{10}, X_{11}andX_{12} were significant at $p< 0.01$ alpha level whereasX_2,X_4, and X_8were significant at $p< 0.05$ alpha level.

The result from the correlation analysis revealed that there was negative and low significant relationship between educational background (-.150) and the use of child labour in cocoa production. The implication is that the lower the educational background of the respondents the higher they use child labour in cocoa production; negative and low significant relationship between marital status (married=1, others=0), (-.105) and use of child labour in cocoa production. Here also farmers who are not married turn to use child labour in cocoa production than the married ones; negative and low significant relationship between gender (male=1,female=0) (-.160) and use of child labour in cocoa production.

This implies that females use child labour in cocoa production than males; negative and low significant relationship between ownership of land (owned land=1, care taker =0) (-.115) and use of child labour in cocoa production. The implication is that farmers who do not owned land for cocoa production turn to use child labour in cocoa production; negative and low significant relationship between parents who migrate to the cities have their children used below 18 years

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engaged in child labour (-.153) and use of child labour in cocoa production. The implication here also is that children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production are staying with their parents are in the communities; positive and substantial significant relationship between it is cheaper to use children in cocoa production (.340) and use of child labour in cocoa production.

The implication is that respondent cocoa farmers perceive child labour in cocoa farming to be cheap, therefore turn to use it relative to other source of labour; positive and low significant relationship between children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school (.222) and use of child labour in cocoa production; the implication is that children below18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school hence they are used in cocoa production activities; positive and low significant relationship between some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future (.128) and use of child labour in cocoa production.

This implies that cocoa farmers who want to hand over their cocoa farms to their children in future are likely to use child labour in cocoa production; negative and low significant relationship between cocoa farmers who use children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted (-.196) and use of child labour in cocoa production. The implication here also is that cocoa farmers that use of child labour in cocoa production are not arrested and prosecuted hence cocoa farmers take delight in using child labour in their

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production; negative and low significant relationship between legislation on child labour use (-.256) and use of child labour in cocoa production.

The implication is that no legislation on child labour use increases the use of charge labour in cocoa production ; negative and low significant relationship between law enforcement to prevent child labour use (-.292) and use of child labour in cocoa production. The implication here is that there is laxity in the law enforcement on child labour use in cocoa production cocoa farmers take advantage of it and use children below 18 years in cocoa production; negative and low significant relationship between expansion of educational opportunities for children (-.134) and use of child labour in cocoa production.

This implies that inadequate educational opportunities for children pave way for cocoa farmers to use them in cocoa production. In all, the implication of the relationships is that each of the factors (independent variables) is important in enhancing the contribution of child labour in cocoa production.

Best predictors of child labour use in cocoa production

All the twelve variables that had a significant relationship with the use of child labour in cocoa production were used to determine the best predictor(s) of the extent of use of child labour in cocoa production (Table 39). Also the collinearity diagnostic test conducted revealed that there was no significant collinearity among the independent variables that could bias the prediction. When collinearity occurs it is impossible to obtain a unique estimate of regression coefficients with all the independent variables in the model.

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Two commonly used measures for this test are tolerance (an indicator of how much collinearity that a regression analysis can tolerate) and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor- an indicator of how much of the inflation of the standard error could be caused by collinearity). Any predictor variable with VIF above 10 and a tolerance below 0.1 raises alarm for collinearity (Pallant, 2001). The test for VIF and tolerance of the explanatory variables (independent variables) had the following summary statistics:

Table 41: *Predictors and Collinearity Statistics for Child Labour Use*

Predictors	Collinearity statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
X_1	0.871	1.148
X_2	0.885	1.130
X_3	0.843	1.187
X_4	0.921	1.086
X_5	0.822	1.217
X_6	0.668	1.497
X_7	0.757	1.321
X_8	0.789	1.267
X_9	0.721	1.387
X_{10}	0.534	1.874
X_{11}	0.444	2.251
X_{12}	0.846	1.182

Therefore, it is justifiable to use all the independent variables for the prediction since their tolerance and VIF values are within the boundaries stated above. Gupta (2000) also stated that significant collinearity existed between independent variables if:

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Correlation co-efficient between any two variables is greater than 0.8 (in absolute terms) and from the correlation matrix in Table 45, it can be observed that there is no significant collinearity that may bias the prediction (i.e. correlations are less than 0.8). Table 40 presents a stepwise regression of the predictor variables on the use of child labour in cocoa production.

