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**Hazardous Child labour- Causes and Consequences on the Children's
Education
(The Case of Mekelle City)**

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**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Award of MA Degree in Development Studies**

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis work entitled “hazardous child labour- causes and consequences to the children’s education, the Case of Mekelle City, Tigray, Ethiopia.” is my original work, has not been presented earlier for award of any degree to any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged. I have produced it independently except for the guidance and suggestion of my research advisors.

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Abstract

Child labour is a pervasive problem in Ethiopia as well as in Tigray region. Though different interventions are being made by different concerned bodies especially by Tigray Social Affairs Office and different NGOs, they are all targeted on street children and child labour especially the hazardous once are not identified as a social problem yet. Unless it is given due attention and supported by this kind of research, child labour will remain a major challenge to the progress that the city have to make to achieve Education for All by 2015. Therefore, this study is aimed to fill this knowledge gap focusing on hazardous work settings, which are working in small industries and in vehicles/taxies, in the city. The objective of this study was to identify the causes of hazardous child labour and it consequence on the children's education. The study was descriptive by its nature and statistical tests of correlation were used to determine the causes of child labour and the association between variables. Accordingly, all the socio economic factors have already identified to have low association with labour participation in the small industries while income and migration has strong correlation with labour participation in vehicles. To examine the consequence of child labour on the educational status of the children, international educational indicators were used and the result indicates that the school participation and school progression rate of child labourers are far worse as compared to the non laborers.

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Acronyms

ASAR	Age Specific Attendance Ratio
BoFEEd	Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
CSA	Central Statistics Authority
EFA	Education for All
FDG	Focus Group Discussion
GAR	Gross Attendance Rate
GIS	Geographic Information System
HH	House Hold
ILO	International Labour Organization
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NAR	Net Attendance Ratio
NWC	National Workers Congress
PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
SDPRP	Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program
UNCRC	United Nation's Children's Right Convention
UNDP	United Nation's Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WECEP	Work Experience and Career Exploration Program

CHAPTER ONE

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Child labour is the concern of many international organizations as it is greatly interrelated with millennium development goals, both as a cause and consequence, which will be the ultimate success of the world if met by 2015. As a result, the organizations are making different interventions to combat child labour worldwide. For example, in India, UNICEF and its partners worked to reduce child labour rates by reducing the debt burden among families through the formation of self help groups and increasing school enrollment. Similarly, in Morocco UNICEF and its partners are working to reduce the number of children working in the handicrafts sector in Fez (UNICEF, 2006). In Turkey over 100 action programs have been implemented in collaboration with UNICEF, UNDP, and UNFPA to eliminate child labour. The same was true in Sri Lanka, child protection programs was set up in partnership with National Worker's Congress (NWC) and a Sri Lanka trade union (ILO, 2005)

As a result of these interventions, significant progresses towards the elimination of child labour have been made. For instance, the incidence of child labour reduced by half, it was one million in 1994 and decreased to half a million in 1999 in Turkey (ILO, 2005). The intervention in Morocco has also resulted in significant reduction, by 2005 number of children under 12 who were withdrawn from work exceeded 600 and 80 percent of them were girls working in the carpet weaving industry (UNICEF, 2006).

Despite the international labour conventions, interventions and national government legislations that state the right to health and a life free from maltreatment of children, millions of children around the world are victims of physical, sexual, emotional and economic abuse. Many children in the world are involved in all forms of child labour. Many children are working for long hours in none conducive and unhealthy work settings

which can distort their physical, mental and cognitive development. Others are engaged in a more abusive and explosive forms of child labour like prostitution and child trafficking.

ILO estimation of child labour indicates that there were 218 million children engaged in child labour, excluding child domestic Labour. Some 126 million children aged 5-17 were believed to be engaged in hazardous work. And 5.7 million children were trapped in forced and bonded labour in 2004 (ILO, 2005).

The latest ILO global estimates on child labour indicate that in Africa progress towards the elimination of child labour is lagging behind than other regions of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa has the greatest incidence of economically active children – 26.4 per cent of all 5-14 year-olds, compared to 18.8 per cent for Asia and the Pacific and 5.1 per cent for Latin America. It ranks second behind Asia in absolute terms, with 49.3 million children working. The persistent challenges of widespread and extreme poverty, high population growth, the AIDS pandemic, recurrent food crises, and political unrest and conflict clearly exacerbate the problem (ILO, 2009).

In Ethiopia, Child labour is pervasive throughout the country, especially in the informal sector (US Dept of State, Country Reports on Human Rights Practices - 2000). Large numbers of children of all ages grow and harvest crops in the countryside, or work as street peddlers in the cities (EI, EI Barometer on Human and Trade Union Rights in the Education Sector, 1998). Children in rural Ethiopia start assuming household or farm responsibilities as early as four years of age. Some 15 percent of the boys and about 20 percent of the girls started participating in work activities before they celebrate their fifth birthday (Assefa, 2000). The prevalence of child abuse among urban child labourers is 70 percent, compared with 24.5 percent among non-economically active children from the same urban district (US Dept of State, Country Reports on Human Rights Practices - 2001).

Poverty and its related problems are main causes of child labour in Ethiopia. Other reasons like Cultural values, the Ethiopian culture encourages children to work to develop skill and children are considered as assets to generate income in time of poverty,

educational problems; distance from school, poor quality of education, over crowding, inability to support schooling (food, uniforms, exercise books school fees, etc), family problems like divorce, conflict , war, civil strife, drought and resettlement, orphan hood due to AIDS and rapid urbanization are causes of child labour in Ethiopia (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 2001)

It is obvious that children who are economically active are exposed to accidental and other injuries at work. Apart from this, lack of opportunity for higher education for older children deprives the nation from developing higher skills and technological capabilities that are required for economic development/ transformation to attain higher income and better standards of living (ILO, 2001). They should thus be protected to prevent social, economic and physical spoil, which persist to affect them during their lifetime.

Ethiopia has ratified the two ILO core conventions on child labour (i.e., Minimum Age Convention No. 138 and Elimination of Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention No. 182) to prevent the children as well as the nation from this deprivation. Though The Government has expressed its desire to formulate and implement a National Plan of Action against child labour, the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP) strategy to reduce poverty and participate in the International Programs on the Elimination of Child Labour, the programs did not include explicit measures against child labour, neither does its successor program, the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP). Moreover, resource constraints have prevented any serious follow-up to these programs (ILO, 2001).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Different researchers ensured that child labour greatly affects the children's school enrollment and school progression. For example, Federico and Frank (2008) from cross county data revealed that there is a strong effect of child labor on school attendance rates. There is often a significant "school attendance gap" between working and non-working children. Many child laborers are constrained in their school attendance by long hours of work or

difficult working conditions. Others do not attend at all. In some countries school attendance rates of working children are only about half of those of non-working children.

Federico and Frank (2008) also identified a strong correlation between the level of economic activity and primary school repetition and school survival rate. The higher the prevalence of children's work, the more likely it is that children will drop out before finishing primary education. Akabayashi and Psacharopoulos (1999) as cited in Federico and Frank (2008) showed the effect of child labour on the children's reading competence, children's reading competencies decreases as child labour hours increase. Patrinos and Psacharopoulos (1995) as cited in Federico and Frank (2008) also identified child labour as one factor that reduced school attendance and is a significant factor predictor of age-grade distortion (Federico and Frank, 2008).

Generally, Child labour seems to be identified as one of the main obstacles to Education For All (EFA), which is the second millennium development goal to be achieved by 2015, as involvement in child labour is generally at a cost to children's ability to attend and perform in school.

Despite this all facts, Child labour is currently a major problem in Ethiopia. According to the national child labour survey (2001), children between the ages of 5-14 years are engaged either in some kind of productive activity or in household chores. 97 percent of children between the ages of 15-17 are also involved in such activities, 62 percent of youngsters aged 10-14 years and 39 percent of children aged 5-9 years are engaged in at least one type of employment based household chores. The survey conducted by Ministry of Labour and Social Affaires in collaboration with ILO sub regional affairs office (2009) also reveals that only 14 percent of children between the ages of 5-17 years do not work.

According to Central Statistics Authority (2001), most child labourers, 24 percent, in towns and cities are engaged in market activities especially in retailing and garages. 12.6 percent of child labourers in towns and cities are also engaged in productive activities in small industries. The other 15.5 percent, 12.6 percent and 7.3 percent are engaged in domestic/household chores, restaurants and private service giving institutions respectively (CSA, 2001). In Mekelle, according to the survey by Tigray Bureau of Labour and Social

Affairs 2008/9, there are manufacturing workshops, referred as industrial institutions, and 839 children below the age of 18 are working in these institutions (Tigray Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs, 2008/9).

Tigray Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs also tried to assess the educational status of 119 children who are working in industrial/manufacturing institutions in 2008/9. Accordingly, 28 of them were attending regular class, 24 of them were attending extension classes, 43 of them dropouts and 24 were not totally enrolled in schooling. The survey also tried to assess the working hours of the children and it shows as 74 of them are working for more than 7 hours a day and 45 of them are working less than 7 hours a day (Mekelle Bureau of labour and social affairs, 2008/9).

On the other hand, reports of the Mekelle Educational Bureau shows that net enrolment rate of primary school students in the city is improved. For example, net enrollment rate is recorded to be 97 percent, which is more than the expected rate which was 90 percent, in 2008/9 (Mekelle Education Office, 2008/9). In 2009/10 the plan is to achieve 100 percent net enrolment. But the plan as well as the report of the education office seems to over look child labour that both are being made depending on population projection and primary school population census, not on household survey (Mekelle Education Office, 2008/9).

Table 1.2.1. Mekelle Educational Office Annual Achievement Plan of 2008/09

Grade	Net Enrollment Rate (%)	Gross Enrollment Rate (%)	Drop Out Rate (%)	Repetition Rate (%)
1-8	100	110	1.55	-

Source: Mekelle Education Office

Therefore, we can say that there is little, if not no at all, attention given to or understanding of the trade off between child labour and education in Tigray, Mekelle. Even the survey made by Tigray Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs was a survey that no more detail analysis was done to reveal the school entry/participation rate and school survival/progression rate of the child labourers using the international educational

indicators and no suggestions was given about its consequence to the program of EFA in the city. In addition to this, the survey didn't address the question why children work in such kind of hazardous work settings and other groups of children who are working in such kind of hazardous work settings, other than the manufacturing/industrial institutions, are not totally addressed.

As a result of this scant information, Government and nongovernmental organizations that are too much concerned about children are mostly focusing on street children, orphans and other related issues than child labour and education. Some, like Save the Children, are working on providing access of primary schools to children by constructing schools. However, this is only part of the actions, not end of the actions that should be taken as a solution.

In sum, there is still considerable gap in understanding the causes, the consequence of child labour especially on the child's education and the working condition of the children in hazardous child labour. Without having a deeper understanding of the issue, no meaningful resolutions can be proposed. Therefore, this paper is aimed to fill this knowledge gap and make the concerned bodies aware of the problem and design programs at least to reduce child labour significantly.

1.3. Research Objectives and Questions

1.3.1 Research Objectives

General Objective: The general objective of the study is to identify the causes and the consequence of hazardous child labour on the child's education.

Specific Objectives: The specific objectives of the research are:

1. To assess the causes of child labour.
2. To assess the working conditions of the children.
3. To examine the consequence of child labour on the school participation of the children.

4. To examine the consequence of child labour on the school progression of the children.
5. To determine the relationship between working hours and schooling.

1.3.2 Research Questions

The following questions were answered in this research

1. Why are children engaged in this hazardous kind of child labour?
2. How is the working condition of the children?
3. What is the school participation rate of child labourers as compared to economically non active children?
4. What is the school progression rate of child labourers in relation to the progression rate of the non labourers?
5. What is the relation between working hours and schooling?

1.4. Definitions and Concepts of Key Terms

Hazardous Child Labour: - “Work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children” (ILO).

Hazardous employment: - There are about 17 jobs that are regarded as hazardous and prohibited for children under the age of 18 these are;

1. Manufacturing or storing explosives
2. Driving a motor vehicle and being an outside helper on a motor vehicle
3. Coal mining
4. Logging and sawmilling
5. Power-driven wood-working machines
6. Exposure to radioactive substances and to ionizing radiations
7. Power-driven hoisting equipment
8. Power-driven metal-forming, punching, and shearing machines
9. Mining, other than coal mining
10. Meat packing or processing (including power-driven meat slicing machines)

11. Operation of bakery machines
12. Operation of paper-products machines
13. Manufacturing brick, tile, and related products
14. Power-driven circular saws, band saws, and guillotine shears
15. Wrecking, demolition, and ship-breaking operations
16. Roofing operations
17. Excavation operations (defined by the fair labor standards act (flsa) (Lois and Marlene, 2004).

Industrial institutions and small industries - garages, wood work and metal work shops are called so for this research.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Even though child labour is a common incidence in our world as well as in Ethiopia, the determinants/causes and effects of child labour differ from nation to nation even from region to region in the same country. In fact nation wide child labour survey was made in Ethiopia; however, child labour in hazardous jobs seems to be over looked that the survey doesn't specifically address the harm of these jobs to the children. The issue of child labour in Tigray is also given attention a year ago and still there are almost no even related studies on the issue in the city.

