



# Child labour and the youth decent work deficit in Ghana



Inter-agency country report  
February 2016

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**February 2016**

Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Programme

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\*This report does not necessarily reflect the views or policies of the United States Department of Labor or of the Global Affairs Canada. The mention of trade names, commercial products and organizations does not imply endorsement by the United States Government or by the Government of Canada.

# Understanding child labour and the youth decent work deficit in Ghana

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## INTRODUCTION

1. Overcoming the twin challenges of child labour and the youth decent work deficit will be critical to Ghana's progress towards realising its broader social development goals. Evidence presented in this report indicates that 1.9 million Ghanaian children remain trapped in child labour. Of even greater concern, the evidence points to a very substantial *increase* in children's work in recent years, contrary to the regional and global child labour trends.<sup>1</sup> At the same time, young persons in the 15-34 years age range are concentrated overwhelmingly in low skill jobs in the informal economy that offer little prospect for advancement or for escaping poverty and exploitation. The effects of child labour and the decent work deficit facing youth are well-documented: both can lead to social vulnerability, societal marginalisation and deprivation, and both can permanently impair lifetime patterns of employment and pay.

2. The current Report examines the related issues of child labour and youth employment in the context of Ghana. Guided by observed outcomes in terms of schooling, work activities and status in the labour market, the report considers the economic as well as the social determinants of child labour and youth employment. The sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012 (GLSS 6, 2012) is the primary data source for the report. Data from this survey permit a comprehensive and nationally-representative picture of the child labour and youth employment situations. The fifth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2005 (GLS 5, 2005) is used to discuss the trends of child labour and youth employment.

3. The Report was developed in collaboration with Government agencies (Ghana Statistical Service, Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations, Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, Ministry of Education, National Development Planning Commission and other members of the National Steering Committee on Child Labour) and with the UCW partner agencies (ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank). As such, it provides an important common basis for action in addressing child labour and the youth decent work deficit.

4. Three related objectives are served by the report: (1) improve the information base on child labour and youth employment, in order to inform policy and programmatic responses; (2) promote policy dialogue on child labour and the lack of opportunities for decent and productive work for

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<sup>1</sup> ILO-IPEC. *Marking progress against child labour - Global estimates and trends 2000-2012* / International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) - Geneva: ILO, 2013.

youth; and (3) analyse the relationship between early school leaving, child labour and future status in the labour market.

5. The remainder of the Report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 reviews the national economic and social context. Chapter 3 reports estimates of child labour for the 5-14 and 15-17 years age groups. Chapter 4 of the report focuses on understanding children's work in the 5-14 years age range, looking first at the extent and changes in children's employment and then at its main characteristics. Chapter 5 addresses the extent and nature of child labour among older, 15-17 year-old, children. Chapter 6 examines the interplay between child labour and schooling. Chapter 7 then turns to youth employment, covering issues including job access, job quality, human capital and skills mismatches. Chapter 8 of the Report reviews current national responses to child labour and youth employment concerns. Chapter 9 consists of a concluding discussion of policy priorities for accelerating action in the areas of child labour and youth employment.

**Panel 1. Understanding Children's Work (UCW) programme**

The inter-agency research programme, Understanding Children's Work (UCW), was initiated by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), UNICEF and the World Bank to help inform efforts towards eliminating child labour.

The Programme is guided by the Roadmap adopted at The Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010, which lays out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labour.

The Roadmap calls for effective partnership across the UN system to address child labour, and for mainstreaming child labour into policy and development frameworks. The Roadmap also calls for improved knowledge sharing and for further research aimed at guiding policy responses to child labour.

Research on the work and the vulnerability of children and youth constitutes the main component of the UCW Programme. Through close collaboration with stakeholders in partner countries, the Programme produces research allowing a better understanding of child labour and youth employment in their various dimensions and the linkages between them.

The results of this research support the development of intervention strategies designed to remove children from the world of work, prevent others from entering it and to promote decent work for youth. As UCW research is conducted within an inter-agency framework, it promotes a shared understanding of child labour and of the youth employment challenges and provides a common platform for addressing them.



Chapter 2.

## GHANA AND ITS LABOR MARKET: RECENT TRENDS AND MAIN CHARACTERISTICS

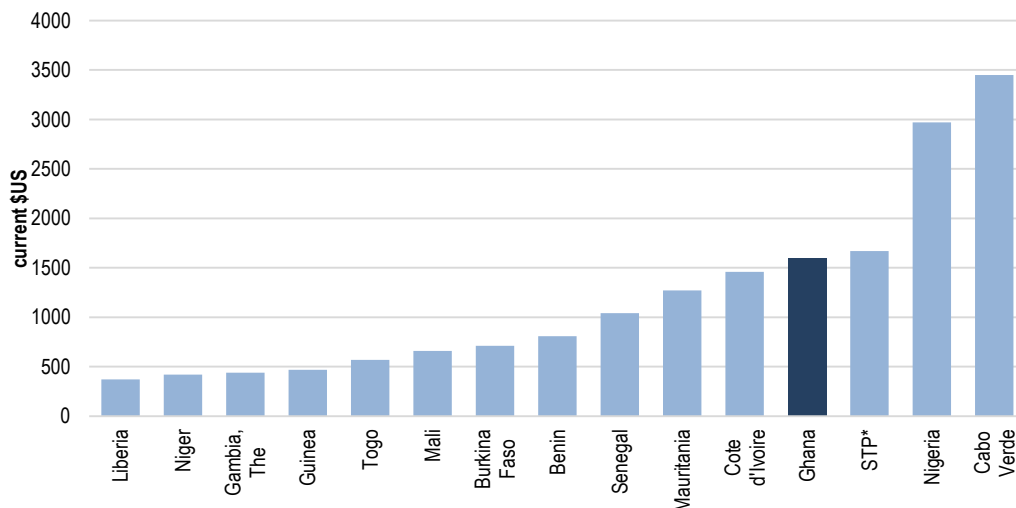
6. This chapter provides a general overview of the Ghanaian labour market with the aim to better contextualize the specific issues of children’s work and youth employment. To this end, after a short description of the country context (Section 2.1), the rest of this chapter will be devoted to describe the main features of the Ghanaian labour market, as well as its recent developments.

### 2.1 The country context

7. Thanks to a prolonged period of sustained and broadly inclusive growth, combined with relatively sound governance, Ghana is positioned among the richer countries in the West Africa region (Figure 1). Ghana is the world’s second largest cocoa producer behind Côte d’Ivoire, and Africa’s biggest gold miner after South Africa. Since 2010, it is also a significant and promising oil producer.