The results in Table 40 revealed that nine out of the twelve independent variables used for the prediction accounted significantly for respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production. These best predictors were: (1) It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production (2) expansion of educational opportunities for children,(3) law enforcement to prevent child labour use, (4) ownership of land, (5) parents who migrate to the cities have their children used below 18 years engaged in child labour, (6) gender (female), (7) children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school, (8) educational background and (9) some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future.

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Table 42: *Stepwise Regression of the Predictors of Child Labour Use in Cocoa Production*

Predictors	Step of Entry	Beta	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Adjusted R^2 change	S.E.E	F	Sig.
X_6	1	.146	.141	.139	.139	.3507	62.304	.000
X_{12}	2	.087	.170	.166	0.027	.3446	38.818	.000
X_{11}	3	-.088	.209	.202	0.036	.3369	33.232	.000
X_4	4	-.124	.230	.222	0.020	.3329	28.112	.000
X_5	5	-.060	.248	.238	0.016	.3294	24.793	.000
X_3	6	-.129	.269	.257	0.019	.3252	22.971	.000
X_7	7	.077	.289	.276	0.019	.3210	21.767	.000
X_1	8	-.065	.306	.291	0.015	.3177	20.523	.000
X_8	9	.047	.318	.301	0.010	.3153	19.266	.000

*P< 0.05(2-tailed), **P< 0.01(2-tailed)

n= 400, Source: Field survey, Nii Tackie-Otoo (2013)

Y= Extent of use of child labour in cocoa production (**Dependent variable**)

Predictors (Independent variables**)**

$X_{6=}$ It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production

$X_{12=}$ Expansion of Educational opportunities for children

$X_{11=}$ Law Enforcement to prevent child labour use

$X_{4=}$ Ownership of land

$X_{5=}$ parents who migrate to the cities have their children used below 18 years engaged in child labour

$X_{3=}$ Gender

$X_{7=}$ Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school

$X_{1=}$ Educational background

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$X_{8=}$ Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future

The lower R^2 in Table 40 is as a result of the nature of the survey. The survey tends to determine human behavior and reasoning why farmers engage child labour in cocoa production. Human reasoning and behavior was difficult to predict in the survey. However, R^2 values even though were low, have statistically significant predictors which was used to draw important conclusions about how the changes in predictor values are related with changes in the response value.

Regression Equation (from unstandardized Beta)

$Y= .920 +.146X_6 +.087X_{12} -.088X_{11}- .124X_4- .060X_5 -.129X_3+ .077X_7 - .065X_1 +.047X_8$. $Y= .920$, if $\beta_6= \beta_{12}= \beta_{11}= \beta_4= \beta_5= \beta_{3==} \beta_{7=} \beta_1 = \beta_{8=} 0$

It was found out that the nine independent variables together contributed for a total of 30.1% of all the variance in respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production. The amount of contribution each of the nine predictor variables made towards the 30.1% variance in the respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production is shown in the adjusted R^2 change column in Table 40. It is cheaper to use children in cocoa production was the overall best predictor, accounting for 13.9% of the variance in respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production. In addition expansion of educational opportunities for children was the second best predictor contributing approximately 3% of the variance in respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production.

This was followed by law enforcement to prevent child labour use which also accounted for 3.6% of the variance in respondents' use of child labour in

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cocoa production. Ownership of land, parents who migrate to the cities have their children used below 18 years engaged in child labour, Gender, Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school, Educational background and Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future also contributed 2%, 1.6%, 1.9%, 1.9%, 1.5%, and 1% respectively for respondents use of child labour in cocoa production. The individual values of the Standard Error of Estimates (S.E.E) also show relatively high accuracy of prediction in the regression model.