Therefore, this study is expected to contribute a lot to the scant information available in Mekelle, in the region as well as the country. In addition, the findings of the study that deals with the causes of child labour and its consequence on the child's education will create awareness among the public and policy makers. Moreover, it will help the Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs, Education and other government and nongovernment organizations which are too much concerned about children to design programs and projects of rehabilitation so as to reduce child labour and improve the progress to wards Education For All in the city. The study will also provide additional source of information on child labor and it opens an avenue for further research in the area.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The effect of child labour can be seen from different dimensions like from psychological, moral, health, emotional and cognitive development. However, this study was limited to examine the causes and consequences of child labour on the child's education..

Though the incidence of child labour exists in all forms in Mekelle City, the study was delimited to look at child labour in hazardous jobs. Children, of age below 18, working in garages, metal and wood work shops and children working/helping in vehicles were the focuses in this study. This is because for one thing there is a survey made by Tigray Labour Office which shows the total number of children working in these workshops and this helps to design the sample size. For the other thing, as these work settings are time and labour intensive, the cost is expected to be more serious than other forms of child labour in the city. Moreover, hazardous child labour is given less attention by all the concerned bodies in the region.

The main focus of this study was to examine the determinants of child labour and the educational effect of child labour. While examining this, socio-economic characteristics of the family / household and the child were emphasized as determinant. In addition to this, school entry / participation and school progression rate of the group was computed in relation to the participation and progression rate of economically non active children using international educational indicators that only need one year data were used for this study.

The study area of this research is Mekelle. Mekelle is the capital city of Tigray region and population growth, urbanization and civilization makes the social problems worse in this city than in other parts of the region. The reason why the scope is delimited to this city is because child labour, as a social problem, is more serious in Mekelle than other cities/towns in the city.

1.7 Limitation of the Study

It would have been good and more appropriate to focus on all forms of child labour in the city at house hold level and all the determinants to examine the causes and the effect of child labour on the child's education and to the over all achievement of education for all in the city. It would have also been very interesting to use all international indicators of education. However, due to time and budget constraints the research was delimited as it is discussed in the scope.

As a result, how seriously are family/HH and individual child characteristics are determining child labour in urban areas as compared to school and community factors remains untouched. In addition to this, school progression rate is partially assessed that repetition and drop out rate are not figured out.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Hazardous Child Labour

More specifically, hazardous child labour is work in dangerous or unhealthy conditions that could result in a child being killed, or injured and/or made ill as a consequence of poor safety and health standards and working arrangements. Some injuries or ill health may result in permanent disability. Often health problems caused by working as a child labour may not develop or show up until the child is an adult (ILO, 2006-2009).

Child labourers are susceptible to all the dangers faced by adult workers when placed in the same situation. However, the work hazards and risks that affect adult workers can affect child labourers even more strongly. The results of lack of safety and health protection can often be more devastating and lasting for them. It can result in more fatal and non-fatal accidents, permanent disabilities/ill health, and psychological/behavioral/emotional damage (Ibid).

When speaking of child labourers it is important to go beyond the concepts of work hazard and risk as applied to adult workers and to expand them to include the developmental aspects of childhood. Because children are still growing they have special characteristics and needs that must be taken into consideration when determining workplace hazards and the risks associated with them, in terms of physical, cognitive (thought/learning) and behavioral development and emotional growth (Ibid).

2.2. Why Children Work?

Child labour can be defined as an activity with negative consequence on the child. However, this does not mean that child labour does not attribute any gains for the household. The gains or return from child labour can be measured in a number of ways: the child's money income; the value of the child's work in the family enterprise, in the

family's farm land, or in the household; increased income opportunities for adult members of the household; and the skills or increased labour market opportunities the child acquired while working. Many researchers have tried to guesstimate the value of the income of children as a percentage of the total family income. As indicated in a study in Peru, working children aged 10 to 12 contribute 7.5 percent and children aged 13 to 15 add 12 per cent of the household income (Siddiqi and Patrinos 1995 as cited in Rena, Ravinder, 2009). Another study revealed that children contribute up to 20 to 25 percent of the family income (Anker and Melkas 1995 as cited in Rena, Ravinder, 2009) Only a small fraction of the children work for an employer and receive wages making it difficult to generalize the amount of income support children provide in this category. It is more likely that the estimates from a study in rural India, where children's income constituted only 6 percent of family income, give a more complete picture (Rosenzweig and Everson 1997 as cited in Rena, Ravinder, 2009). The unpaid work children perform in the fields or in a small informal family business may be of substantial value for the household as demonstrated by research in the carpet industry in India, where child labour is widespread (Rena, Ravinder, 2009).

2.3. Causes of Child Labour

In Ethiopia there are lots of factors that make children work and stay out of school in their early age. From both the literature reviewed for the study on the situation of child labour in Ethiopia and the interviews conducted with experts in the area of child labour, the outstand causes that force children in the labour market include poverty, family problems and migration. The demand aspect in the labour market can not however be ruled out as it contributes its own share for the incidence of child labour. From point of view of demand in the labour market child labour is cheap and easy to access compared to the adult workers who have the relative advantage of bargaining the terms of employment in the labour market (People in need Ethiopia, 2009).

Ethiopia as one of the poorest countries in the world suffers from socio-economic and political problems that primarily embedded in the extreme poverty in which it has been trapped in its long history. As is the case in many aspects of life in the country poverty

plays major role for the ever growing involvement of children in the labour market that is characterized by exploitation and denial of basic rights of the working children. In both rural and urban areas child labour is in one way or another attributable to poverty at local and national level. The national Child Labour Survey conducted by the Central Statistics Agency (CSA) provides data on the distribution of child work between rural and urban areas and among regions in the country due to the pressure created by poverty (Ibid).

About 52 percent of the children were reported to be engaged in productive activities. Girls were mainly engaged in domestic activities (e.g. collecting firewood and water, food preparation, washing clothes) while boys were involved in productive activities (e.g. cattle herding, weeding, harvesting, plowing, petty trading, wage work). The participation rate in productive activities was 62 percent for boys and 42 percent for girls. For domestic activities, this figure was 22 percent for boys and 44 percent for girls. In rural areas, children were more frequently engaged in productive activities than in domestic activities, whereas in urban areas the opposite was true (Ibid).

In rural parts of the country household poverty is caused by large family size, increasing fragmentation of farm land that ultimately leads to low family income. The situation in urban areas is also so severe that, lack of employment opportunities that lead to low family income deprive parents to send their children to school and provide their basic needs. Instead they tend to encourage and even sometimes force their children to enter into the labour market in their early ages so as to enhance the household income to sustain the families (Ibid)

2.3.1 Poverty and Child Labor

The first Millennium development Goal is to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger before 2015. Most child labourers are from very poor families or underprivileged sections of society. Although poverty dictates the need for some children to make an economic contribution to their family, it cannot justify placing the children in hard labour that jeopardizes their lives, safety, physical or psychological development (Rena 2004: 1-2). It is to be noted that, from time to time the children are greatly affected by poverty.

Therefore, the present development trends indicate that it is very difficult to achieve this Goal (Rena, Ravinder, 2009).

Hundreds of thousands of children, due to the poverty, are forced to work as labourers before they ever enter school and many must leave school in the middle of a course of study to become labourers. Once children are snatched from school and put to work, they are cut off from their normal development, education and relationships. Devastated by suffering at early ages, these children require psycho-social rehabilitation, education and economic opportunities within their communities. The problem of child labour is closely associated with poverty and underdevelopment. It is often pointed out that poverty is the main cause for child labour in general. As in all the developing countries including India, China, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Papua New Guinea, Ethiopia, Uganda, Mozambique, Malawi, Sudan, and Chad, the prevalence of poverty is high and therefore, child labour in these developing countries, particularly in Asia and Africa, does exist to a larger extent (Ibid).

The World Bank (1998) reports that the labour force participation rate of children aged 10 to 14 is highest, 30–60 percent, in countries with per capita income of \$500 or less (at 1987 prices). But it declines quite rapidly, to 10–30 percent, in countries with incomes between \$500 and \$1,000. This negative relationship between income and child work becomes less marked in the more affluent developing countries (in the \$1,000 to \$4,000 income ranges). The relationship between the number of female children and child labour also seems to be significant in several places. The oldest girl in a family has a greater likelihood than other children in the household of doing domestic work and not going to school, while boys, in particular those with older sisters, have a greater likelihood of going to school. Research from Africa indicates that in several societies, household composition is deliberately changed through child fostering or adopting children in order to create an optimal division of labour within the household (Pedersen 1987 and Ainsworth 1996 as cited in Rena, Ravinder, 2009). Child labour might also occur because poor households cannot insure themselves adequately against income fluctuations (Guarcello, Mealli and Rosati 2002; Grootaert and Patrinos 1999; and Rena 2004 as cited in (op.cit, 2009). Poor families pull their children out of school to provide labour in the

face of an income shortfall. Parents put children to work as part of a survival strategy to minimize the risk of an interruption of the income stream, which may be caused by failed harvests or loss of employment of an adult household member. Interruption in the income stream is naturally more severe for poor households, as it can be life threatening. Thus, for extremely poor households, child labour seems quite rational, broadening the base of income sources (Anker and Melkas 1995 as cited in Rena, Ravinder, 2009).

In general, parents of child labourers are not people who let their children work instead of themselves, but people who find it necessary to draw on more of the household's resources to secure the necessary income. Child labour thus does not replace adult labour, but complements it; in some cases it enables adult family members to enter the labour market (Rena, 2007). The causes for the child labour are complex and include mainly economic, social, and cultural factors. Therefore, solutions must be comprehensive and should involve the widest possible range of partners in each society. In fact, a single agency, like UNICEF or WHO, or an organization cannot solve the child labour problem on its own. Hence, child labour that is triggered mainly by poverty needs to be confronted by all social agencies on all fronts. The social agencies need to attack both the problem and its causes. Public and private sectors, with the support of NGOs, should play an important role in minimizing, if not completely eradicating, the child labour problem (Rena, Ravinder, 2009)

2.3.2. Migration and Child Labour

Due to the pressure on the farm land in the rural areas caused by the rapid growth of population and lack of basic social services especially education, it is reported that a large number of children migrate in to urban areas especially Addis Ababa .year after year. It is however evident that both the push and pull factors which are interrelated that exacerbate the migration of children from rural to urban centers. On the side of the push factors as it is explained above poor living conditions of rural families especially in three major regions Amhara, Oromiya and SNNPR, coupled with limited access to education force children to leave their place of origin in urban areas especially in Addis Ababa (people in need Ethiopia, 2009)

2.3.3. Family Characteristics and Child Labour

Tassew , Bekele, Ncola and Albel, (2005) , in the study child schooling and labour discussed that in female headed households there were greater demands on boy's labour at the expense of their schooling and hence male children were more often compelled to combine work and schooling relative to schooling. In the case of the marital status of the household, the result indicated that children in families where parents are in unstable partnership were more likely to work only relative to attending school only , and that girl children were not likely to be negatively affected. The result also shows that children were more likely to be attending school only when there was adequate labour in the house hold: more children aged 7-17 years as well as more male adult generally decreased children's work burden (Tassew , Bekele, Ncola and Albel, 2005)

Parental Education and Child Labour

There is consistent evidence that the mother's education has a negative effect on child labor, and the size of this effect is often greater than that of the father's education. Using data combined for boys and girls in rural and urban areas in Ghana, (Canagarajah and Coulombe 1999 and Bhalotra and Heady, 2000 cited in Lindsay Rickey, 2009), found that the father's secondary level education has a negative effect on child work participation while the mother's education has no effect and negative effect for the mother's middle or secondary level education for rural boys but no effect for the father's education. In addition to this Bhalotra and Head found that the mother's middle or secondary level education has a negative effect for boys and girls (larger in the case of girls) and the father's secondary education has a negative effect that is restricted to girls (Lindsay Rickey, 2009)

Cigno and Rosati, 2000 cited in Lindsay Rickey, 2009), found that in rural India the children of mothers with less than primary education are significantly more likely to be in full-time work as compared with fulltime study, and having a mother who completed middle school reduces the probability of combining work and school as compared with full-time study, while the father's education has no significant effect. Ravallion and

Wodon, 1999 cited in Lindsay Rickey, 2009) have also found negative effects of the mother's and father's education level on child labour in Bangladesh. In Vietnam, (Rosati and Tzannatos, 2000 cited in Lindsay Rickey, 2009) revealed that years of father's education have no effect on child labour but mother's education has a negative impact on the probability of work (full-time and part-time) as well as on the probability of being neither in work nor in school. (ibid)

2.4. Working Conditions and Occupational Safety and Health.

Different groups of informal sector workers encounter different workplace problems. However, the most common are poor lighting, lack of ventilation, excessive heat, poor housekeeping, inadequate workspace, poor work tools and workplace design, awkward posture, exposure to dangerous chemicals, lack of clean water and other basic welfare facilities, and long working hours. Workers accept this situation because they are simply preoccupied with survival and not fully aware of workplace hazard (ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, 2000).

No established mechanisms exist to monitor workplace injuries and illnesses in the informal sector, as they do in the formal sector. Injuries often go unreported and are settled by operators and workers, sometimes through small cash payments or termination of employment. Even for severe injuries, where they are not enrolled in a social protection scheme, workers are frequently deprived of benefits that would otherwise have been available. It is often hard to establish the relationship between work and the illness the worker might be suffering from (ibid).