Figure 1. Ghana is positioned among the richer countries in the West Africa region

Gross national income (GNI) per capita (Atlas method, current \$US), by country, 2014



Notes: \*Sao Tome and Principe

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

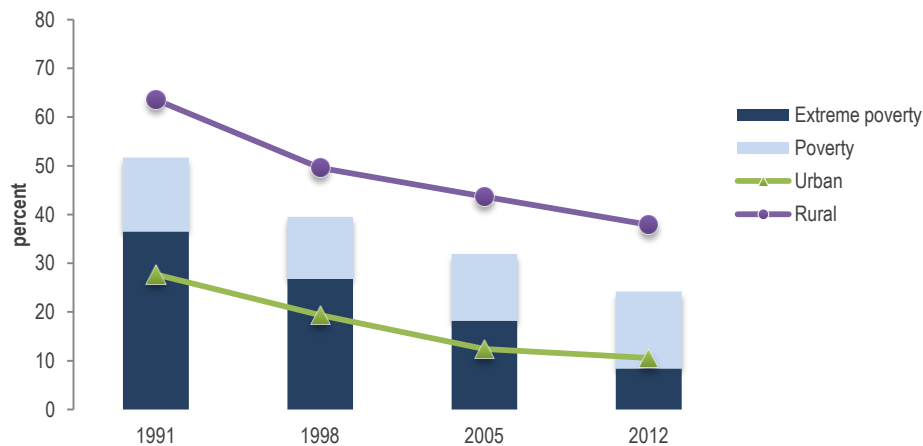
8. Formed by the merger of the Gold Coast (ex British colony) and British Togoland, Ghana was the first Sub Saharan African country to gain independence in 1957. Starting from 1983, Ghana shifted away from state controls of productive activities and undertook a more open and liberalized

economic system. At present, Ghana is a market-based economy with relatively few barriers to international trade. It is relatively rich in natural resources and is generally regarded among the strongest policy performers in Sub Saharan Africa. In this context, employment policy has progressively gained centre stage in the national policy agenda (see below).

9. Two decades of sustained economic growth have translated into a sharp decline in poverty rates. The proportion of people living below the national poverty line more than halved from 52% in 1991/92 to about 24% in 2012/13, while the incidence of extreme poverty dropped from 37% to eight percent over the same period. This is a remarkable result, which is almost unprecedented in Sub-saharan Africa, and looks consistent with the achievement of the first Millennium Development Goal (MDG, see below). However, though improving everywhere, poverty distribution still appears very heterogenous across the different areas of the country; rural poverty rates are almost four times as high (38%) as the corresponding urban ones (11%). In particular, poverty appears highly concentrated in the Northern regions of the country (Molini V., Paci P., 2015).

Figure 2. Poverty trends in Ghana, 1991-2012

Poverty headcount ratios, using national poverty line



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

10. Ghana has also registered substantial progress in the achievement of many other MDGs. According to the newly released National Development Planning Commission and UNDP report,<sup>2</sup> Ghana matched some of the targets in achieving a universal access to primary education, in improving gender equality at school, and reducing child mortality (Table 1). Important steps have also been certified in improving maternal health and combating HIV, malaria and other diseases. However, slow progress has been recorded in reducing maternal mortality ratios, achieving full and productive

<sup>2</sup> See National Development Commission (Republic of Ghana) and UNDP (2015).

employment, as well as an equal share of women in both non-agriculture wage employment and governance positions. Insufficient results have also been recorded is reversing the loss of the country's environmental resources and in improving sanitary conditions.

Table 1. MDGs in Ghana at a Glance – 2015

GOALS	TARGETS	STATUS		
		ACHIEVED	PROGRESSING	NOT ACHIEVED
<b>Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger</b>				
1.1 Halve the proportion of people below the national poverty line by 2015	1. Proportion below extreme poverty (national basic food needs) line (%)	✓		
	2. Proportion in overall poverty (national basic food and non-food needs) line (%)	✓		
	3. Poverty gap ratio			✓
	4. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption			✓
1.2 Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people	1. Growth of GDP per person employed		✓	
	2. Employment-to-population ratio		✓	
	3. Proportion of employed people living in extreme poverty		✓	
	4. Proportion of own account and contributing family workers in total employment			✓
1.3 Halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	1. Food security and prevalence of underweight, stunting and wasted children	✓		
<b>Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education</b>				
2.1 Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	1. Net and gross enrolment ratios in primary education		✓	
	2. Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach last grade of primary	✓		
	3. Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds, women and men		✓	
<b>Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women</b>				
3.1 Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	1. Ratio of girls-to-boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education	✓		
	2. Share of women in wage employment in non-agricultural sector			✓
	3. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament			✓
<b>Goal 4: Reduce child mortality</b>				
4.1 Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate	1. Under-5 mortality rate		✓	
	2. Infant mortality rate	✓		
	3. Proportion of one-year-old children immunised against measles		✓	
<b>Goal 5: Improve maternal mortality</b>				
5.1 Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio	1. Maternal mortality ratio			✓
	2. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel		✓	
5.2 Achieve, by 2015, universal access to reproductive health	1. Contraceptive prevalence rate (CPR)		✓	
	2. Antenatal care coverage (at least one visit)		✓	
<b>Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases</b>				
6.1 Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS	1. HIV prevalence among the population aged 15-24 years		✓	
6.2 Achieve, by 2010, universal access to treatment for HIV/AIDS for all those who need it	1. Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to antiretroviral drugs		✓	
6.2 Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	1. Proportion of children under 5 sleeping under insecticide-treated bed nets		✓	
<b>Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability</b>				
7.1 Reduce biodiversity loss, achieving, by 2010, a significant reduction in the rate of loss	1. Proportion of land area covered by forest			✓
7.2 Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water	1. Proportion of population using an improved drinking water sources	✓		
7.3 Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to basic sanitation	1. Proportion of the population using an improved sanitation facility			✓
7.4 By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	1. Proportion of population with access to secure housing			✓
	2. Proportion of urban population living in slums			✓
<b>Goal 8: Global partnership for development</b>				
8.1 Address the special needs of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs)	1. Official development assistance (ODA) Receipts by Government of Ghana as a percentage of GDP		✓	
	2. Programme aid as a percentage of total ODA		✓	
8.2 Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term	1. Public debt as a percentage of GDP		✓	
	2. Debt servicing as a percentage of exports of goods and services		✓	
8.3 Make available the benefits of new technologies in cooperation with the private sector	1. Telephone lines per 100 population		✓	
	2. Cellular users per 100 population	✓		
	3. Internet users per 100 population		✓	

Source: National Development Planning Commission and UNDP (2015), Ghana Millennium Development Goals – 2015 Report

11. The total population in Ghana currently amounts to more than 26 million, compared with about 15 million in 1991. The observed rise in total

population was accompanied by an increase in persons of working age, i.e. 15 to 64 years old (from 53.5% in 1991 to 57.7% in 2014), whereas the share of children younger than 15 progressively declined (from 43.7% to 38.9%, respectively). Dependency ratios have correspondingly decreased (Table 2), since the oldest cohort (65 and older) - though growing - still represents less than four percent of the Ghanaian population.