The overall best predictor (It is cheaper to use children in cocoa production) which accounted for the highest (13.9%) explanation in respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production happen to be the main trust of the reasons for the use of child labour in cocoa production components. The implication is that respondents see the use of child labour as a cheap and readily available source of labour in their production relative to other source of labour (Roger, 1995).

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of the study was to examine cocoa farmers perception of the factors associated with child labour use in cocoa production in the Sefwi area of the Western Region of Ghana. The study was also to determine the demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers in the Sefwi area and examined the perception of farmers on the use of child labour in cocoa production. The study also sought to identify the perceived factors that contributed to child labour use in cocoa production and compared the levels of child labour use in cocoa production in the five districts of Sefwi area namely Bia, Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai, Sefwi Wiawso, Akontombra and Juaboso districts.

Additionally, the study compared the difference between male and female cocoa farmers on child labour use in cocoa production and examined the effectiveness of strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour in cocoa production. Furthermore, the study was to determine the relationship between the levels of child labour use and factors that contribute to child labour in cocoa production and identify the best predictors of child labour use in cocoa production.

A descriptive correlational research design was used for the study. Eighty cocoa farmers were selected randomly from each of the five cocoa districts which ensured in the comparism of the differences in child labour use amongst the districts. An interview schedule was developed and used to collect data from the

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respondents. A pilot study was conducted in the Aowin-Suaman District before the actual study was commenced in the five districts. With the help of Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software percentages, frequencies and standard deviation were used to describe the data. The ANOVA and independent sample t-test were used to compare means whereas correlations and stepwise multiple regression was also used to determine relationships amongst the variables. The results of the study are summarized according to the objectives below:

Influence of demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers on the extent of child labour use

Objective one was to assess the influence of demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers on the extent of child labour use**.** The majority of the respondents were males (75.5%) and also (60.0%) of the respondents are aged between 30 and 59 years. Additionally, the majority of the respondents were married (84.25%) and had 5 or more children (62.0%).

A cross-tabulation between the various demographic characteristics showed that more male-headed households engage their children often in cocoa production activities compared to female-headed households. Age of farmers influence the involvement of child labour in cocoa production activity. Majority of respondents who involve child labour in cocoa production activity fall within the age group of 40-49 years whereas, those in the age group 20-29 years hardly engage child labour.

Respondents who engage their children very often in cocoa production

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activities significantly differ from each other in terms of marital status. Single parent households (20.7%) were engaged in child labour compared to respondents who are separated as well divorced parent households who strongly affirmed that they hardly entertain such engagement. Relatively high number of married couples interviewed fully engaged their children in application of pesticides/insecticides, harvesting of pods as well as post-harvest activities of cocoa. The percentage involvement of child labour in harvesting of pods, gathering and heaping of pods as well as breaking of pods as part of the harvesting activity in cocoa production engage was very high for married couple household. The percentages of children engaged in cocoa production activity are relatively higher in households with 5 - 8 children. Over 25% of the respondents affirmed the engagement of children during weeding in cocoa production.

The majority (65.5%) of the respondents who mostly engage children in cocoa farming activity have no formal education. With regards to felling of trees and burning of debris during land preparation, those with no formal education have higher percentage of child labour involvement. Pruning activity and fertilizer application have high level of child labour from farmers with no formal education. Lower levels of education translate into higher odds of child labour.

The results from the respondents years of experience indicate that majority 14(48.3%) of farmers who often engage children in their cocoa farms have 20 years and above experience in cocoa production. The least experience farmers (0-4years) seldom engaged children during land preparation. Other activity such as felling of trees, burning of debris, planting of seedlings, cutting of

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chupons, cutting of mistletoes and fertilizer application also recorded a similar trend. Nearly one-third (27 %) of the respondents do engage children in their cocoa farms for weeding, despite the fact that weeding is in the list specified as one of the hazardous activities for children working in cocoa production. Farmers' level of experience increases they tend to increase the number of children they engage in their cocoa production. The majority of the respondents who often engaged services of children in cocoa production had farm size ranging from 1-10 acres.