2.5. Negative Consequences of Work

Reports of work-related ill-health and injury are one common measure of the impact on health. But the relationship between children's work and health is complex and often difficult to discern empirically. This and other similar indicators are at best imperfect (ILO, 2008).

The negative impact of children's work on health, for example, may be obscured by the selection of the healthiest children for work. Health perceptions may also differ from one population group to another, and levels of reported illness among working children and non-working children may be affected by different levels of consciousness of illness. Much of the relationship between child health and work is dynamic (that is, current health is affected by past as much as present work, and current work affects future as much as present health), a fact not captured by measuring reported illness over a short period. This is an area where further methodological work is required (ibid).

Measuring educational impact is especially relevant in the context of Convention No. 138 stipulations relating to light work, which state that this work should not "prejudice attendance at school" or children's "capacity to benefit from the instruction received", and in the context of the UNCRC, which calls for protection of children from work that "interferes with their education". Numerous standard education indicators (for example, late entry, attendance, repetition and drop-out rates, as well as educational attainment) can be used to afford an insight into the impact of work on children's ability to enroll and survive in the school system (Ibid).

More specialized indicators from school-based surveys can, that is, all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery; the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; and the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities and armed conflict, provide further information on the special challenges faced by working students (for example, attendance regularity, rate of tardiness, test scores, homework completion and after-hours study)(Ibid).

2.6. Education and Child Labor

The second Millennium development Goal is to achieve universal primary education before 2015. This is an objective based on the UNESCO Declaration on Education for All and is defined as ensuring that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling. The duration of primary education will vary from country to country with an absolute minimum of 5 years from the age of 7 to the age of 12. The definition of child

labour foresees however that the education or vocational training should continue to at least the age of 14 or 15. In countries where primary education only includes 5 years, one will see a high number of economically active children in the age group of 12 to 14, many of whom will be child labourers. As stated earlier, education is seen a right for all children and as a way for individuals and societies to develop. Given economic development, the return to education is proven to be very high for individuals. However, many developing countries will not be able to meet this objective in the short time frame. Hence child labour will remain a serious challenge to the MDG (Rena Ravinder, 2006)

2.6.1. Education and Child Labour in Developing World

Interestingly, the introduction of compulsory schooling in India would result in a 70 per cent reduction in the current number of child labourers. In neighbouring Pakistan, lack of educational facilities and the quality and socio-economic relevance of education is an essential factor in explaining child labour. Lack of universal education is something that is only found in poor countries but not in all poor countries. Many countries, like Egypt and Zimbabwe, that have rapidly expanded their primary school coverage, have seen a considerable increase in primary school enrollment which results in a reduction of child labour (Grimsrud and Stokke 1997 as cited in Rena, Ravinder, 2009).

Typically in the Sub Saharan Africa and South Asian countries, where school enrolment is low and child labour is wide spread. The children in these areas work in contracts as plantation work, tender arrangements, bounded labour and subcontracted piece work. The world wide campaigns against child labour have helped to put universal education on the agenda. It is to be recalled that links can especially be seen in the work of ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank. Child labour also affects school performance as children miss important lessons and fall behind academically. This creates a burden not only on the individual child but also on the entire education system. For example, in Yemen, the working children who have to repeat classes probably leads to more than 300,000 additional pupils in the primary school alone (ibid).

The key challenge in order to reach the MDG and eradicate child labour is to enable the type of change in resource allocation in households that can afford to do so. It is understood that households send their children to work to qualify for such an education opportunity. Examples of regulations pulling the right way are measures like a better adjustment of the school calendar to the agricultural season, which reduces the numbers of dropouts. Introduction of compulsory education and child labour legislation would help change social norms to encourage school attendance and reduce the prevalence of child labour (ibid).

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), the basis of UNICEF's work, calls for compulsory education, but allows states to ratify the CRC without requiring it. For the last decade, UNICEF has moved towards a larger program approach, rather than specific projects. One such program is the Global Campaign for Girls' Education. In general, UNICEF argues for universal compulsory education on a human rights rationale. Child labour program follow the drive toward universal education as natural priority for UNICEF. The World Bank stated in 1996 that it does not have an operational policy on child labour. It clearly states the negative relationship between child labour and economical development and hence makes an argument for that issue to fall within the World Bank mandate. Today this position is not argued within the World Bank. Similarly the World Bank seems to move in the direction of supporting free compulsory primary education, but is far from making this any condition in their lending or other types of involvement (Ibid).

2.6.2. Effects of Child Labour on Schooling in Ethiopia

From The national child labour survey data 2002, it is revealed that schooling was highly affected by children's involvement in productive and household activities. Children might have been late or absent from class due to their involvement in work activities and may have spent less time studying and doing homework. Among children who were attending school and working, about 39 percent responded that their involvement in work had affected their schooling. This figure was 29 percent for urban children and 42 percent for rural children, but there was no significant difference between male and female children

in this regard. Given the marked gender division of girls being engaged in housekeeping activities and boys engaged in productive activities, it is assumed that the negative effect on schooling was similar for both productive and housekeeping activities (Tassew, Bekele, Ncola and Albel, 2005)

2.6.3. Child Work and School Attendance in Ethiopia

Results presented in Bahlotra from large integrated household data by Addis Ababa University (AAU) and the Center for the Study of African Economies (CSAE), oxford indicated that Ethiopia has the lowest gross (34 percent) and net (21 percent) primary school enrolment rates in the world. Rural enrolment rates are even lower than the national average. Enrolment rates increase markedly between the 4-7 age groups and the 8-11 age groups and continue to increase into the 12-15 age groups this is consistent with the fact that school officially begins around 5 or 6 years of age and enrolment is often delayed among rural children. A substantial gender bias is apparent with much lower enrolment rates for girls, particularly among older children. Comparing data across successive rounds of the survey shows that the effect of low initial enrolment rates is exacerbated by extremely high drop-out rates. As a result, the average number of years of schooling among 12-15 year-olds is only three Girls get less education than boys. There is significant inter-site variation, suggesting an important role for site-specific factors such as the proximity and quality of schools or, perhaps, variations in the demands for child work (Sonia Bhalotra, 2003).

The survey also assessed why in households where children did not attend school. The need for children to work is cited as the primary reason for non-enrolment in 27.8 percent of cases; 54 percent if children considered too young to go to school are excluded. While boys are primarily required for farm activities, girls are required for other household activities. This indicates a conflict between school and work and it suggests that the underlying reason for the high incidence of child work and the low school enrolment rates in rural Ethiopia is poverty. It is not as common in Ethiopia as in some other African countries like Ghana for children to combine work and school attendance (Ibid).

2.6.4. Child Work and School Performance in Ethiopia

Even when work activities do not avert a child from participating in school, they may shrink study time or tire the child to the point of impairing concentration and learning. Students have an average of nearly two work activities, equal to their counterparts who report work as their main activity. School-going children work, on average, over three hours per school day and nearly ten hours per weekend. Girls have a consistently heavier load than boys. Using information on school performance from exam results obtained for roughly 40 percent of the school-going children in four study sites finds that exam results appear to be worse for children with multiple work activities and long school-day and weekend work hours (Cockburn 2002 as cited in Sonia Bhalotra, 2003).

2.6.5. Combining School and Work

Combining school and work in a way not affecting school performance is, not necessarily regarded as child labour and is relatively common in many countries. In Cote d'Ivoire the number of children combining school and work was found to be 30 percent in 1988. The survey indicates that the large majority of these children past their primary school examination (Grootaert, 1998 cited in Bjorne Grimsrud, 2003). But very often child labour is one of the factors that affect the education of children and adolescents. In Latin America children and adolescents who work fall behind by approximately two years of study (Mendez and Duro, 2002 cited in Bjorne Grimsrud, 2003) How to combined school and work and how to regulate the beside school activities in way that child labour are eradicated remains a large research question which also have to be addressed in regards to the MDG. As early as in the education clause in the Factory Act of 1833, Britain introduced the half-time system, combining work with half-time education for children. In the mid nineteen century this system had support across the political spectrum. But from 1880 onwards the system was to be increasingly criticized. While seen in the beginning as an opportunity for children from poor families, it was in the end found to reproduce poverty more than help children out of it (Cunningham, 1992 cited in Bjorne Grimsrud, 2003). The experience and debate around it show how difficult it might be to measure child labour. It took more than a generation to measure the effects of the part-time system.

Also contemporary research has pointed to the fact that the amount of hours worked is an important determinant of school achievements beyond the fact that the child participates in economic activities. Rosati and Rossi 2001 cited in Bjorne Grimsrud, 2003 find that these effects are far from negligible, as a few hours of work per day increases the probability of falling back in the course of study of about 10 per cent based on data from Pakistan and Nicaragua. Noteworthy, the first hours of work have a larger impact on school achievements than the successive ones. Rosati and Rossi concludes that this indicates that the assumption often made that a few hours of work only have negligible effects on human capital accumulation is not supported by the evidence, at least in the case of Pakistan and Nicaragua (Bjorne Grimsrud, 2003)

For all the groups it is a question of creating mechanisms that reinforce the type of decisions by parents and children that lead to reduction of child labour. Unfortunately among the many schooling programs for working children we can find examples of the opposite. This is where a school is set up especially for working children and often side by side with the workplace. If as often the case the condition for entering into such a school is that you are a working child this will increase the number of working children rather than decreasing it (Ibid)

CHAPTER THREE

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1. Site Selection and Description

Mekelle is the capital city of Tigray National Regional State of Ethiopia. It is located at the northern part of the country at a distance of 870 km from the capital Addis Ababa. Mekelle city has a total populations of 215,546 of which 104,758 are male and 110,788 female. The total area of the city is 24.44 square kilometers with a population density of 8,819.39 persons per square kilometer, CSA (2007). It is found in 39° 28' East and 13° 28' North at an altitude of about 2084 meters above sea level, with an average mean temperature of 19°C and the annual rain fall varying between 50 to 250 mm.

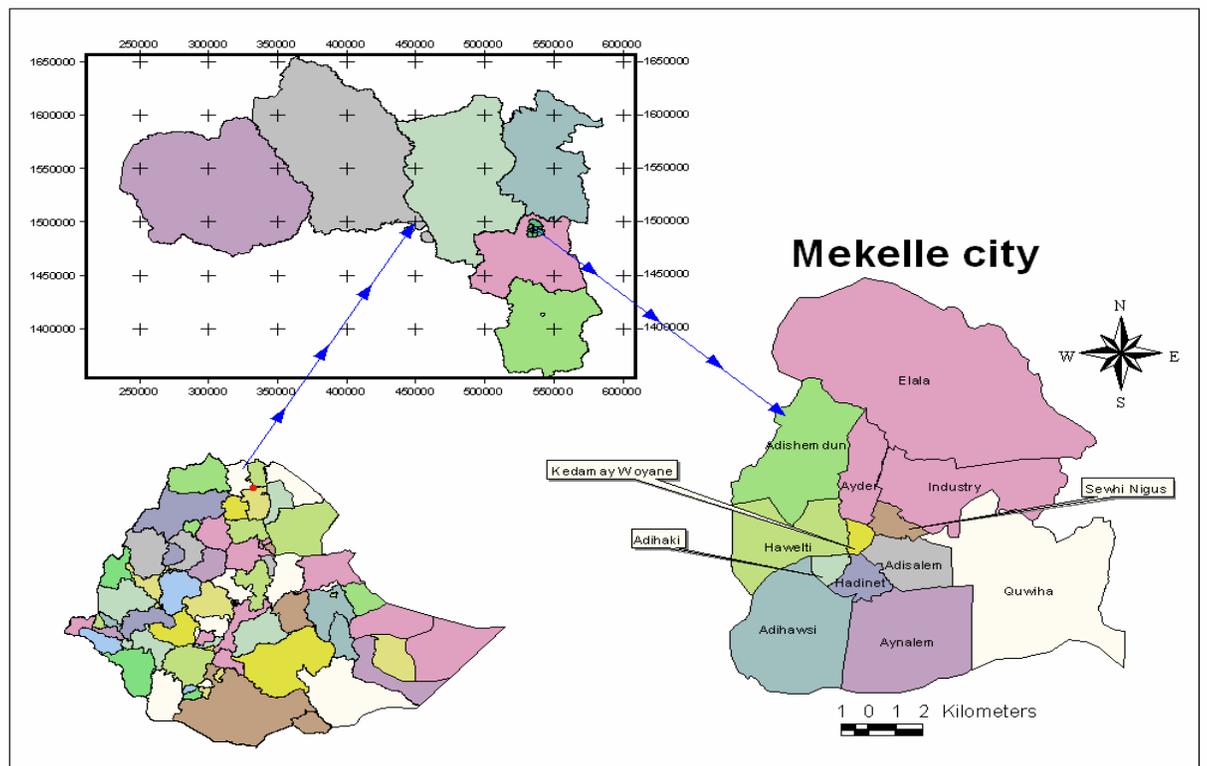


Fig.3.1: Location Map of Mekelle City

Source: Tigray BoFED, GIS Department.