Table 2. Demographic changes in Ghana, 1991–2014

Characteristics	1991	2005	2014
Total population (persons)	15,042,736	21,389,514	26,786,598
% Females	49.2	50.0	50.3
<u>Age (%)</u>			
- 0-14	43.7	40.2	38.9
- 15-64	53.5	56.4	57.7
- 65 and over	2.8	3.4	3.4
<u>Area (%)</u>			
Rural	62.8	52.7	46.6
Urban	37.2	47.3	53.4
<u>Dependency ratio (% of working-age pop)</u>			
- 0-14	86.8	77.3	73.4
- 65 and over	81.6	71.3	67.5
- 65 and over	5.3	6.0	5.9
<u>Life expectancy at birth (years)</u>			
	57	62	66

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators.

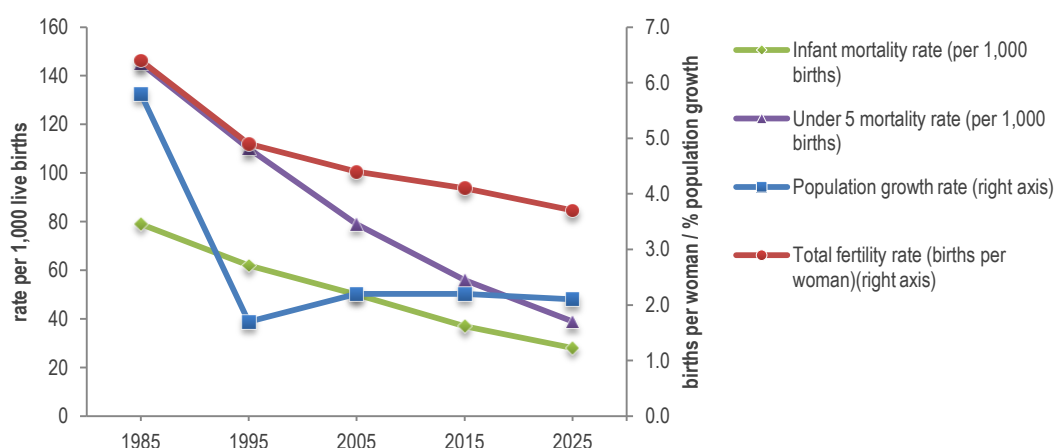
12. In more detail, between the early 1990s and 2014 the working-age population in Ghana rose at an annual growth rate of about 4.5%; as a result, people aged 15-64 years increased by almost 6.5 million persons (Table 3). Youths aged 15-24 years account for about one-third of the active population. This share, however, is declining over time (it was almost 40% in 1991), due to the slow but on-going deceleration in fertility rates (Figure 3). Thanks to the significant increase recorded in life expectancy (from 57 years in 1991 to 66 in 2014, see Table 2), the share of both prime-age and older workers (i.e. 25-54 and 55-64, respectively) has instead increased in the last two decades. In particular, the highest growth rates have been observed among those aged 35-54 (Table 3).

Table 3. Structure of working-age population in Ghana, 1991-2014

	1991	2005	2014	1991-2014		
				Abs. variation	Total % growth rate	Annual % growth rate
All persons 15-64 (abs. values)	8,310,308	11,881,344	14,771,216	6,460,908	77.7	4.5
<i>of which:</i>						
15-24	38.0	35.5	32.7	1,672,302	53.0	3.3
25-34	25.4	25.9	26.4	1,780,938	84.3	4.8
35-44	17.2	18.8	19.1	1,394,227	97.4	5.4
45-54	11.7	12.2	13.5	1,016,826	104.5	5.7
55-64	7.7	7.5	8.3	596,615	93.7	5.2

Source: UCW calculations using data from US Bureau of the Census, International Database (IDB).

Figure 3. Basic demographics trends in Ghana, 1985-2025



Source: US Bureau of the Census, International Database (IDB).

13. These population trends – which will continue in the next decades (see Figure 3) – is significantly affecting the structure of the Ghanaian labour market. The sharp rise in the potentially active population has resulted in a major increase in the Ghanaian labour force (see below), thereby raising a growing concern about the concrete capacity of the Ghanaian economy to create enough jobs to match a continuously increasing labor supply. The following section will try to answer this question by providing a current profile of both the supply and demand sides of the Ghanaian labor market. In this context, the focus will not only be on the overall quantity of job creation but also on its quality characteristics.

## 2.2 A current profile of the Ghanaian labour market<sup>3</sup>

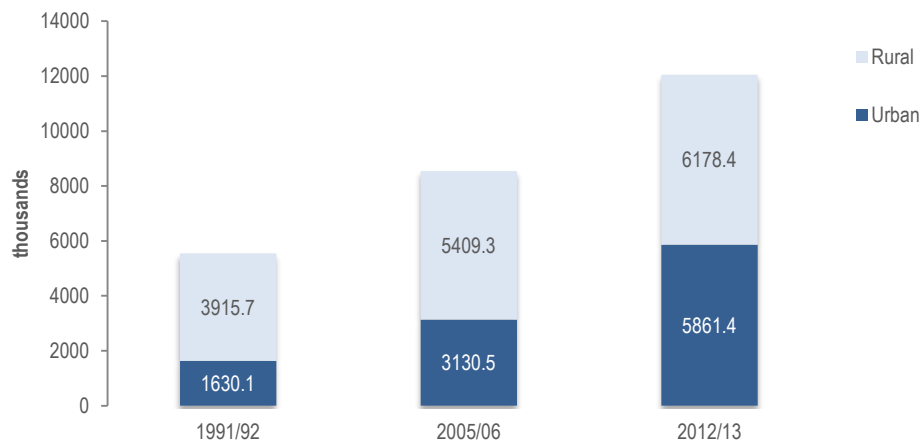
14. In the last two decades, sustained economic growth has led to a significant rise in total employment. Resorting to the evidence collected by GLSS surveys, data show that employed persons in Ghana have more than doubled since the early 1990s; the overall increase of about 6.5 million workers corresponds to an average yearly growth rate of 12.3%. As shown in Figure 4, most of the employment rise originated in the urban areas. Urban jobs, which in the early 1990s only represented about one third of total employment, now account for almost half of it. Correspondingly, total unemployment – which, as in most other low and lower middle income economies, is predominantly an urban phenomenon (Figure 4) – fell significantly in the region of Accra (from 6.7 to 4.7%) as well as in the other

<sup>3</sup> For details on the labour market definitions, please see Panel 2.

urban locations (from 5.7 to 3.0%), whereas it stayed under one percent in rural areas.