One-fourth of the respondents engaged children in weeding, with more than half being engaged by respondents with cocoa farms ranging from 1-10 acres. Sanitation such as cutting of chupons, and mistletoe control are done by a small percentage of children working in cocoa production. With regards to fertilizer application, about 49% of child labour is engaged by respondents with 1-10acres of cocoa farms. There were no significant differences between the male and female farmers' extent of use of child labour on their farms was upheld.

Perception of farmers and extent of child labour use in cocoa production

Objective two: This objective was to determine the extent of child labour use in cocoa production. About 27 % of the respondents asserted to the fact that they use child labour in weeding. Almost half (49%) of the respondents used child labour in gathering and heaping of pods about one-third (30%) also use child labour in the breaking of cocoa pods.

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Level of child labour use in cocoa production in the five districts of Sefwi area

Objective three was to compare the levels of child labour use in cocoa production in the five districts of Sefwi area. Even though farmers in the five districts rarely used child labour in their farms, ANOVA showed that there were significant differences amongst the five districts in terms of the extent of their use of child labour in cocoa production. A post hoc multiple comparisons showed that the significant difference existed between Bibiani and Wiawso districts and Bibiani and Juaboso districts. The extent of child labour use was highest in Bibiani district.

Farmers' level of awareness, knowledge and strategies for dealing with child labour

Objective four: This objective sought to examine farmers' level of awareness, knowledge and strategies for dealing with child labour in cocoa production. The majority (58.6%) of the respondents indicated that they were aware of law enforcement to prevent child labour use. About 60% were aware of family planning programmes for farmers as a strategy for dealing with the issue of child labour in cocoa production. Half of the respondents were aware of the need to create alternative livelihood programmes for farmers to improve their income levels.

Half of the respondents indicated that they were aware of the legislation on child labour use and, the law enforcement to prevent child labour use. Also, about 58% were knowledgeable of family planning programmes for farmers.

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In terms of the strategies for dealing with child labour use, about 60 percent of the respondents indicated that they have complied with the legislation on child labour use. A little over half (52 %) reported that they had complied with the law enforcement to prevent child labour use. Also about two-thirds of the respondents (60%) indicated that they had complied with family planning programmes for farmers and over half (55%) also acknowledged the need to comply with the benefit of mainstreaming child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies.

Factors that contribute to child labour use in cocoa production

Objective five was to identify the factors that contribute to child labour use in cocoa production. Majority of the respondents indicated that they engage children in cocoa production activities mainly during the weekends and during school holidays. About 40.0% of the cocoa farmers agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have illiterate parents and about 43% (171) of the respondents also agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production come from large families. More than half (53.4%) agreed that children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production have unemployed parents.

Best predictors of child labour use in cocoa production

There was negative and significant relationship between the extent of use of child labour in cocoa production and, educational background, married

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respondent. The implication is that the lower the educational background of the respondents, the higher they use child labour in cocoa production.

The results revealed that nine independent variable; (1) It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production (2) expansion of educational opportunities for children, (3) law enforcement to prevent child labour use, (4) ownership of land, (5) children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have their parents migrated to the cities,(6) gender (female), (7) children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school, (8) educational background and (9) some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future accounted significantly for respondents' use of child labour in cocoa production. The overall best predictor was: 'It is cheaper to use children in cocoa production'. Thus, labour cost is a good predictor of child labour use.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings of the study.

The age of farmers influence their involvement in child labour use in cocoa production. The young generation hardly uses Child Labour in Cocoa Production, whiles the older generation depends on Child Labour in Cocoa Production. Gender influences the involvement of child labour in cocoa production. Male-headed households engage child labour in cocoa production more than their female counterparts. Relatively high number of respondents who were married engaged their child labour in cocoa production as compared to single parent households.