The administrative territory of the city is divided into seven Municipal Service Areas: Hawelti, Aider, Semien, Hadnet, Kedamay Weyane, Adi-Haki and Quiha. The main functions of municipal services are mainly related to building permissions, land administration and tax collection activities. They are also responsible for mediating between the city administration and the population in carrying out certain administrative functions and play key roles in organizing the people during local development activities..

The livelihood and occupation of the city population is principally based on the expansion and occupation of micro and small scale trade and industries. Moreover, more of the population of Mekelle was engaged in the informal sector.

3.2. Research Methodologies

3.2.1. Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

The sampling frame of this study is children who are working in hazardous jobs in Mekelle. Tigray Labour and Social Affairs Bureau has already made survey in 2008/9 to have a clear statistical data of child labourers in the city. Accordingly, about 839 children are working in garages and metal and wood workshops, which are regarded as hazardous work settings for children aged below 18 by ILO (convention 182- worst forms of child labour convention, 1999). The census made by the officials of Hawelti and Hidase taxi associations' office indicated that on average there are 146 children who are working/helping in taxies in this city even though no attention was given to them.

Therefore, a total of 175 children consisting 108 and 67 from working children in the industrial institutions and in taxies respectively were taken as a sample for the study using the formula $n = N / (1 + N(e)^2)$ at 99 percent confidence level and 0.09 precision level, (Yamane, Taro. 1967), for each group. However, a total of 162 of which 99 and 63 data from the children in the industry and in taxies could be collected respectively and there were 13 missing data. In addition to this, the same numbers of non working children were selected as a control group in order to determine the causes of child labour and to make a

comparison of educational status of the working children with the non- working. Totally 324 samples were collected.

Sample area was determined using purposive sampling in this research. Accordingly, semien sub city, which is assigned as industrial area by the city administration and where garages, metal work shops and wood work shops are concentrated, was purposefully selected as sample area from the other six sub cities. Kedamay Weyane was also selected as a sample area to find working children in taxies as this sub city is where taxies are disseminated from.

To select sample respondents two types of sampling technique were used. These were convenience sampling and snowball sampling. As children in these work settings are not permanent employees, convenience sampling was used to obtain the most conveniently available working respondents at the time of data collection. This technique is also useful to obtain a large number of completed questionnaires quickly and economically. Non working respondents of the same age were obtained from information provided by the working children using snowball sampling. This sampling technique is used to have higher probability of similarity between the working and non working children except the major difference, which is working and non working, as one who is known to some one is more likely to be similar to the first person.

3.2.2 Data Sources and Collection

The study employed a child centered research which used different techniques in a complementary way to collect data from primary and secondary sources for both quantitative and qualitative data type. Primary data was gathered from child labourers concerning the causes, working conditions and educational status of the children by using structured questionnaire, observation, and focus group discussion.

As respondents of this questionnaire were not matured enough to comprehend and answer the questions, Questionnaires were filled with the help of 10 enumerators who are responsible to ask, read, clarify the questions to the children and write the responses of the children when necessary. The enumerators were also selected carefully from the same

work settings and were given training to make them familiar with the aim of the research and tone of the questions. In addition to this, the enumerators were advised to approach the children friendly in order to get honest and complete data from the children. In sum, at most care and attention was given to reach out and win the children's trust and in order to elicit the most possible honest and complete information. The questionnaire was translated in to the native language, Tigrigna.

Two focus group discussions were carried out with the children from the two groups, working children in the industrial institutions and taxies. Sample children for the focus group discussion were made to be age of 15-17 this is because of the expectation that older children can express them selves, their feeling and the working environment better than the younger children. Observation is carried out by the researcher to gain data on the working conditions of the children during the field visit with the help of observation guide

Interview was also carried out and information was gained about the problem with principals of Tigray Labor Office, Tigray Social Affairs Office, Mekelle Education Office.

Secondary data was collected to supplement the primary data sources gathered from the children. To assess and compare the school participation and school progression rate of working children with the planned rate of school attendance and progression in Mekelle in general,

3.3 Data Processing and Analysis

First the data were checked visually for completeness and coded. After completion of the data entry analysis was made using SPSS. In general, Descriptive statistical techniques like frequencies, percentages were calculated and results are presented using simple and bivariate tables.

Specifically to assess the major causes of child labour and the relationship between working hours and schooling, Chi-Square(X^2) based measures of association like Cramer's V and Pearson's correlation coefficient were used. Chi-Square (X^2) bases

Measures of association show the presence, strength and the direction of the association between variables. The coefficient ranges from -1, which shows perfect negative correlation, up to +1, which shows perfect positive correlation. Zero shows no correlation between variables. Grading of the strength of the relationship is presented below.

Table 3.2.1 Range of strength of correlation

Correlation coefficient	Strength of relationship
<.01	No correlation
.01 - .20	Very low; almost negligible
.21 - .40	Low; definite but small
.41 - .70	Moderate; substantial
.71 - .90	High; marked
.91 - .100	Very high and dependable

Source; a toolkit for quantitative data analysis

As in many literatures, like Walters and Brids, 1993 as cited in Tassew, Bekele, Nicola, and Albel (2005), the determinants of child labour can be categorized into four. These are socio-economic characteristics of the family/household, school factors, individual child characteristics, and community characteristics. From these, statistical test of correlation has already been made to the individual child characteristics and socio-economic characteristics of the family/household. Among the individual child characteristics, orphanhood status and migration were analyzed. Among the socio-economic characteristics, sex of the family/ HH head, family/ HH size, marital status of the HH head, parental education, HH/ family head's occupation and HH/ family income level were analyzed.

The other factors, which are school factors and community characteristics, were not considered as determinants as some of them, like the school factors, are more influential in rural areas and the other like community literacy rate are beyond the scope of this study.

To examine the effect of child labour on the children's schooling, working hours have been correlated with class room attendance and average score of the working children to determine the effect of long working hours on school participation and school progression. More over, international educational indicators were used. The Indicators of school entry and participation, which describe whether the children are attending school and, if so from what age and at what level and grade are:

- Net attendance ratio (NAR) - shows the extent of participation in a given level of education of children belonging to the official age-group corresponding to the given level in education. The formula to calculate this is. The formula is

$$\text{NAR}_h^t = \frac{A_h^t \cdot a}{P_h^t \cdot a} * 100$$

Where: $A_h^t \cdot a$ - attendance of the population of age-group a at level of education h in school year t; $P_h^t \cdot a$ - population in age group a which officially corresponds to level of education h in school year t.

- Gross attendance ratio (GAR) - shows the general level of participation in a given level of education. The formula to compute this is,

$$\text{GAR}_h^t = \frac{A_h^t}{P_h^t \cdot a} * 100$$

Where: A_h^t - attendance at the level of education h in school year t; $P_h^t \cdot a$ - population in age group a which officially corresponds to the level of education h in school year t.

- Age specific attendance ratio (ASAR)- shows the extent of the participation of a specific age cohort in educational activities. The formula i

$$\text{ASAR}_a^t = \frac{A_a^t}{P_a^t} * 100$$

Where: A_a^t .- attendance of the population of age a in school year t; P_a^t population of age a in school year t.

- School life expectancy- provides a measure of the total number of years of education that a child can expected to achieve in the future.

$$SLE_a^t = \sum_{i=a}^{i=n} \frac{A_i^t}{P_i^t}$$

Where: A_i^t - attendance of population of age i (i = a, a +1, ..., n) in school year t; n- the theoretical upper age- limit of schooling; P_i^t – population of age I in school year t.

- Out-of-school children - is a measure of education exclusion. It is calculated as the proportion of children of official schooling age who are not enrolled in school.

These indicators can help identify whether, and to what extent, child labourers face a greater risk of delayed school entry or exclusion from the school system. They therefore also help identify the constraint child labour poses to the attainment of the goals of Universal Primary Enrolment and Education for All (UNICEF, 2008).

UNICEF, 2008 identified Indicators of school progression, which describes the ability of children to proceed in timely fashion through the school system and help identify whether, and to what extent, child labourers are disadvantaged in terms of being able to perform in the classroom and remain in the school system are seven however only two were computed in this research. These are;

- Grade for age is computed as average grade completed by children currently attending school at a given age.
- Over-aged students - is computed as the proportion of children in a given grade or level who are older than the target age for that grade or level.

CHAPTER FOUR

5. DISCUSSIONS AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

In this section, results of descriptive analysis are presented as obtained using the different methods of data collection. The data is collected from a total of 324 children which consists of 63, 99 and 162 children working in taxies, in small industries, which are garages, metal and wood work shops, and non working children respectively. In the first subsection, background information of respondents is presented and discussed. In the second subsection, findings regarding why children are working and what differences are there between the children working in garages, metal and wood workshops and in taxies in relation to the reasons for work are presented and discussed. In the third sub section, the working conditions of the children and which group is more disadvantaged are presented and discussed. In the last sub-section, the educational status of the children is presented, analyzed and comparison of the working and non working groups is made and presented.

4.2. Respondent's Back Ground Information

Questions that are related to the child's age, working place, the child's main duty and the like are provided to the children and the results are presented below.

Table 4.1.1. Shows that 3 (4.7 percent) of the working children in taxies were of age 10 and 2(3.2 percent) were of age 11 and 12 each. The majority (18 or 28.6 percent and 16 or 25.4 percent) of these children were of age 14 and 15 respectively. The other 7 (11.1 percent) were of age 16 and 17 each. Of the total 99 children working in the small industries 27(27.27 percent) and 24(24.24 percent) were of age 17 and 15 respectively. Only 9(9.09 percent) and 14(14.14 percent) were of age 13 and 14 respectively the rest 23(23.23 percent) and 2(2.02 percent) were of age 16 and 12. This shows that older

children are less probable to work in taxis and younger children are less probable to work in the small industries.

As to the non working children, of the 162 the majority (37 or 22.8 percent) was of age 14 and 27(16.7 percent) were of age 13 and 15. the rest 4.3 percent, 13 percent, 14.8 percent and 11.7 percent were of age 10,12, 16 and 17. generally, the age of non working children run from 10 up to 17.

Table 4.2.1.Age Distribution of children

		Working children				Non		Total	
		In Industry		In Taxi		Working Children			
		No	%	No	%	No	%		
Age	10	0	0	3	4.7	7	4.3	10	3.1
	11	0	0	2	3.2	3	1.9	5	1.5
	12	2	2.02	2	3.2	24	14.8	28	8.6
	13	9	9.09	8	12.7	27	16.7	44	13.6
	14	14	14.14	18	28.6	31	19.1	63	19.4
	15	24	24.24	16	25.4	27	16.7	67	20.7
	16	23	23.23	7	11.1	24	14.8	54	16.7
	17	27	27.27	7	11.1	19	11.7	53	16.4
Total		99	100	63	100	162	100	324	100

Source: Own survey, 2010

Labour laws including age restriction has already set to protect child exploitation. Accordingly, children aged under 12 or 13 can be employed out side of school hours in non hazardous jobs only on the farm on which their parents work. Nevertheless, hazardous child labour, like working in industries and in vehicles, is even banned for children aged 16-17. (Child labour laws and enforcement, 2000).

However, many children of age even below 14 were engaged in these hazardous jobs that child exploitation is pervasive in Mekelle city.

Table 4.2.2. Sex Distribution of Children

		Working children				Non Working		Total	
		In Industries		In Taxies		Children			
		<i>N_o</i>	%	<i>N_o</i>	%	<i>N_o</i>	%	<i>N_o</i>	%
Sex	Female	8	8.1	0	0	12	7.4	20	6.2
	Male	91	91.9	63	100	150	92.6	304	93.8
Total		99	100	63	100	162	100	324	100

Source: own survey, 2010

Female's participation in this kind of hazardous economic activities was less in general as can be seen from the above table. However, we can say that participation of female children in the small industries was better than in taxies as the number shows 8(8.1 percent) and none (0 percent) in the industries and taxies respectively Among the non working children there were 12(7.4 percent) female respondents and 150(92.6 percent) male respondents. This less participation of female in this hazardous job implies that these jobs are not comfortable to females or female are more active in domestic activities than hazardous jobs. This also true throughout the country as it is insured by people in need Ethiopia 2009

As in Table 4.2.3. From the working children in taxies only 3(4.8 percent) were able to combine school and work while the majority (60 or 95.2 percent) were out of school. On the other hand, of the 99 children working in the small industries 66 (66.7 percent) were able to combine school and work while the minority (33 or 33.3 percent) were economically active out of school children. From this we can understand that the working condition of the children working in taxies is not convenient to combine school and work. Concerning the non working children, the majority (152 or 93.8 percent) of them was

attending school only and the minority (10 or 6.2 percent) was engaged in neither school nor work

Table 4.2.3. Main Duty of Children

		Working children				Non Working		Total	
		In Industry		In Taxi		No	%	No	%
		No	%	No	%				
Duty	Schooling & Work	66	66.7	3	4.8	0	0	69	21.3
	Work Only	33	33.3	60	95.2	0	0	93	28.7
	Schooling Only	0	0	0	0	152	93.8	152	46.9
	Neither of them	0	0	0	0	10	6.2	10	3.1
Total		99	100	63	100	162	100	324	100

Source: own survey, 2010

As indicates in Table 4.2.4, of the total 324 sample children 233 are living with their parents. Among the children living with their parents 132(56.7 percent) are attending school only. The other 54(23.2 percent) and 39(16.7 percent) were combining school and work respectively. There were only 8(3.4 percent) children who neither work nor attend school from the 233. The total number of children who do not have caregiver was only 55 and from these only 8(14 percent) were able to combine school and work while the other 47(86 percent) were engaged in work only. Of the children who live with their relatives, 7(19.4 percent) and 20(55.6 percent) were able to combine school and work and school only. Other 7 (19.4 percent) and 2(5.6 percent) were out of school. This indicates that children who do not have care givers are completely denied education and being the household's child decreases the probability of engaging in work only

Table 4.2.4. Children’s Main Duty and Their Relative Caregivers

		Caregivers						Total	
		Parents		Relatives		No one			
		N _o	%	N _o	%	N _o	%	N _o	%
Main Duty	Schooling & Work	54	23.2	7	19.4	8	14	69	21.3
	Work Only	39	16.7	7	19.4	47	86	93	28.7
	Schooling Only	132	56.7	20	55.6	0	0	152	46.9
	Neither of them	8	3.4	2	5.6	0	0	10	3.1
Total		233	100	36	100	55	100	324	100

Source: own survey, 2010

4.3. Children’s and families/HH Socio-economic Characteristics and Reason for Work

In order to get insights concerning the socio economic back ground of the child and household/ family and to assess whether it has some kind of relationship with the children’s engagement in work or not, the children were asked about the characteristics of the family.