**Figure 4. Job creation in Ghana over the last two decades has been much more rapid in urban areas**

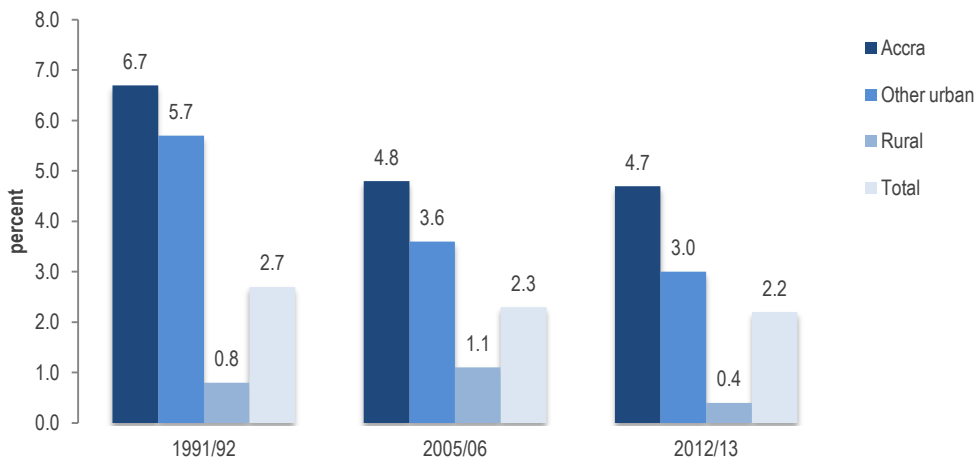
Thousands of people employed\*; all persons 15 years and older, by residence and year



\* According to GSS (2014), persons employed are here defined as “persons aged 15 years and older who did some work either for pay, profit or for family gain during the reference period”  
Source: World Bank (2007) and GSS (2014)

**Figure 5. Unemployment rates in Ghana have fallen over the last two decades**

Unemployment rate, population aged 15 years and older, by residence and year



Source: World Bank (2007) and GSS (2014)

15. Since the early 1990s, the Ghanaian labour force has more than doubled (Table 4) and the labour force participation rate has increased by three percentage points to just below the 80% threshold. Interestingly enough, this increase only involved the male segment of the labour force; women’s labour force participation appears has stagnated, mainly due to a significant rise in inactivity. Another change emerging in the recent years is the growth of informality; this change has occurred despite an accompanying rise in educational attainment.

Table 4. Distribution of adult population (15+) in Ghana by labour market status, 1991– 2013

Thousands of people

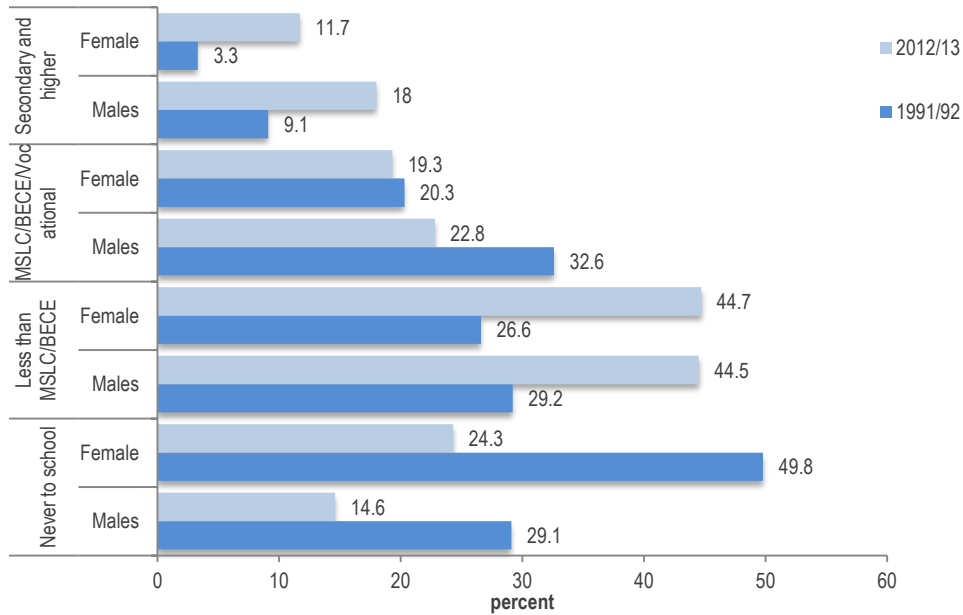
	1991/92	2012/13
<b>ALL</b>		
Population 15+	7900	15967
Labour Force	6040	12710
<i>of which:</i>		
- Employed	5770	12040
- Unemployed	270	670
Inactivity	1860	3257
Labour force participation rate	76.5	79.6
Employment rate	73.0	75.4
<b>WOMEN</b>		
Population 15+	4270	8571
Labour Force	3320	6625
<i>of which:</i>		
- Employed	3170	6257
- Unemployed	150	369
Inactivity	950	1946
Labour force participation rate	77.8	77.3
Employment rate	74.2	73.0

Source: ILO, KILM Database and GSS (2014)

16. The progressive improvement in educational attainment and the rapid rate of urbanization are two other important trends impacting the labour supply in Ghana. As shown in Figure 6, significant progress has been recorded in enhancing the average level of education of the Ghanaian population: the share of people never attending any type of school has been halved since the early 1990s (Figure 6) as school enrolment and completion rates have risen steadily (Figure 7). The proportion of people living in urban areas rose from 37% in 1991 to 53% in 2012/13, and labour force participation in urban areas increased from 67% to 75% over the same period.

**Figure 6. Educational attainment has increased significantly over the last two decades**

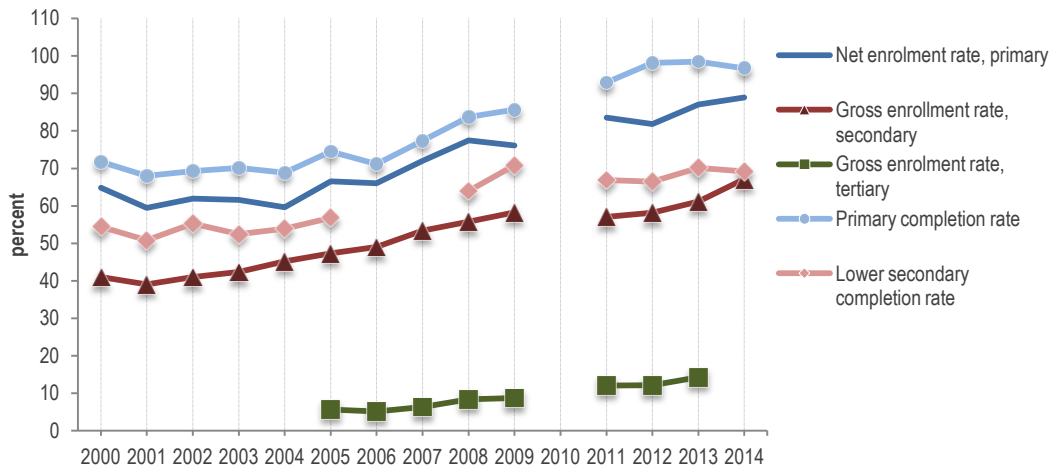
Percentage of population aged 15 years and over by educational attainment, sex and year



Source: GSS (1995) and GSS (2014).