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Households with more children engage child labour in cocoa production hence the more children the more child labour engagement in cocoa production. Cocoa farmers who do not have formal education engaged child labour in cocoa production. Therefore, the higher the educational level of the farmer, the less they are likely to engage their children in child labour in cocoa production. Farmers with lots of experience in Cocoa farming, (20 years and above) normally engage their children in child labour in cocoa production. There is a positive relationship between level of experience of farmers and the use of Child Labour. The higher the level of experience of farmers, the more they engage child labour in cocoa production. Farmers who engage their children in child labour in cocoa production have relatively farm sizes between 1 and 10 acres.

Farmers use child labour in all the activities involved in cocoa production such as weeding, gathering and heaping of pods as well as breaking of cocoa pods. However, they mostly used them in gathering and heaping of pods. Even though child labour used in cocoa production in all the 5 districts is not very alarming, however, amongst these five districts, child labour use was highest among cocoa farmers in Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai District. Most of the farmers were aware of the law enforcement to prevent child labour use, farmers' education through rallies, workshops and family planning programmes as strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour in cocoa production. Greater number of respondents were also aware of the need for the expansion of educational facilities for every child to benefit.

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Children below 18 years who are used in cocoa production come from large families and their parents are unemployed. There is a positive relationship between size of the families of farmers and the use of Child Labour. The larger the family size, the more they engage child labour in cocoa production. The higher the number of schools in the farming communities, the fewer farmers engages child labour in cocoa production.

Cocoa farmers who use child labour are basically Males, between the ages of 40-49 years, are married with large number of children as well as having large family size. These farmers also do not have formal education, but are experienced cocoa farmers. Factors including illiteracy of parents, larger families and unemployed parents influence the use of children in cocoa production. Apart from the these factors, these farmers see child labour as a source of cheap labour which makes it less expensive to engage them in cocoa production in cocoa growing areas.

Summary of respondents who used child labour in cocoa production

The respondents used child labour differently in the different activities involved in cocoa production out of the 400 respondents who participated in the research, 29 used child labour in land clearing 11 in the felling of trees during land clearing and 27 of them use children in the burning of debris. Additionally, 94 of the respondents used children in the planting of seedlings, 109 in weeding, 30 in the cutting of chupons and 12 in the removal of mistletoes. Moreover, 39 of the respondents use children in fertilizer application, 16 in pesticides/insecticides

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application, 70 in harvesting of pods, 195 in the gathering and heaping of pods and 121 used children in the braking of pods.

Finally, 70 of the respondents used children in fermentation, 59 in during and sorting of beans, 76 in the bagging of dried beans and 66 used children in the carting of dried beans for sale.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made on the basis of the findings of the study:

1. Cocoa farmers with low educational levels should be educated about the negative effects of child labour use in cocoa production. Peer farmers with higher levels of education who do not use child labour in cocoa production can be involved in this effort together with Community Extension Agents (CEAs) of Cocoa Health and Extension Division (CHED) of COCOBOD as facilitators of such educational programmes.
2. Since labour cost was found to be the best predictor of child labour use in cocoa production, the study recommends that technologies that reduces the requirement for much labour be made available and affordable to farmers. Farmers should be trained on such technologies by the CEAs of CHED of COCOBOD.
3. It is recommended that factors such as illiteracy of parents, larger families, cost of labour and unemployed parents that influences child labour use in cocoa production be given attention by stakeholders such as Government, Ghana Cocoa Board, Agencies and foreign partners. For example, illiterate

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parents could be enrolled in night school for them to experience the importance of education. Furthermore, unemployed parents could be trained in other alternative livelihood programmes so as to ensure that additional income is added to the family's income to make additional labour hiring available.

4. More and flexible educational units should be made accessible in cocoa producing areas for children to be enrolled in. Also recreational centres should be created to engage children during vacations and weekends. Educating children in the culture of farming and cocoa production should be channeled through such units and centres in their communities.
5. Campaigns against Child labour use in Cocoa Production and farming in general should be intensified by key stakeholders such as Government, Ghana Cocoa Board, Law Enforcement Agencies and foreign partners. This campaign should be available on local media platforms, farmers' rallies, and one on one interaction with community members.
6. Finally, there is the need for a broad-based consensus in addressing child labour in cocoa growing communities. This must also take place in the urban and peri-urban communities by the Government of Ghana through the Ministry of Gender and Social Protection. Such programmes are unlikely to be effective in the absence of household awareness and active participation of civil society and other social partners in implementing them or a higher political commitment to ensure that they are accorded priority in all national development addenda.