As in the table below, of the total (63) working children in taxies, the 40 were orphans either double or single orphan. In contrast, the total (99) children working in the small industries the minority (31) were orphans. From the economically non active children more than half (86) were orphans. From the working children in the small industries, the percentage (68.7 percent) of children, whose both parents were still alive, were more as compared to the percentage of working children in taxies (36.6 percent) and non working children (46.9 percent). Therefore, orphan hood status is more determinants to labour participation in taxies than in small industries.

Table 4.3.1. Orphan Hood Status of Children

		Working children				Non Working		Total	
		In Industry		In Taxi					
		N _o	%	N _o	%	N _o	%	N _o	%
Orphan	Double Orphan	6	6.1	21	33.3	22	13.6	49	15.12
	Maternal orphan	10	10.1	2	3.2	21	13	33	10.19
	Paternal Orphan	15	15.1	17	27	43	26.5	75	23.15
	Both are Alive	68	68.7	23	36.5	76	46.9	167	51.54
Total		99	100	63	100	162	100	324	100

Source: own survey. 2010

As in Cramer's test of association (table 4.3.12) the value of V, which indicates the strength of the association between the two variables, was indicated to be 0.219 and 0.255 for working in the industries and in taxies respectively. This value is within the range of 0.21-0.41. This means the association between orphan hood status and labour participation in both kind of labour is low. In other words being orphan doesn't necessarily result in child's labour engagement. The result also shows that the p-value is 0.006 and 0.002 which was below the significant level (0.05); therefore the correlation is significant at 0.05 significance levels. This means the probability that the association described above is due to error or chance is only 0.6 and 0.2 in 100 for working in the industries and in taxies respectively.

Table 4.3.2. Migration Status of the Children

			Type of work				Non		Total	
			Industry		Taxi		Working			
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Parent's Current Living Place			82	88.1	14	33.3	140	100	236	85.8
	Out of Mekelle	Eastern Zone	1	1.1	16	38.1	0	0	17	6.2
		Western Zone	1	1.1	0	0	0	0	1	0.4
		Southern Zone	1	1.1	0	0	0	0	1	0.4
		Central Zone	3	3.2	12	20.6	0	0	15	5.4
		Other Regions	1	1.1	0	0	0	0	1	0.4
		Eritrea	4	4.3	0	0	0	0	4	1.4
	Total		93	100	42	100	140	100	275	100

Source: own survey, 2010

In the above table 275 responses of children only both or either of their parents is alive are presented and discussed. The remaining 49 are double orphans. As can be seen from this Table, majority of parents of the children working in small industries and non working children are living in Mekelle and almost negligible number of parents of the children in the small industries was not living in Mekelle. To the contrary, the minority (33.3 percent) of parents of children working in taxies are not living in Mekelle. The remaining 66.7 percent came from eastern and central zone of Tigray while their parents are still there. The argument here is migration plays a major role for labour participation of children working in taxies than in the small industries.

Further analysis was made to identify the strength of the association between migration and child labour. Accordingly, Cramer's V value is figured out as .277 and .723 for association with work in the industries and in taxies respectively. This means migration is strongly/markedly associated with work in taxies while the association with work in industries is low. In other words the probability of labour participation in taxies increases

if the child is migrant. The p value is also identified to be .000 in both cases that the result is significant at 0.05 levels or the probability by which the finding is due to error or chance is almost 0.

As it is presented below in table 4.3.10 most (21) of the parents of the children working in taxies were farmers. As to the officials of labour and social affairs office migration due to fragmentation of agricultural productivity is the common push factor which leads children to engage in work and be off the street in town in the region. Therefore, we can conclude that the children who left their home town are due to low productivity of family farm land.

Table 4.3.3. Children’s Main Duty and Sex of Households/ Family Head

		Sex of family/ house hold head												Total	
		Female						Male							
		Work in Taxi		Work in Industry		Non Working		Taxi		Industry		Non Working		No	%
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Duty	School & Work	3	9.4	19	61.3	0	0	0	0	42	67.7	0	0	64	21.1
	Work Only	29	90.6	12	38.7	0	0	16	100	20	32.3	0	0	77	25.4
	Schooling Only	0	0	0	0	41	95.3	0	0	0	0	111	93.3	152	50.2
	Neither of them	0	0	0	0	2	4.7	0	0	0	0	8	6.7	10	3.3
total		32	100	31	100	43	100	16	100	62	100	119	100	303	100

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table presents the responses of 303 children who are living with their parents or relatives and the remaining 21 are double orphan children who were living alone. The table provides that of the total 303 children living with their parents and relatives 106 were in female headed households. Of the working children in taxies 29 (90.6 percent) children were engaged in work only and 3(9.4 percent) children who were combining work and school belonged to the female headed households. Only 16 children working in

taxies belonged to male headed house hold. In contrast, the majority (62 of 93) of the working children in the industries belonged to male headed households and the same was true in the non working children. From this it can be suggested that sex of the household/ family head is a determinant factor for labour participation in taxies but not in the small industries and children from female headed HH are more vulnerable to work and be out of school.

The measure used to determine the association between sex of HH/family head and child labour in the industries shows that Cramer's V- value is .072 and the p- value was .25. This states that there is very low or almost negligible association between sex of the house hold head and child's labour participation in the small industries. This means whether male or female the house hold head is, the child's labour participation is independent of it. In addition to this the correlation is not significant at 0.05 levels of significance means the probability that the above result can occur by chance or error is greater than 5 in 100.

On the other hand the correlation between sex of the household and child labour participation in taxies was revealed to be definite but small (V- value is .352). In other words it is less probable that a child from female headed household could be labourer in this work setting. The p-value is .000 that it suggests the correlation is very significant at 0.05 or the probability an error can occur is 0 in 1

4.3.4. Children’s activity and Family Size

		Children’s Activity						Total	
		Work in Industry		Work in Taxies		Non Working			
		N ₀	%	N ₀	%	N ₀	%		
Family/ HH Size	2-4	43	46.6	21	43.7	107	66	171	56.4
	5-8	44	47.3	24	50	44	27.2	112	37
	9-11 and above	6	6.5	3	6.3	11	6.8	20	6.6
Total		93	100	48	100	162	100	303	100

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table shows that only 6(6.5 percent) and 3(6.3 percent) of the working children in the industries and Taxies respectively were from relatively large family size while the relative 43(46.6 percent) and 21(43.7) were from relatively small family size. Therefore, majority of the child labourers in both work settings and the non working children were from relatively small family size. So, we can conclude that large family size is not a force that pushes children to engaged in hazardous jobs.

This finding opposes the finding by Tigray labour office that identified large family size as one push factor that pushes children work in Tigray. And the finding by people in need Ethiopia, 2009 which shows large family size, which ultimately leads to low family income, as a cause to child labour in Ethiopia. Statistical test is made below to show the magnitude and the strength of association between family size and child labour.

Descriptive statistical test of association was made for these variables. Accordingly, the r value is calculated to be-.148. And -.151 this indicates that there is very low correlation between family size and labour participation in industries and in taxies respectively. The correlation is also negative that labour participation decreases as family size increases. The p- value is presented to be .0015 and 0.032 that the relation is significant at 0.05

significance levels. In other words the probability that the above result can occur as a result of error or chance is 0.4 in 100.

Tables 4.3.5. Children’s activity and Marital Status of the Family/HH head

		Children’s activity						Total	
		Work in Industries		Work in Taxies		Non Working			
		No	%	No	%	No	%		
Marital status	Married	61	65.6	20	41.7	76	46.9	157	51.8
	Widowed/bachelor	15	16.1	9	18.7	22	13.6	46	15.2
	Divorced	17	18.3	19	39.6	64	39.5	100	33
Total		93	100	48	100	162	100	303	100

Source: own survey, 2010

As can be seen above there is no observable disparity in the marital status of parents of children in the industries and taxies. The marital status of the household heads of the majority in three groups is observed to be stable. Only 15(16.1 percent) and 17(18.3 percent) of the household heads of the children were widowed/bachelor and divorced respectively. 9(18.7 percent) and 19(39.6 percent) of the heads of the households of the children working in taxies were also widowed/bachelor and divorced respectively. 64(39.5 percent) and 22(13.6 percent) of parents of the non working children were also divorced and widowed/bachelor in that order. Therefore, HH/family head’s marital status is not a factor for labour participation.

Association analysis of marital status and child labour indicates that there is low and very low association between HH/ family head’s marital status and labour participation in the industry and in taxies correspondingly. The V- value is calculated to be .225 and .065. This means, being married, widowed/bachelor or divorced doesn’t necessarily imply that a child is more susceptible to work in this research. The p- Value is seen to be .001 and

.640 for the children in industries and in taxies respectively that the association is significant for labour participation in industries and not significant for participation in taxies respectively. This means the probability the above finding can occur by chance or error is more in the association result between HH marital status and labour in taxies

Table 4.3.6. Parents’ Education and Children’s activity

		Parents’ Education															
		Illiterates				1-4				5-8				9-12 and above			
		Father		Mother		Father		mother		Father		Mother		Father		Mother	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Activity	Work in Industry	29	6.7	51	35.4	10	35.7	8	33.3	12	26.7	14	21.9	26	55.3	12	52.2
	Work in Taxi	17	21.5	28	19.5	8	28.6	6	25	0	0	6	9.4	0	0	0	0
	Non Working	33	41.8	65	45.1	10	35.7	10	41.7	33	73.3	44	68.7	21	44.7	11	47.8
Total		79	100	144	100	28	100	24	100	45	100	64	100	47	100	23	100

Source: own survey, 2010

Generally speaking most of the parents of children in the three groups are illiterate as can be seen in the above table. Specifically majority of parents of children working in taxies have lower educational status as compared to parents of non working children and children working in small industries. None of the parents of the children working in taxies achieve 9-12 while there are 47 and 23 fathers and mothers of non working and working children in the industries all together achieve 9-12.

Tasseew, Bekele, Nicola, and Albel, (2005) suggested that children of better educated parents are more likely to engage in school than work and the reverse is true. This is also identified to be true in this research. Low educational status of parents of children

working in taxies has its own impact on the labour participation of the children and livelihood of combing school and work.

The statistical test shows Labour participation in taxies is moderately (.606) associated with father’s educational level. .and it has low (.348) association with mother’s education. Thus, the finding shows greater effect of father’s education to the labour participation of children in this setting than mother’s educational level.

As to working in the industries father’s education and mother’s education do have low (.116) and very low (.216) association respectively. Similar to that of working in taxies, father’s education is identified to be relatively more determining to working in industries. Both associations are significant at 0.05 levels.

In general, parent’s educational level is more influential to labour participation in taxies than in industries and fathers’ educational level is more influential than mother’s education to children’s labour participation in both settings.

In Ethiopian context the father is in most cases the bread winner of the family this is also indicated in this research in table 4.2.1 that most of the working and non working children are from male headed HH. This is why labour participation is more dependent on father’s education than mother’s education.

Table 4.3.7. Household Heads’ Occupation and Children’s activity

		Occupational Status				Total	
		Permanent Occupation		Non Permanent Occupation			
		No	%	No	%	No	%
Children’s activity	work In Industry	45	48.4	48	51.6	93	30.7
	work in taxies	9	18.75	39	81.25	48	15.8
	non working	106	65.4	56	34.6	162	53,5
Total		160	52.8	143	47.2	303	100

Source: own survey, 2010

The assessment of household head's occupational status as summarized in the above table shows that most (39 or 81.25 percent) heads of the households of the children working in taxies had nonpermanent occupation and only 9(18.75 percent) of them had permanent occupation. On the other hand 106 (65.4 percent) of heads of the households of the non working children had permanent occupation and more than half (45 or 48.4 percent) of heads of the households of the children working in small industries had permanent occupation. From this it can be revealed that children of parents with non permanent occupation are more potential to participate in work. The strength of the relationship between the two variables is analyzed below using Cramer's V test of association.