**Figure 7. Ghana has seen steady progress in raising school enrolment**

Trends in school enrolment ratios in Ghana, 2000-2014



Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators

17. The combination of an increasing working-age population and a rising rate of urbanization has led to a substantial growth in new urban job seekers, especially among the youngest segments of the population. Half of the population aged 15-34 years currently lives in urban areas; Greater Accra and the Ashanti regions host the highest share of youths (6.8 and 6.2%, respectively).

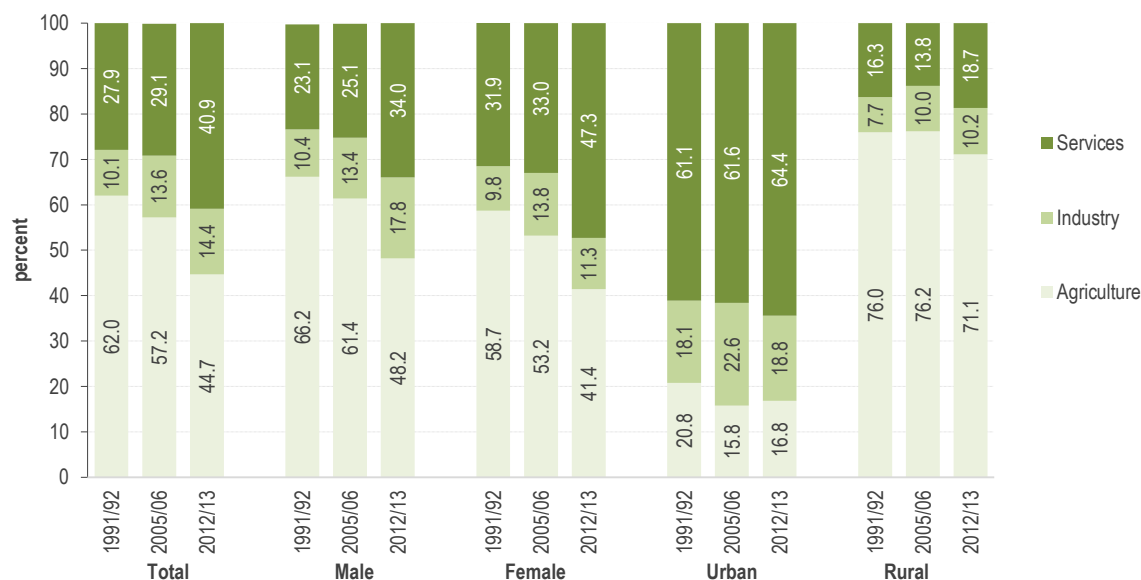
18. Although still a predominantly rural economy, the country has been experiencing a slow but steady structural transformation since the early 1990s. Figure 8 shows that employment in the agricultural sector fell



significantly from 62% in the early 1990s to 45% in 2012/13. In the same time span, the number of persons employed in services jumped from 28% to 41%, with most of the increase taking place after 2005. Employment shares also grew – though at a much lower pace - in the industrial sector, which presently accounts for about 14% of the Ghanaian workforce.

**Figure 8. Although still a predominantly rural economy, the country has been experiencing a slow but steady structural transformation since the early 1990s**

Percentage distribution of employment (15 years old and over) by main economic sector, sex and location



Source: ILO, KILM Database, World Bank (2007) and GSS (2014).

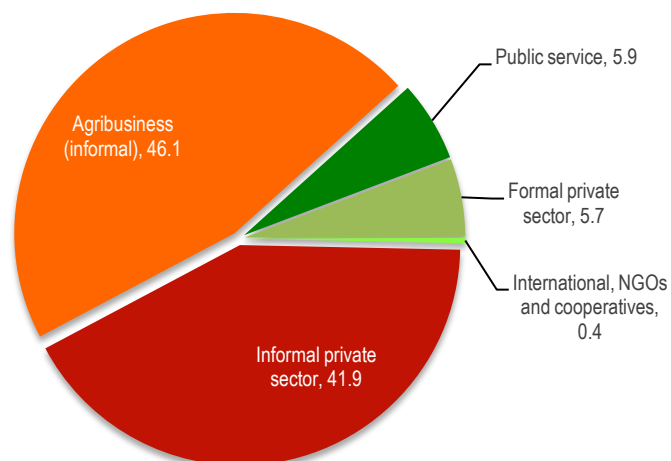
19. The shift from agriculture to services appears to have been relatively stronger for female workers, whose share in the tertiary sector (47% in 2012/13) is about 13 percentage points higher than that of male workers. As expected, the sectoral distribution of employment varies considerably between urban and rural areas. In rural areas, agriculture still engages over 70% of the available workforce, compared with less than 20% of the workforce in urban areas.

20. These changes in the sectoral composition of employment did not translate into a corresponding reduction in the share of workers in the informal economy. In 2012/13, informal jobs represented about 88% of total employment. Informality is not only widespread in the agricultural sector, but also in services and manufacturing, especially in urban areas,<sup>4</sup> highlighting the inability of the formal economy (both private and public) to generate enough jobs to match the increased labour supply.

<sup>4</sup> According to the Ghana Statistical Service, informal sector activities “are more dominant in urban than in rural areas, with 61.5 percent and 23.3 percent of the population respectively engaged in the sector”. See GSS (2014b), page 23.

Figure 9. The informal economy account accounts for by far the largest share of the employment in Ghana

Percentage distribution of employment by informal and formal economic sectors



Source: UCW calculations based on GSS (2014).