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Suggestions for Further Studies

- Giving the changing nature of demographic characteristics of cocoa farmers which have influence on the extent of child labour, a series of longitudinal studies should be conducted from time to time in order to document trends and also to increase the potential that information and literature regarding the demographic characteristics of the cocoa farmers and its relationship with child labour would be current and less bias.
- Further research should be carried out into child trafficking into cocoa growing areas and agriculture in general as well as worst forms of child labour.
- There should be further studies to determine the role of stakeholders in the elimination of child labour use in cocoa production and the interventions each stakeholder is pursuing presently.
- There should be further research to examine what alternative solutions could be put in place in order to reduce child labour use in cocoa production.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX: A

TOPIC: FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH CHILD LABOUR USE IN COCOA PRODUCTION IN THE SEFWI AREA OF THE WESTERN REGION OF GHANA

STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Name of Enumerator ……..

SECTION A: THE DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF COCOA FARMERS IN THE STUDY AREA

1. Name of Farmer ……
2. Sex (a) Male…… (b) Female……
3. Age of farmer at last birthday (Years)

a. 20 – 29 Years
b. 30 – 39 Years
c. 40 – 49 Years
d. 50 – 59 Years
e. 60 Years and above

4. Village/Community……
5. District ……
6. Marital Status of farmer

a. Single
b. Married
c. Divorced
d. Widowed
e. Separated

7. Number of Children

a. 1 – 2 Children
b. 3 – 4 Children
c. 5 – 6 Children

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d. 7 – 8 Children

e. 9 Children and above

8. Household Size

a. 1 – 4 Dependants

b. 5 – 8 Dependants

c. 9 – 12 Dependants

d. 13 – 16 Dependants

e. Above 17 Dependants

9. Ethnic Group

a. Sefwi

b. Brong

c. Asante

d. Dangme

e. Others (Specify)……

10. Educational Background of farmer

a. No Formal education

b. Elementary

c. Secondary/ Senior High School

d. Tertiary

e. Others (Specify)……

11. Years engaged in cocoa farming

a. 0 – 4 Years

b. 5 – 9 Years

c. 10 – 14 Years

d. 15 – 19 Years

e. 20 Years and above

12. Estimated size of cocoa farm (Acres)

a. 1 – 5 Acres

b. 6 – 10 ‘’

c. 11 – 15 ‘’

d. 16 – 20 ‘’

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e. Above 20 Acres

13. Ownership of land

a. Own land

b. Share Cropper

c. Leased land

d. Family land

e. Others (Specify) ……

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APPENDIX B:

THE PERCEPTION OF COCOA FARMERS ON THE FREQUENCY OF USE OF CHILD LABOUR IN COCOA PRODUCTION

Please indicate whether you have ever used children below the age of 18 years to carry out any of these activities in cocoa production using the following scale of frequency.

ACTIVITIES	YES	NO
14. Initial Land Clearing		
15. Felling of trees during land clearing		
16. Burning of debris		
17. Planting of Seedlings		
18. Weeding		
19. Cutting of chupons		
20. Cutting of mistletoes		
21. Fertilizer Application		
22. Application of pesticides/insecticides		
23. Harvesting of Pods		
24. Gathering and Heaping of Pods		
25. Breaking of Pods		
26. Fermentation		
27. Drying and Sorting of Beans		
28. Bagging of dried cocoa beans		
29. Carting of dry beans for sale		

How often do you use children below the age of 18 years to carry any of these activities in cocoa production?