As in the competition of Cramer's V the V-value is computed to be .161 for the relation ship between occupation and work in the industries. This figure tells that there is very low correlation between family/HH head's occupational status and labour participation. .388 is the V- value of association between child labour in taxies and family/HH head's occupational status that it also indicates low correlation. Therefore, the probability that labour participation is determined by HH/family head's occupational status is very less. In both cases, the association is significant

Table 4.3.8. Household Income Level and Children's activity

		Monthly Income Level										Total	
		0-750		751- 1100		1101- 1650		1651-2100		>2101			
		N ₀	%	n ₀	%	n ₀	%	n ₀	%	n ₀	%	n ₀	%
Children's activity	Work in taxi	34	70.8	14	29.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	15.8
	Work in industry	7	7.5	4	4.3	24	25.8	28	30.1	30	32.2	93	30.7
	non working	20	12.3	8	4.9	52	32.1	48	29.6	34	20.9	162	53.5
Total		61	20.1	26	8.6	76	25.1	76	25.1	64	21.1	303	100

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table indicates that large number (34 or 70.8 percent) of children working in taxies were from families who earn relatively very low (0-750) income and the remaining (14 or 29.2 percent) were from families who earn relatively low (750-1100) income. We can argue that children working in taxies were completely from relatively poor families that none of the households are middle, large and very large income earners.

In contrast, very large (30 or 30.2 percent) and large (28 or 30.1 percent) number of parents of children working in the small industries were of very large and large income earners respectively. Very small (4 or 4.3 percent) and small (7 or 7.5 percent) number of children in the industries were of relatively small and very small income earners. Similar to this, small number of families of non- working children were low and very low income earners.

Thus, low family income is the very cause for the labour engagement of children working in taxies and it is not the reason for the children working in the small industries. It is often pointed out by different authors that poverty or low family income is the major cause of child labour in many developing countries in general. For example John, 2001 concluded that income has a positive impact on the relative probability of children attending school and the reverse is true.

As it is indicated in the test value, table 4.2.12 the V- value for the association between income and work in industries is .142 and the p- value is .275 which means there is very low/negligible association and it is not significant at 0.05 levels of significance. This means the difference in income between working children in the industries and non working children is occurred due to error or by chance and hence income and child labour are not significantly correlated..

Nevertheless, the association between income and labour participation in taxies is strong that the V- value shows .723 and the P- value is .000 that the association is very significant at 0.05 levels of confidence. The result is not occurred by chance or error at all. Therefore, labour participation in taxies is highly dependent on HH/family income level.

Looking the correlation between the two variables using Cramer’s V as what is done above may not be enough because house hold income might be affected by family size. Therefore; it seems to be necessary to use partial correlation so as to control the effect of family size on family income. The result is presented below

Table 4.3.9. Partial Correlation between Income and children’s activity

Control Variables			Work in industries	Income level
Family/ HH Size	Work in industries	Correlation	1.000	-.117
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.062
		df	0	252
	Income Level	Correlation	-.117	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.062	.
		df	252	0

Control Variables			Work in taxies	Income Level
Family/ HH Size	Work in taxies	Correlation	1.000	-.625
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	.000
		df	0	207
	Income Level	Correlation	-.625	1.000
		Significance (2-tailed)	.000	.
		df	207	0

Source: Own survey, 2010

In the partial correlation table in the first group, which were children working in the small industries; the correlation coefficient is -.117 which is very low or almost negligible and negative. In addition to this, the association is seen to be not significant (.062) at 0.05 significant levels. Therefore, labour participation in the industries is less dependent on family income even when family size is controlled.

When we look at the second group, which are children working in taxies, the correlation coefficient shows $-.625$ which means moderate or substantial negative association between the two variables and the association is $.000$ that it is significant at 0.05 levels of significance. The value tells us child labour increases as family income decreases. The initial correlations in both groups don't show significant difference when controlling family size. Hence, labour participation in taxies is dependent on family income levels even when family size is controlled

Table 4.3.10. Job of House Hold/family Head of Working Children

		Work in industries		work in taxies	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Farmers	0	0	21	33.3
	building construction	20	20.2	0	0
	Micro and small business	8	8.1	7	11.1
	small retailing	3	3.0	3	4.8
	government employee	18	18.2	3	4.8
	daily labourer	2	2.0	4	6.3
	private employee	8	8.1	4	6.43
	industrial work shops	4	4.0	0	0
	Auto mechanics	11	11.1	0	0
	None	0	0	3	.8
	Other	0	0	3	4.8
	run own business	19	19.2	0	0
	Total	93	93.9	48	76.2

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table shows that most of the household head's of the children working in taxies were farmers. In contrast, most of the HH head's of the children working in the industries

were engaged in construction works and run their own business. The disparity in the income source or jobs between HH head's of children working in the industries and in taxies results in disparity in income level. As we can see from the table there are HH head's who don't have job at all. As to the responses of the children these HH expect irregular subsidy from relatives. There are also 3(4.8 percent) HH head's who earn easy money from giving door to door services etc.

Therefore, we can conclude that most parents /HH head's of children working in taxies can earn non permanent easy money.

Table 4.3.11. Children's Reasons for Work

		Place of work				Total	
		Industries		Taxies			
		No	%	No	%	No	%
Reasons for Work	to subsidize family low income	11	11.1	27	42.9	38	23.5
	to develop skill	51	51.5	9	14.3	60	37
	As there is no one to look after me	7	7.1	15	23.8	22	13.6
	peer influence	6	6.1	6	9.5	12	7.4
	to support the family in the work place	13	13.1	0	0	13	8
	not performing good at school	11	11.1	6	9.5	17	10.5
Total		99	100	63	100	162	100

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table shows that of the total 63 children working in taxies 27(42.9 percent) and 15(23.8 percent) were working to subsidize family low income and to survive as there is no one who looks after them. Only 9(14.3 percent) were engage in work to develop their

skill. In contrast, the reasons for work to the majority (51 or 51.5 percent) of the children working in the small industries is to develop their skill while only 11(11.1 percent) are engaged in work to subsidize family/HH low income.

This finding coincides with the above finding on the correlation between income and labour participation. As it is discussed above, income has less relation with labour participation of children in the small industries. As a result, the reason for work to the majority of these children is not to subsidize low family income. On the other hand, most of the children working in taxies were from relatively poor families that most children were working to subsidize this low family income.

According to the respondents, the children who are working due to low family income are also responsible to send money to their family even if the family is not living in Mekelle. So we can say that they are over shouldered responsibilities in their early age.

Table 4.3.12. Correlation Test Results of Determinant of Child Labour

		Test type	Test value		p- value	
			Work. in industry	Work in taxi	Work in Industry	Work in taxi
1	Orphan hood	Cramer's V	.219	.255	.006	.002
2	Sex of HH/family head	Cramer's V	.072	.352	.25	.00
3	Marital status of family/ HH head	Cramer's V	.255	.065	.001	.640
4	Migration status	Cramer's V	.277	.718	.000	.000
5	Family size	Pearson's r	-.151*	-.148*	.15	.32
6	Mother's education	Cramer's V	.116	.348	.723	.012
7	Father's education	Cramer's V	.216	.606	.146	.000
8	Occupational status of HH/ family head	Cramer's V	.161	.388	.01	.00
10	Family/HH income level	Cramer's V	.142	.723	.275	.000

Source: own survey, 2010

The information gained through interview indicated that Social affairs office is the responsible body to deal with social problems in our country. Accordingly, the office has been doing so many things towards the reduction of the forces that push children out to the street, engaged in labour and be out of school. As to the principal of labour office of the region the major push factor that leads children out is poverty and so many projects are being carried out by the office to reduce the level of poverty in addition to the safety net programs by the government. Direct grant, livelihood support, one organization for one child, matching cost , advocacy are the most common programs that are being carried out by the office in order to cure the most vulnerable/ potential children to go out to the street and be out of school.

The office has also projects to support the children already on the street and off the street. Among these programs, family tracing, skill training, if older than 14, inter country adoption, local adoption are the most common treatments given. The programs are evaluated to be 80 percent successful by the social affairs office.

However, the children working in taxies, even though they are regarded as off the street children, were not beneficiaries of any of the programs above. The officials of the social affairs office said that, as to the working children in taxies and in the small industries, they did not have any idea. However, they believe that the challenge that this kind of child labour pose to the overall achievement of MDGs remains undeniable.

Therefore, the social affairs office and other concerned bodies should turn their face towards this problem and education programs of the country should accommodate the working hours of these children as recommended by the official of social affairs office.

5.4. Children's Working Conditions

Assessing the working conditions of the children is one of the objectives in this research. Accordingly, children were asked about the work environment, working hours, wage and other related questions and results are presented below.

Table 4.4.1. Frequency Distribution of Weekly Income of Children

		Working place			
		Working in Industry		Working in taxies	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Birr	10-50	44	44.4	0	0
	51-100	26	26.3	0	0
	101-150	7	7.1	19	30.2
	151-200	8	8.1	41	65.1
	201-300	2	2.0	3	4.8
	Total	87	87.9	63	100
Non wage workers		12	12.1	0	0
Total		99	100.0	63	100

Source, 2010: own survey

As can be seen in the above table, almost all of the children in both groups work for wage. Majority of the children working in taxies seems to be better paid than the other group. 44.4 percent and 8.1 percent of the children in the small industries are paid 10-50 and 151-200 Birr per week respectively. However, 65, 1 percent and 0 of the children in taxies are paid 151-200 Birr Per week respectively. Therefore, when we compare the two groups, working children in taxies were by far more paid than working children in the industries. 12 (12.1 percent) of the children working is the industries were not working for wage and they engaged in work in order to help their families in the work place. In other words, they do have a close blood relationship with the employer.

Focus group discussion (FGD) participants were asked to suggest about their weekly wage. Accordingly, participants of FGD from the working children in taxies suggest that in relation to the risks it has it is not fair by far. They also explained that it is not even fair

enough to fulfill their daily basic needs but they do not have any bargaining power to make adjustment in relation to the wage, working hours and terms of employment.

Even though the weekly income of the children working in the industries is less than the weekly income of these working in taxies, they do have a different idea. They said, “From the very beginning most of the children here are not working for wage in addition to this, as most of the children are in their early age and mainly wants to develop their skill they don’t complain about their wage. In fact, we would be glad if we could gain more!” The same to the working children in taxies they do not have bargaining power to make adjustment about the wage, working hours and terms of employment. Most of the children in the industries are engaged in work through parents’ or relatives’ and employers’ common understanding.

The table below indicates, the working days and hours for working children in the taxies were greater than for the other group. The majority (60 or 95.2 percent) of the Working children in taxies spent 8 hours and above of the day and more than 56 hours a week at work and only 3(4.8 percent) spent 3-7 hours of the day at work. In addition to this all these children spent the whole week at work. Children in the industries also work for long hours a day but as compared to the working children in taxies it is a little bit better. Majority (52 or 52.5 percent) of the children who work for 3-7 hours a day and 6 days a week and minority (10 or 10.1 percent) of the children work for 3 and less hours a day and 7 days a week.

Table 4.4.2. Frequency Distribution of Working Hours and Days

Working Hours	Work in Industry		Work in taxies	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
3 hours and below a day	10	10.1	0	0
If 3-7 hours a day	52	52.5	3	4.8
If 8 hours and above a day	37	37.4	60	95.2
Total	99	100	63	100
Working days				
5 days and below per week	27	27.3	0	0
6 days per week	46	46.5	0	0
7 days per week	26	26.3	63	100
Total	99	100.0	63	100

Source: own survey, 2010

Even though there is no time restriction for this kind of hazardous child labour, as these are completely banned for children under the age of 18, the working hours and days of the children in this research is far long as compared to the working time restriction for non hazardous jobs by WECEP (work experience and career exploration program). WECEP has already set working hours restriction for children, who are in the age of 14 and 15, in non hazardous job. These are,

- Not more than 40 hours in any one week when school is not in session.
- Not more than 23 hours in any one week when school is in session.
- Not more than 8 hours in any day when school is not in session.
- Not more than 3 hours in any day when school is not in session
- Between 7 am and 7 pm. except during the summer (June 1 through Labour Day), when the evening hour is 9 pm.

Furthermore, even though the children are working for more hours than the restrictions stated above, they are not paid par time payment at all. In addition to this, the children are working more hours and days than the adult working time restriction of the country. In our observation we also observe that they are not allowed even to have a break during the work hours and children who attend school, either in the regular or in the evening, set free to go to school just at the class starting time.

Even though the constitution of federal democratic republic of Ethiopia 1995, provides the protection of child rights like;

Every child has the right not to be subjected to exploitative practices, neither to be required nor permitted to perform work which may be hazardous or harmful to his or her education, health or well being

in its 36th article, significant number of children are performing work which is hazardous to their education, health and well being and they are lagging behind in their education and facing health problems. The following table shows how often children are faced to conflicts and accidents.