21. As shown in Figure 9, in 2012/13 persons employed in the formal sector did not exceed 12% of total employment. Almost half of formal economy jobs (corresponding to about 687,000 workers) were in the public sector, which historically represents the first provider of formal employment in the country. However, since the early 1990s the Ghanaian public sector has been the target of the series of restructuring measures introduced by the Government to achieve fiscal consolidation and macroeconomic stability. This has led to a progressive downsizing of public employment,<sup>5</sup> which has not been offset by a corresponding increase in the number of jobs created in the formal private economy.<sup>6</sup> As a result, the relative importance of informal economy employment has increased over the last two decades (it was about 80% at the turn of this century).<sup>7</sup>

Table 5. Employed persons by type of employer - 2015

Type of employer	Urban	Rural	Total
<b>Public Service</b>	<b>9.2</b>	<b>2.6</b>	<b>5.9</b>
Civil Service	3.7	1.1	2.4
Other Public Service	5.3	1.4	3.3
Parastatal	0.2	0.1	0.2
<b>Private Sector</b>	<b>90.8</b>	<b>97.6</b>	<b>94.2</b>
Formal	9.8	1.9	5.7
Informal	61.5	23.3	41.9

<sup>5</sup> In the early 1990s the share of public employment amounted to about 8.4%. See Twerefou D.K. et al. (2007).

<sup>6</sup> According to Twerefou D.K. et al. (2007), between 1960 and 1985 formal employment registered a considerable increase – from 4% to over 20% of the labour force, mainly due to the “government’s massive public investment programme”. Once the ERP/SAP programs were implemented in the early 1980s, however, formal sector employment again retreated due to public retrenchment, liberalization and privatization, as well as the withdrawal of previously existing subsidies for loss-making public enterprises.

<sup>7</sup> See Ghana Statistical Service (2003), cited in Twerefou D.K. et al. (2007).

Table 5.Cont'd

Type of employer	Urban	Rural	Total
NGOs	0.3	0.1	0.2
Cooperatives	0.1	0.1	0.1
International Organization/Diplomatic Mission	0.2	0.1	0.1
Agri-Business	18.7	72.1	46.1
Other	0.2	0.0	0.1
<b>All</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2014), GLSS-6 Labour Force Report, August, page 24

22. The majority of the Ghanaian workforce is made of self-employed workers both in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors. About 53% of all adult workers are recorded as self-employed (Table 6), most of whom work as own-account workers. Persons in wage employment constitute less than one fourth of total employment (and only 13% of total female employment). As expected, the incidence of wage employment is much higher (25 percentage points) in urban compared to rural areas.

Table 6. Distribution of total adult employment (15 years and over) by specific employment status

Employment status	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All	Male	Female	All
Wage	32.5	13.2	22.5	51.0	20.8	35.1	15.5	5.7	10.5
Self									
Employer	6.9	5.5	6.2	9.4	8.5	8.9	4.6	2.6	3.5
- Non-agricultural	4.6	4.4	4.4	7.5	7.3	7.4	1.8	1.5	1.7
- Agricultural	2.3	1.2	1.7	1.9	1.3	1.6	2.7	1.1	1.9
Own-account worker	41.9	50.5	46.4	26.6	52.8	40.4	55.9	48.3	52.0
- Non-agricultural	11.3	31.2	21.6	15.8	44.5	30.9	7.2	18.2	12.8
- Agricultural	30.6	19.3	24.7	10.8	8.3	9.5	48.7	30.1	39.2
Contributing family worker	16.4	27.9	22.3	9.3	13.8	11.7	22.9	41.6	32.5
- Non-agricultural	2.3	4.5	3.4	3.2	6.0	4.6	1.4	3.1	2.3
- Agricultural	14.1	23.4	18.9	6.1	7.9	7.1	21.5	38.5	30.2
Apprentice and other	2.4	2.9	2.7	3.7	4.1	3.9	1.2	1.8	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2014), GLSS-6 Labour Force Report, August

23. According to international standards, own-account workers, together with those defined as “contributing family workers”,<sup>8</sup> are usually considered as in “vulnerable employment”, i.e. workers more likely to lack decent working conditions, adequate social security as well as acceptable earnings. Vulnerable workers are usually engaged in low productivity jobs and face difficult working conditions. From Table 6 it is evident that vulnerable employment represents a crucial issue in the Ghanaian labour market: more than two-thirds of all employed persons are in jobs with vulnerable

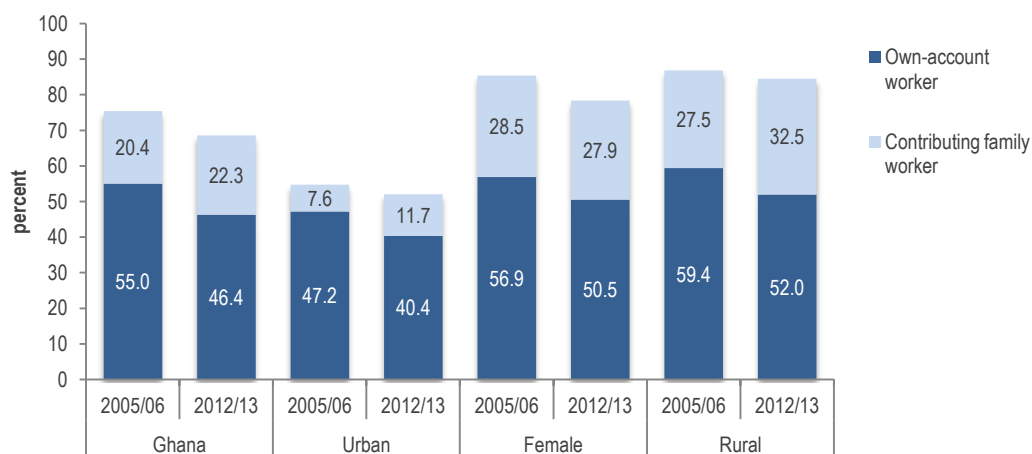
<sup>8</sup> A contributing family worker is a person who holds a self employment job in a market-oriented establishment operated by a related person living in the same household, and who cannot be regarded as a partner because of the degree of his or her commitment to the operation of the establishment, in terms of the working time or other factors to be determined by national circumstances, is not at a level comparable with that of the head of the establishment.(Principles and Recommendations for Population and Housing Censuses, Revision 1, United Nations, New York, 1998, para. 2.82.).

characteristics. The situation is particularly alarming for women working in urban areas - 70% of the jobs of this group are vulnerable.

24. However, comparing these data with the situation in the mid-2000s reveals a reduction in the relative weight of vulnerable jobs, from more than 75% to about 69%. At the country level, this decline is entirely due to the reduction in the share of own-account workers (by almost 10 percentage points; Figure 10), whereas those employed as contributing family workers has increased somewhat.