FREQUENCY OF USE

1 = Never

2 = Rarely

3 = Frequently

4 = Very Frequently

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ACTIVITIES	1	2	3	4
30. Initial Land Clearing				
31. Felling of trees during land clearing				
32. Burning of debris				
33. Planting of Seedlings				
34. Weeding				
35. Cutting of chupons				
36. Cutting of mistletoes				
37. Fertilizer Application				
38. Application of pesticides/insecticides				
39. Harvesting of Pods				
40. Gathering and Heaping of Pods				
41. Breaking of Pods				
42. Fermentation				
43. Drying and Sorting of Beans				
44. Bagging of dried cocoa beans				
45. Carting of dry beans for sale				

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APPENDIX C:

THE FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO CHILD LABOUR USE IN COCOA PRODUCTION

When do you use children on your farm? Please tick applicable periods.

PERIOD	
46. During weekends	
47. During weekdays	
48. During vacation	
49. Anytime when I need their services	
50. Anytime when they are available	

Indicate your extent of agreement to the following statements in relation to Child Labour Use in Cocoa Production

RATINGS

1 - Strongly disagree

2 - Disagree

3 - Agree

4 - Strongly agree

STATEMENT	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
51. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have illiterate parents				
52. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production come from large families				
53. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have unemployed parents				
54. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production have their parents migrated to the cities				
55. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production are orphans				
56. It is more cheaper to use children in cocoa production				

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57. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not go to school				
58. Children below 18 years that are used in cocoa production do not have access to school				
59. Some cocoa farmers use their children in cocoa production because they may want to handover their cocoa farms to them in the future				
60. Cocoa farmers who use Children below 18 years in cocoa production can be arrested and prosecuted				

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APPENDIX D:
THE STRATEGIES FOR DEALING WITH THE ISSUE OF CHILD LABOUR USE IN COCOA PRODUCTION.

Indicate your level of awareness about the following strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour use in cocoa production

RANKING

1 – Not aware

2 – Somewhat aware

3 – Aware

4 – Highly aware

STRATEGIES	**LEVEL OF AWARENESS**			
	1	2	3	4
61. Legislation on child labour use				
62. Law Enforcement to prevent child labour use				
63. Family planning programmes for Farmers				
64. Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies				
65. Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for Farmers to improve their income levels				
66. Education (Sensitization of Farmers through Fora, Rallies, Workshops, Mass Media etc)				
67. Expansion of Educational opportunities for children				
68. Monitoring and Evaluation Committees at the District level				

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69. Monitoring and Evaluation at the National level				
70. International Commitments				

Indicate your level of knowledge about the strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour use in cocoa production

RANKING

1 – Not Knowledgeable

2 – Somewhat Knowledgeable

3 – Knowledgeable

4 – Highly Knowledgeable

STRATEGIES	**KNOWLEDGE LEVEL**			
	1	2	3	4
71. Legislation on child labour use				
72. Law Enforcement to prevent child labour use				
73. Family planning programmes for Farmers				
74. Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies				
75. Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for Farmers to improve their income levels				
76. Education (Sensitization of Farmers through Fora, Rallies, Workshops, Mass Media etc)				
77. Expansion of Educational opportunities for children				
78. Monitoring and Evaluation Committees at the District level				

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79. Monitoring and Evaluation at the National level				
80. International Commitments				

Indicate your extent of compliance to the strategies for dealing with the issue of child labour use in cocoa production

RANKING

1 – Not complied

2 – Somewhat complied

3 – Complied

4 – Fully complied

STRATEGIES	**EXTENT OF COMPLIANCE**			
	1	2	3	4
81. Legislation on child labour use				
82. Law Enforcement to prevent child labour use				
83. Family planning programmes for Farmers				
84. Mainstreaming of child labour issues into poverty reduction strategies				
85. Creation of alternative livelihood programmes for Farmers to improve their income levels				
86. Education (Sensitization of Farmers through Fora, Rallies, Workshops, Mass Media etc)				
87. Expansion of Educational opportunities for children				

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88. Monitoring and Evaluation Committees at the District level				
89. Monitoring and Evaluation at the National level				
90. International Commitments				

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