As in the table below, children in both groups face different work related conflicts and accidents in the work place. According to the response of the children specifically, children working in taxies are more vulnerable to conflicts and accidents than children in the industries. Only 20.6 percent of the children working in taxies said that they never face conflict while 71.1 percent of the children working in the industries said so. On the other hand, 28.6 percent of the children in taxies explained that they often face conflicts while no one is in the other group. Regarding accident, the majority of the children in both groups said they never face accidents while 25.3 percent and 27 percent of the children in the industries and in taxies said they sometime and once face accidents.

Table 4.4.3. Incidence of work related Conflict and Accident

Conflict		Work in Taxi		Work in Industry	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Often	18	28.6	0	0
	Some Times	32	50.8	20	20.2
	Once	0	0	8	8.1
	Never	13	20.6	71	71.7
	Total	63	100.0	99	100
Accident					
Valid	Often	0	0	0	0
	Some times	9	14.3	25	25.3
	Once	17	27.0	13	13.1
	Never	37	58.7	61	61.6
	Total	63	100.0	99	100

Source: own survey, 2010

Children were also asked about with whom do they conflict with and employers, work mates and customers are whom they conflict with. Transportation tariff, who first to give service and daily income balance are the common reasons as to why children conflict with or argue. The conflicts with workmates and customers often get solved by common understanding and the solution for the argument with employers may go further up to insulting, beating and even work dismissal. The common reason of conflict in the small industries is time attendance and children are often given warnings by the employer or the respected person.

The accident that is common to children working in taxies and in the industries is car accident and electric shock respectively. Eye irritation, body hit, body cut and body burn are also common incidents for the children working in the industries. It is also identified from observation that the work setting of most of the children working in the industries is

not convenient to children. Poor sanitation, poor access to pure water, poor ventilation and insufficient protective materials are the descriptions of the work settings.

Table 4.4.4. Children’s feeling towards their Work

		Working in Taxies		Working in Industries	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
feelings	Like it Very Much	19	30.2	60	60.6
	Dislike it Very Much	44	69.8	2	2.0
	Neither like nor Dislike it	0	0	37	37.4
	Total	63	100.0	99	

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table indicates that majority (44%) of the children working in taxies have a negative (dislike their work very much) feeling towards their work as compare to only 2(2%) children in the industries explained that they dislike their work very much. This indicates that this work setting is worse than the small industries.

Participants of FGD from the working children in taxies explained that despite the long working hours with no par time payment without fair treatment by the employer as well as the customers, there is no guarantee of injuries, the income they gain from this is very little and it can’t guarantee the next day’s survival. No skill can also be acquired from this work setting. Moreover, it is a condition, in which they can’t look bright tomorrow and think of the end night of the boring and tiring to day. Generally, they said that working in taxies as ‘weyalla’ is the last and least choice they ever had that they engaged in it. In addition, in the discussion about whether their current labour engagement has some kind of relation with what they want to be in the future, they explained that their future is dark, one of the participants said that.” Some of our friends tend to say that they are going to be a taxi drive in the future; however, it random, had they had the capital and the moral to do so they wouldn’t have engaged in such kind of worst job. They do not even get enough time to exercise and have the license.”

When one of the participants of FGD from the working children in the small industries describes the working condition, “in fact it is tiring and some times beyond our acceptance to engage in such a hard work.” Especially for younger children he said, “It is like a punishment.” However, he explained that “it is a place where we can see who we will be the next day. As they explained most owners of the small industries were working in such kind of working conditions in their early age” therefore; “they said,” we all have the same vision that some years latter we will be like our employers. After we become skilled our parents or relatives are more responsible to provide us with the necessary initial capital or collator so as to borrow from financial institutions.”

Interview was made with officials of labour office about the problem. From last year’s survey about the push and pull factors of child labour it can be depicted that unstable relationship of parents, orphan hood due to AIDS, large family size wrong perception of children that they perceive it is easy to combine school and work in towns and children’s need to be out of parent’s control are the common reasons of children for work.

Even though, these work settings has already identified as hazardous work setting by the labour office, remarkable effort to reduce the push and pull factors and to protect them from work hazards hasn’t been done yet.

As to the officials, labour office is in charge of protecting the children from work hazards; however protecting the children from work hazards through policy enforcement regardless of the reason behind is not sufficient remedy to child labour. This is because, the problem which makes them work remains a problem and that lets them face other problems like hunger, thief, and street life. There fore, it is a must to give care of the push and pull factors be solved first and this is beyond the responsibilities of the labour office. The officials also described that the solution needs joint action of government and non government stakeholders

4. 5. Child Labour and children’s School Participation.

The major objective of this research is to examine the consequence of child labour on school participation and performance of the child labourers and to examine the relationship between working hours and schooling. Accordingly, children are asked education related questions and results are presented below.

The table below presents the age and the current grade achievement of the working and the non working children. Other educational standards are computed and presented in the next tables

Table 4.5.1. Children’s School Participation.

Age	10		11		12		13		14		15		16		17		total	
	Working	Non W	Working	Non W	Working	Non W	Working	Non W	working	Non W	working	Non W	working	Non W	Working	Non W	working	Non W
1							0		2		0		0		0		2	0
2			1				2		0		0		0		0		3	0
4		4		1			2		4		0		0		0		6	5
5		2		2	1		4		0		0		1		0		6	4
6		1			1	12	0	4	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	6	17
7						10	2	22	0	7	4	0	1	0	1	0	8	39
8		0				0	0	0	1	22	0	12	3	0	1	9	5	43
9		0				0	0	0	4	0	16	12	2	2	2	0	24	14
10		0				0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	21	5	8	9	30
Total	0	7	1	3	2	22	10	26	11	29	24	25	10	23	11	17	69	152
Out of school	3	0	1	0	2	2	7	1	21	2	16	2	20	1	23	2	93	10
Total	3	7	2	3	4	24	17	27	32	31	40	27	30	24	34	19	162	162

Source: own survey, 2010

Table 4.5.2. Children's Gross and Net Attendance Ratio

Current Grade		Gross Attendance Ratio (GAR)		Net Attendance Ratio (NAR)	
		Working Children	Non-Working Children	Working Children	Non-Working Children
Current Grade	1	-	0	-	-
	2	-	0	-	-
	3	-	-	-	-
	4	200	71.4	0	57.1
	5	300	200	0	66.7
	6	150	70.8	25	50
	7	47.1	144.4	11.8	81.5
	8	15.6	138.7	3.1	71
	9	60	51.9	40	44.4
	10	30	123	6.7	87.5
	Total	42.4	93.8	45.3	93.1

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table shows that the GAR of the working children is lesser than the GAR of the non working children in all grade levels. Similarly, the NAT of working children is worse than the non working children. UNICEF, 2008, from the 2005 Zambia labour force survey, revealed that involvement in economic activity makes it more difficult for a child to attend school. Moreover; it is revealed that the constraints that work poses to school attendance appear to increase as children grow older.

The same is true here that due labour participation most working children are out of school. The net attendance ratio in grade 1, 2, and 3 is not computed because there is no sample child that belongs to the corresponding official age of these grades. Other wise, the NAT and GAR of non-working children was greater that the NAR and GAR of

working children in all grades except in grade 9. In grade 9 the NAR of working children is greater than that of the non working and NAR of working children is almost the same in both groups. On the other hand, Mekelle education office has already planned to achieve 100 percent net enrollment rate in grades 1-8 and 90 percent net enrollment rate in grades 9-10 Form this finding it can be concluded that labour is a great pose to school attendance and Mekelle education office could never achieve its plan which states 100 percent NAR by 2002.

Table 4.5.3 Age Specific Attendance Ratio

		Working children	Non-working children
Age	10	0	100
	11	50	100
	12	50	88.8
	13	58.8	91.7
	14	34.4	93.3
	15	60	93.5
	16	33.3	92.6
	17	32.6	89.7

Source: own survey, 2010

The above table shows enrolment ratio of specific age group. As can be seen from it, age specific attendance ratio is less for age 10, 14, 16 and 17. Enrolment ratio is too much better in grade 9 for age 15 even though it is too much inferior to the enrolment rate of non-working children of the same age. Generally, the enrolment ratio of non working children is better the working children

The following table is calculation of school exclusion for the two groups. We can see that the number of out of school children among the working children was 57 percent in contrast the number of out of school children among the non working children was (6.2

percent). Therefore, for the less school participation of children child labour is a major factor.

Table 4.5 4. School Exclusion or Out of School Children

	proportion	Percentage
Working children	0.57	57
Non working children	0.06	6.2

Source: own survey, 2010

School life expectancy (SLE) provides a measure of the total number of years of education that a child can expect to achieve in the future. Relatively higher school life expectancy shows greater probability of spending more years in education. Based of this non working children’s school life expectancy (6.7) was better than the school life expectancy of working children (2.8). This means the non working children, who can stay 6.7 years in school system, can complete higher grade than the working children.

Table 4.5.5. School Life Expectancy of Working and Non Working Children

	School life expectancy
Working children	2.8
Non-working children	6.7

Source: own survey, 2010

The number of children who are enrolled in school or the net attendance ratio can also be examined in relation to the age of the children. Over age student for the two groups is calculated and presented below.

5.5. Child Labour and Children's School Progression

School progression can be described in terms of the children's ability to continue their education with out any interruption and at the right school age. The two indicators of school progression are presented below.

Table 4.6.1. Over Aged Students

	Propor tion	Percentage
Working children	0.62	62%
Non working children	0.46	46%

Source: own survey, 2010

Of the working children who were attending school most of them (62 percent) were older than the official school age of the corresponding grade. The number of over aged students of non working children is lesser the working children nevertheless the number is worse even. This also contradicts with the 2002 plan of education office to achieve 100 percent net enrollment ratio.

The table below presents the average grade completed by children currently attending school at a given age as compared to the official grade for age corresponding. According to the table, the average grade achieved by 17 years old working and non working children was 8.6 and 8.9 respectively; however the corresponding grade for this age is 11. Working children seemed to do better at age 12. Their average grade is 6.8 while they are expected to achieve grade 6 the average grade completed by both working and non working children generally was lesser than the expected grade. More than this, the average grade completed by working children was the least of all at all age levels. So, work has a negative consequence on the school progression of the child or working children are lagging behind due to labour engagement.

Table 4.6.2. Grade for Age Competition.

		Age							
		10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
average grade	Working children	-	0.5	5.5	4.6	5.6	8.4	8	8.6
	Non working children	4.6	4.7	6.5	6.8	7.8	8.7	9.9	8.9
Officially corresponding grade		4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11

Source: own survey, 2010

Children’s school attendance was better last year than this year. As can be seen from the figure of the total 162 working children 123(75.9 percent) were attending school. When we compare it with this year’s enrollment (42.4 percent) rate it is by far better. Therefore, we can conclude that combining school and work became difficult or the working condition of the children became difficult this year that so many children dropped out schooling this year.

Table 4.6.3. Working Children’s School Attendance in 2001

		Non working		Working children	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Valid	child who attended class last year	161	99.4	123	75.9
	child who do not attended class last year	1	0.6	39	24.1
	Total	162	100.0	162	100

Source: own survey, 2010

4.7. Working Hours Vs Schooling

Many researchers discussed the effect of working hours on schooling. Here is also attempted to depict to what extent do working hours and class attendance and school performance correlate. Results are presented below.

From the information gained from the children the majority of the children who were engaged at work for relatively less hours were not absent from class during the previous school year. In contrast, the majority of the children who work for 3-7 hours a day had 3 absent from class. Moreover, none of the children working for 8 and above hours a day were able to attend the whole days of the same week. Therefore, long working hours have an immense negative effect on the child's school attendance.

Table 4.7.1. Working Hours and Children's Weekly Class Room Attendance.

		Working Hours			Total
		3 hours and below a day	3-7 hours a day	8 hours and above a day	
Class attendance	Attended one day	0	0	0	0
	Attended two days	0	21	11	32
	Attended three days	0	17	7	24
	Attended four day	2	4	0	6
	Attended five days	6	1	0	7
Total		8	43	18	69

Source: own survey, 2010

In addition to the effect of child labour on the school attendance and school performance of the children, as identified by many authors like Federico and Frank (2008), it also affects the class room attendance of the children as it is tested below. The test shows that the r value is -.587, which means working hours and school attendance are moderately correlated and the correlation is negative which suggests an increase in working hours results in decrease class room attendance. In addition to this the p- value is .000 that the relationship is very significant at 0.05 level

Table 4.7.2. Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient Test of Working Hours and Class Room Attendance

		Class attendance	Working Hours
Class attendance	Pearson Correlation	1	-.587**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	69	69
Working Hours	Pearson Correlation	-.587**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	69	162

Source: own survey, 2010

Due to long hours of working, all the children who spent 8 hours and above at work were attending extension classes though they prefer regular to extension. Focus group participant of working children has already described how worse learning in the evening is. As they described the teaching learning process in the extension program is distracted in many ways.” *For example,*” they said “*last year we were learning only two days from the five school days due to power fluctuation.*” They also said that it is very difficult to concentrate and follow up lectures because as they spent the whole day working they feel tired and tend to sleep. In addition to this, they do not have time to do home works, to study their daily lesson and to go to the library and refer books. They said, had they been in the regular program they would have had time to study and to their home works in the evening.