Figure 10. Vulnerable employment in Ghana appears to be declining over time

Own-account workers and contributing family workers as a percentage of total employment, 2005/06 and 2012/13



Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2014), GLSS-6 Labour Force Report, August

25. Despite maintaining many traditional features of a rural developing country, in the last two decades the Ghanaian labor market is slowly undergoing a structural economic transformation, triggered both by long-term demographics trends as well as policy decisions. Over the last 20 years Ghana governments have progressively recognized the crucial role played by jobs and labor markets in the development agenda. Employment promotion has become an important goal in the national policy debate at least since the end of the 1980s, with the implementation of the PAMSCAD (the Programme of Action to Mitigate the Social Cost of Adjustment).

26. More recently, the growing concern about the capacity of the Ghanaian economy to generate enough and better-quality jobs for a steadily increasing, and relatively higher skilled, labour force led the current Government to launch a National Employment Policy in 2014 to “address the employment situation, and deal with decent work deficits, targeting in particular, vulnerable groups, the youth, women and persons with disabilities [...]”<sup>9</sup>. This strategy will prove crucial in the next years, in a context of

<sup>9</sup> See Government of Ghana (2014), for further details.

growing uncertainty and increasing economic difficulties at the macroeconomic level. According to the latest estimates, real GDP growth in Ghana is expected to significantly slow down in due to a series of concomitant negative factors, such as the sharp fall in both oil and gold prices as well growing difficulties in the electricity supply.

## CHILD LABOUR: THE OVERALL PICTURE

27. Child labour in Ghana continues to affect an estimated 1.9 million children aged 5-17 years, about 22% of this age group. These numbers indicate clearly that the battle against child labour has not yet been won in the country, and that efforts in this regard need to be intensified and accelerated in order that the goal of child labour elimination is reached in the nearest possible future. In this chapter we briefly summarise estimates of involvement in child labour for the overall 5-17 years age group, based on national legislation and international child labour measurement standards.

28. The case against child labour, set forth in the recent ILO Global Child Labour Estimates report, is as relevant in Ghana as elsewhere.<sup>10</sup> Children who grow up free from child labour have the opportunity to realize fully their rights to education, leisure and healthy development, in turn helping them to make a successful transition into decent work upon completing their education and to be contributing members of society as adults. The costs of inaction are equally clear. Child labour can seriously endanger children's immediate health and safety, as well as their health status later in life. This is particularly the case for the children engaged in the worst forms of child labour. Child labour also compromises children's ability to enrol and stay in school, and to benefit from the time they do spend in the classroom. Turning a blind eye to child labour can erode the fabric of societies and can impoverish or even destroy the human capital needed for economic growth and poverty reduction. In purely economic terms, a separate ILO global study indicates clearly that the benefits of eliminating child labour vastly outweigh its costs.<sup>11</sup>

29. The legal framework for child labour in Ghana is contained in the Children's Act (Act. 560, 1998). The Act sets the minimum age for admission of a child to employment at 15 years (Sec. 89) and the minimum age of admission to light work at 13 years (Sec. 90.1), where light work is defined as work that is not likely to be harmful to the health or development of the child and does not affect the child's attendance at school or the capacity of the child to benefit from school work (Sec. 90.2). The Hazardous Child Labour Activity Framework for Ghana, while acknowledging this Act, recommends a minimum age of 12 years for light work, and national statistical practice has

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<sup>10</sup> ILO-IPEC. Marking progress against child labour - Global estimates and trends 2000-2012 / International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) - Geneva: ILO, 2013.

<sup>11</sup> Investing in Every Child, An Economic Study of the Costs and Benefits of Eliminating Child Labour, ILO Geneva, December 2003.

been to use this lower minimum age in child labour measurement.<sup>12</sup> The minimum age for the engagement of a person in hazardous work is set at 18 years (Sec. 91.1). Hazardous is defined as work posing a danger to the health, safety or morals of a person (Sec. 91.2).<sup>13</sup>

30. Following national legislation and national statistical practices (in the measurement of light work), children are classified in child labour on the basis of the following criteria:

- a) *For children aged 5-11 years:* those in employment;
- b) *For children aged 12-14 years:* those in employment *except* those in light work<sup>14</sup>; and
- c) *For children aged 15-17 years:* those in hazardous forms of employment.

31. Children in employment, in turn, are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period. Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use, excluding water and firewood collection). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economies; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time), or as a domestic worker outside the child's own household for an employer (with or without pay).<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>12</sup> National statistical practice, as reflected in, for example, *Ghana Living Standards Survey Round 6, Child Labour Report* (Ghana Statistical Service, August 2014), utilises the minimum age of 12 years for admission to light work in the measurement of child labour. Paragraph 12 of the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians Resolution II also proposes the age group of 12 to 14 years for permissible light work for the purpose of child labour measurement.

<sup>13</sup> Hazardous work includes going to sea; mining and quarrying; portering of heavy loads; manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced or used; work in places where machines are used; and work in places such as bars, hotels and places of entertainment where a person may be exposed to immoral behaviour (Sec. 91.3).

<sup>14</sup> Light work is defined as work that is not likely to be harmful to the health or development of the child and does not affect the child's attendance at school or the capacity of the child to benefit from school work.

<sup>15</sup> The concept of employment is elaborated further in the *Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization*, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 2013). The resolution is available at: [http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS\\_230304/lang-en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS_230304/lang-en/index.htm).

Table 7. Child labour estimates based on national legislation

	Children aged 5-11 in child labour		Children aged 12-14 in child labour		Children aged 5-14 in child labour		Children aged 15-17 in child labour <sup>(a)</sup>		Total child labour 5-17 years	
	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Male	18.7	463,095	27.6	295,221	21.4	758,315	28.2	238,195	22.7	996,510
Female	19.0	453,396	26.1	269,279	21.1	722,675	19.7	173,367	20.8	896,042
Urban	9.9	222,379	16.5	168,796	11.9	391,175	14.2	122,045	12.4	513,221
Rural	26.5	694,111	36.7	395,704	29.5	1,089,815	33.5	289,517	30.2	1,379,332
Total	18.8	916,491	26.9	564,500	21.2	1,480,990	23.9	411,562	21.8	1,892,553

Notes: (a) Child labour for this age range consists of hazardous work. Working children are considered to be in hazardous work if they are found to be in any one of the following categories: children working in designated hazardous industries (mining, quarrying and construction); children working in designated hazardous occupations (they refer to the list of hazardous work established by the national legislation); children working long hours (42 hours or more per week); children working under other hazardous conditions such as night work, using hazardous tools and being in an unhealthy work environment.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

32. Child labour measured on this basis is very common in Ghana. Some 916,500 children aged 5-11 years, 564,500 aged 12-14 years and 411,500 aged 15-17 years are in child labour. Summing these three groups yields a total of almost 1.9 million children aged 5-17 years involved in child labour, or about 22% of all children in this age range (Table 7). These overall estimates mask important differences by sex, residence and region. Boys are more likely to be involved in child labour than their female peers: there is a two percentage point difference between boys and girls for the overall 5-17 years age range and an eight percentage point difference for the 15-17 years age range. The difference in child labour involvement between rural and urban children is even starker. For the 5-17 years age range as a whole, the rate of child labour in rural areas (30%) is more than twice that in urban areas (12%). Child labour varies by region from a high of 33 percent in Brong Ahafo and Upper West to a low of five percent in Greater Accra (Appendix Figure A2).