The table below provides average score of children in relation to working hours from that we can see that there is no one who scored excellent from the children who work for 8 and above hours a day. And there are 1 and 9 children who scored excellent from the children who spent 3-7 and 3 and less hours working respectively. On the other hand, there is no one who scored 50% from the children who work for less than three hours and 4 and 3

children scored poor from the children who work for 3-7 hours and more than 8 hours. The relation ship is analyzed more below.

Table 4.7.3. Working Hours and Children’s Average Score

		Working Hours			Total
		3 hours & below a day	3-7 hours a day	8 hours & above a day	
Average Mark	Excellent (90=100%)	1	9	0	10
	Very good (80-89%)	4	12	1	17
	Good (60-79%)	1	14	4	19
	Fair (50-59%)	2	4	11	17
	Poor (50%)	0	4	2	6
Total		8	43	18	69

Source: own survey, 2010

The correlation between these two variables, working hours and average score, is computed to be $-.392$ this means working hour is less associated with children’s score and the negative sign suggests, score decreases as working hour increases. The test is presented below.

Table 4.7.4. Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient Test of Working Hours and Average Score

		Average mark	Working Hours
Average mark	Pearson Correlation	1	-.392**
	\Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	221	69
Working Hours	Pearson Correlation	-.392**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	69	162

Source: own survey, 2010

From the interview made with the officials of education it is obtained that the problem of child labour especially in relation to education is obvious however no action is taken by the education office to include the child labourers in the school system. After all there is no survey made to identify concerning school age population and access. The plan which is made is depending population projection and this can be distracted by other factors like movement of people from place to place.

As they explained attempts was done last year to solve the problem of working children through alternative basic education. However, it can't be implemented due to budget constraints. In addition to this, government and non government stake holders are taking action to reduce the problem and as a result it is impossible to create task force to ease the efforts that must be done so as reduce child labour and its negative effects.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusions

Depending on the previous findings and discussions the following conclusions are made

- ❖ Most of the socio-economic characteristics of the child and the family, which are determined as determinants of child labour in many developing countries including Ethiopia, are noticed to be less influential for the children who are engaged in these hazardous child labours. Both family/ HH's sex, family/HH size, marital status of the HH/ family head and income levels have very low correlation with labour participation in the small industries while HH/family occupational status has low correlation with it. HH's sex, family/HH size, marital status of the HH/ family head have very low correlation with labour participation in taxies, occupation status and income have very low and strong correlation. Beside to this, subsidizing low family/HH income is identified as a reason for work by the majority of child labourers in taxies and labor participation is to develop skill for the majority of the child labourers in the small industries. Therefore, we can conclude that
 - Low family income and migration are the major cause for labour participation of children working in taxies
 - Culture or family and children perception towards early labour engagement, which encourages children to work to develop skill, is the major cause of labour participation in small industries.
- ❖ Attempts have already made to assess the working conditions of the children in the two groups in relation to income, working hours, incidence of conflict and accident and children's feeling to wards their work. Accordingly, findings the working hours for the children are far beyond the restrictions of international standards and the income the children is not fair enough in with regard to the working hours.

Moreover, the children are faced to work related conflicts and accidents. Generally, the working condition of the children is worse and it is most horrible for the children working in taxies. Unless interventions are made soon to change this situation, child rights remain denied in the city and its negative effects will get worse from time to time. Obviously, this will have negative effect on the children's adult earning and to the over all development of the country.

- ❖ The educational status of child labourers has also examined in comparison to economically non active children. Net and gross attendance ratio of child labourers is by far less than the non laboureres in both grades except grade 9. Age specific attendance ratio of working children is also incomparably worse in all ages (10-18) than the non working. Number out of school children is more among the working than among the non working and school life expectancy is better for non working than working. Generally. Educational status of the working children is inferior and it is beyond the expectation and plan of Mekelle education office. In addition to this, working children in taxies are more vulnerable that there are only three children who are combining school and work. Therefore, we can conclude that Mekelle education office couldn't achieve its plan of 2009/10 and even couldn't achieve MDG2 (universal primary education) by 2015 unless interventions are made to wards it. .
- ❖ The relation ship between working hour and schooling is also assessed. The findings indicated that absentees from class is more among working children and the more the working hours of the child is the more the child would be absent from class. Working hours are also related with average score of children. Average score of children is less related to working hours according to the finding. Generally, working hour is more influential to weekly class room attendance of children than school score.

5.2. Recommendations.

Based on the above findings and conclusions the following recommendations are suggested

- ❖ HH survey should be made to identify the school age population, enrollment rate and out of school children. And Mekelle education office should prepare plans depending on that.
- ❖ There are many international organizations that are too much concerned on children and these are making intervention independently. Therefore stake holder analysis should be made to identify what roles could the NGOs play, to provide the interventions in an organized way and to have follow-up of the progress.
- ❖ As it is stated above the major cause of child labour to the children working in taxies is family low in come. Therefore, designing income generating projects to provide the low income families livelihood support so that they can improve their income is the best remedy.
- ❖ For the children who are engaged in work to develop their skill, school curriculum should be designed in a way that incorporates vocational training together with basic education.
- ❖ The working condition of the children is worse as it is stated above. However none the children, their parents, the employers and the public in general knows children have legal protection from this kind of worst working condition. there fore, awareness raising programs and community mobilizing for the promotion of child rights, child labour conventions and labour standards should be designed by the government and other concerned NGOs.
- ❖ To reduce the out of school children and improve the school life expectancy of the working children, awareness raising programs concerning the trade off between education and child labour should be designed. . In addition to this, interventions can be made by providing alternative work setting by which children can combine school and work.

- ❖ Strict restriction or national standard in relation to working hours and its enforcement should be introduced and addressed to the public properly. This can be done through Medias or else in order to reduce the effect of long working hour on school attendance, class room attendance and performance of the children.
- ❖ Fund raising projects should be designed to gain funds and implement alternative basic education program, which was proposed by education office but not implemented due to budget constraints, soon and help the out of school children have the access near by.

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Appendix I



Introduction

This questionnaire is designed to assess the causes and consequences of hazardous child labour in Mekelle city by a postgraduate student for the partial fulfillment of the requirements of the award of master's degree in development studies. The data which is expected from the respondents has a great role only for the success of this research that it will not be used for other purpose. In addition to this the researcher will be responsible for confidentiality of the data you provide. I would like to give too much thanks in advance for your cooperation.

Direction: - On the following pages you will find different questions. Please read each question and provide appropriate response.

- ☞ No need of writing your name
- ☞ Circle the one which is your choice of answer
- ☞ Write your answers briefly on the blank spaces where necessary

13. What is your parents' year of schooling?

1. Mother A. illiterate B. primary (1-4)
 C. complete primary (5-8) D. high school (9-12)
2. Father - A. illiterate B. primary (1-4)
 C. complete primary (5-8) D. high school (9-12)

14. Place of origin _____

15. Are your parents living in Mekelle now?

- A. yes B. no

16. If your answer in question number 14 is **YES**, has the family been living in Mekelle 12 years ago?

- A. yes B. no

17. If your answer for question number 15 is **NO**, where is the place where the family has been living 10 years ago? _____

18. What is the average monthly income of the house hold? (Only earned by members older than 18 years old)

- A. 0 – 750 B. 751 – 1200 C. 1201 - 1650
D. 1651 - 2100 E. 2101 and above

19. Do the household have permanent income?

- A. yes B. no

20. What is the job of the family/HH head?

C. Child's working condition

1. Do you have any blood relationship with the employer? A. yes B. no

2. Are you working for wage? A. yes B. no

3. If your answer for question number 2 above is **YES**, how much is your weekly income? _____

4. If your answer for question number 2 above is **YES**, do you contribute to the family/HH income?

- A. yes B. no

5. If your answer for question number 4 above is **YES**, how much do you give them on average weekly?_____
6. How many hours do you work per day?
- A. 3 and less than three
 - B. 3 – 7 hours
 - C. 8 and above
7. How many days do you work per week?
- A. 5 and less than five days
 - B. 6 days
 - C. 7 Days
8. If you are working more than 8 hours and 5 days, are you paid par time payment?
- A. yes
 - B. no
9. Why do you work?
- A. to subsidize family's low income
 - B. to develop my skill
 - C. as there is no one to look after me
 - D. peer influence
 - E. to help my family/ relatives in the work place
 - F. because I was not performing good at school
 - G. other, specify_____
10. Are you provided with the necessary protective materials in your work place?
- A. yes I am totally provided with
 - B. to some extent I am provided with
 - C. I provide the necessary material my self
 - C. Not at all
11. Have you ever had any conflict with...?
- | | | | | |
|--------------------|----------|---------------|---------|-------|
| A .your work mates | A. often | B. some times | C. once | D. no |
| B. your employer | A. often | B. some times | C. once | D. no |
| C. customers | A. often | B. some times | C. once | D. no |

12. If you answer in any of the above category is **not NO**,

1. Explain the common cause, _____

2. Explain the common consequence of the conflict

3. Explain the common solution given to the conflict by you or others

13. What is your feeling towards your work?

A. I like it very much

B. I dislike it very much

C. I neither like it nor dislike it

14. If you answer for question number 12 is 'B', why?

15. Have you ever face any accident in the work place?

A. often

B. sometimes

C. once only

D. not at all

16. If your answer in the above question is **not NO**, explain the kind of the accident.

17. Which do you prefer?

A. work

B. school

18. What do you want to be/ to achieve in the future?

19. Do you think your current job has any contribution to your future carrier?

A. yes

B. no

20. If your answer in question number 19 is yes how?

C. I am refused to attend the regular program by the school system

D. others, specify _____

11. Which program do you think is better for you?

A. the regular program

B. the extension program

12. What is your reason for your answer in question number 11?

13. Did you attend school last year?

A. yes

B. no

14. If your answer for question number 13 is **YES**, which level and grade were you attending?

A primary (1-4) – grade completed _____

B. complete primary (5-8) – grade completed _____

C. secondary (9-10) and above _____, _____

15. What is your average score during your last class attendance?

A. 90-100% excellent

B. 80-89% very good

C. 60-79% satisfactory

D. 50-59 % fair

E. Below 50% poor

16. If your average score is poor or fair why do you think?

17. If your answer for question number 15 is fair or poor, suggest for how it can be improved.

Appendix II

Mekelle University
College of Business and Economics
Department of Management
Graduate Studies Program

Introduction

This questionnaire is designed to assess the causes and consequences of hazardous child labour in Mekelle city by a postgraduate student for the partial fulfillment of the requirements of the award of master's degree in development studies. The data which is expected from the respondents has a great role only for the success of this research that it will not be used for other purpose. In addition to this the researcher will be responsible for confidentiality of the data you provide. I would like to give too much thanks in advance for your cooperation.

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- ☞ Write your answers briefly on the blank spaces where necessary

I. 50-59 % fair

J. Below 50% poor

16. If your average score is poor or fair why do you think?

17. If your answer for question number 15 is fair or poor, suggest for how it can be improved _____

Appendix III

Mekelle University
College of Business and Economics
School of Graduate Studies
Department of Management

FGD Check List for Working Children

1. Discussion on the working environment, work flow, types of tools used for Manufacturing
2. Discussion on length of working hours
3. Do you get enough income from your work?
4. The prevalent injuries among the children.
5. Does work have effect on education?
6. What are the common effects of child labor on the education of the working children in the area?
7. What do you expect from the government, the society or others?
8. Possible suggestion to solve the problem of the children

Appendix IV

Mekelle University
College of Business and Economics
School of Graduate Studies
Department of Management

Interview check list for principals of education, labour and social affairs office

1. Have your organization ever made a survey to identify the push and pull factors of child labour?
2. If so when and what are they and which one is more prevalence?
3. Is there any thing that has already been done to reduce the push and pull factors that force children to engage in hazardous child labour? If yes what?
- 4 Say what you didn't or what would have been done to reduce the push and pull factors?
5. If your answer in question number 3 is **YES** was it effective? If **YES** describe the positive effect and negative effects
6. How do education and child labour link?
7. As you know it is impossible to achieve the second millennium development goal, achieve universal primary education, regardless of child labour, so what do you think is the possible remedy to reduce the effect of child labour on education? It might be in relation to child labour and education policy or else.
8. Who do you think is your organization work with towards the reduction of child labour? And say what you all did together if any.
9. Is there any thing that has been done so far to create awareness among the public and concerned bodies about
 - The harms, specially in relation to education and human capital formation and then the over all development of the country,
 - And the child labour conventions that Ethiopia has already ratified.

10. What possible intervention areas do you suggest to reduce child labour and who do you think are the responsible bodies and stake holders to take part.? Suggest possible projects

11. Say if you have any thing to add?

Appendix V

Mekelle University
College of Business and Economics
School of Graduate Studies
Department of Management

Observation guide

1. Work environment
 - A. sanitation poor ____ fair ____ good ____
 - B. access pure water adequate ____ inadequate ____
 - C. working materials properly used ____ carelessly used ____
2. Treatment by
 - Employer fairly treated ____ poorly treated ____
 - Work mates fairly treated ____ poorly treated ____
 - Customers fairly treated ____ poorly treated ____
3. Working condition
 - Very difficult
 - Fairly difficult
 - Not difficult
4. Communication with
 - Employer smooth ____ to some extent smooth ____ rough ____
 - work mates smooth ____ to some extent smooth ____ rough ____
 - With customers smooth ____ to some extent smooth ____ rough ____