33. It should be underscored in interpreting these numbers that they represent conservative estimates of child labour, because they exclude so-called "worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work." These forms of child labour include child trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation infant, child slavery and the involvement of children in illicit activities. In Ghana as in most countries, information on children involved in the worst forms of child labour other than hazardous is limited due to both methodological difficulties and cultural sensitivity.

34. The Ghana Living Standards Survey and other similar surveys are not designed to generate information on children involved in worst forms of child labour other than hazardous work. Targeted research using specialized survey instruments is required to generate more complete information on this particularly vulnerable group of child labourers. Such research is



envisaged as part of the new National Plan of Action against child labour,<sup>16</sup> drawing on ILO guidelines<sup>17</sup> in this area and research experience from other countries.

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<sup>16</sup> As the current National Plan of Action against Child Labour (NPA, 2009-2015) is drawing to a close, a review of the plan and the development of a new one are underway.

<sup>17</sup> See, for example, *Child labor Statistics, manual on methodologies for data collection through surveys*. International Labour Organization (ILO)/Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC), Geneva, 2004. *Manual on child labour rapid assessment methodology*. International Labour Organization and UNICEF, Geneva, 2005. *Hard to see, harder to count : survey guidelines to estimate forced labour of adults and children*. International Labour Office. Geneva, 2012

## Chapter 4. CHILDREN AGED 5-14 YEARS

35. This chapter analyses the extent and nature of child labour among 5-14 year-olds in more detail, relying on the 2005 and 2012 rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey and on the measurement concepts outlined in the previous chapter. The headline finding of the analysis is a dramatic and worrying rise in children's work in recent years, contrary to the regional and global child labour trends.<sup>18</sup>

### 4.1 Involvement in child labour

36. More than one in five children aged 5-14 years (21%), almost 1.5 million in absolute terms, are child labourers according to GLSS 2012 (Table 8). The descriptive results presented in Table 8 indicate that overall estimates of child labour mask important differences by age and residence. In short, child labour increases with age and is much higher in rural areas than in cities and towns. Differences in terms of involvement between boys and girls, however, are negligible.

Table 8. Involvement in child labour, age group 5-14 years, by age, sex and residence

(a) Percentage					
Age	Sex		Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
5-11	18.7	19.0	9.9	26.5	18.8
12-14	27.6	26.1	16.5	36.7	26.9
Total 5-14	21.4	21.1	11.9	29.5	21.2

(b) Number					
Age	Sex		Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
5-11	463,095	453,396	222,379	694,111	916,491
12-14	295,221	269,279	168,796	395,704	564,500
Total 5-14	758,315	722,675	391,175	1,089,815	1,480,990

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

37. We look in more detail below at how child labour (and schooling) varies in accordance with these and other background variables. This discussion draws on results of the econometric analysis presented in the Appendix (Table A2 and Table A3).<sup>19</sup>

<sup>18</sup> ILO-IPEC. *Marking progress against child labour - Global estimates and trends 2000-2012* / International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) - Geneva: ILO, 2013.

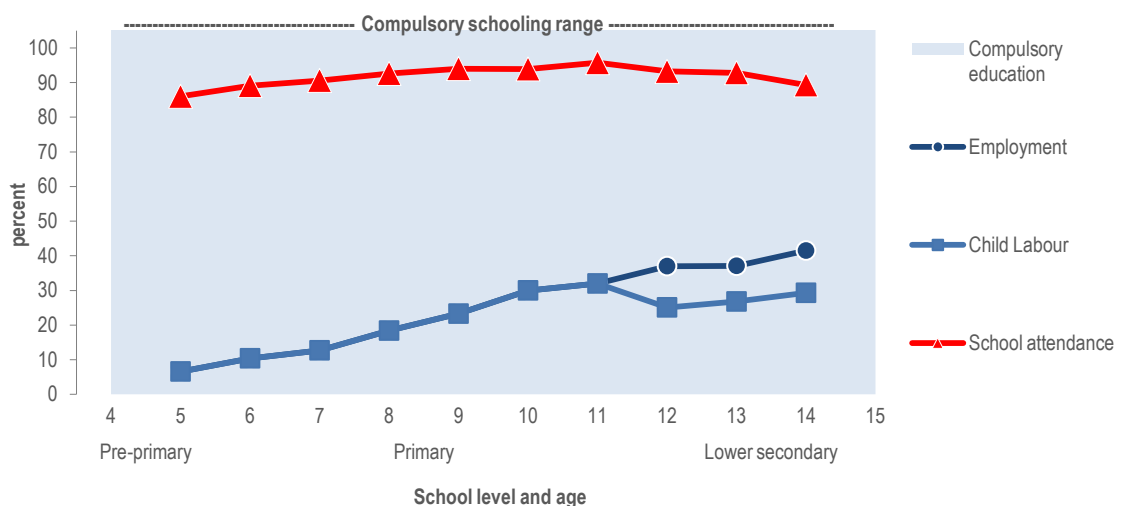
<sup>19</sup> A simple economic model of household behaviour is used to guide the empirical specification. For detailed information on the model, see Cigno, A.; Rosati, F.C. 2005. "The economics of child labour" (New York, NY, Oxford University Press).

- **Age:** Involvement in child labour increases with age (Figure 11). This pattern is largely due to the fact that the productivity of children increases as they grow older, meaning that the opportunity cost of keeping children in school as opposed to the workplace also goes up. This pattern notwithstanding, the numbers of very young, 5-7 year-old, child labourers are by no means negligible. In all, more than 212,000 children in this age range are already engaged in child labour. These very young children are especially susceptible to workplace hazards and abuses, and they therefore constitute a particular policy priority.

It should be noted that from the age of 12 years, the definitions of child labour and children’s employment diverge. As was discussed in the previous chapter, while child labour includes *all* children in employment in the age range 5-11 years, child labour *excludes* children in light employment in the age range of 12-14 years.<sup>20</sup> This more narrow definition of child labour is the reason that child labour falls slightly moving from 11 to 12 years.

**Figure 11. Children’s employment increases significantly across the 5-14 age range while school attendance moves in the opposite direction**

Percentage of children in child labour, employment and children attending school, by age and school level<sup>(a)</sup>



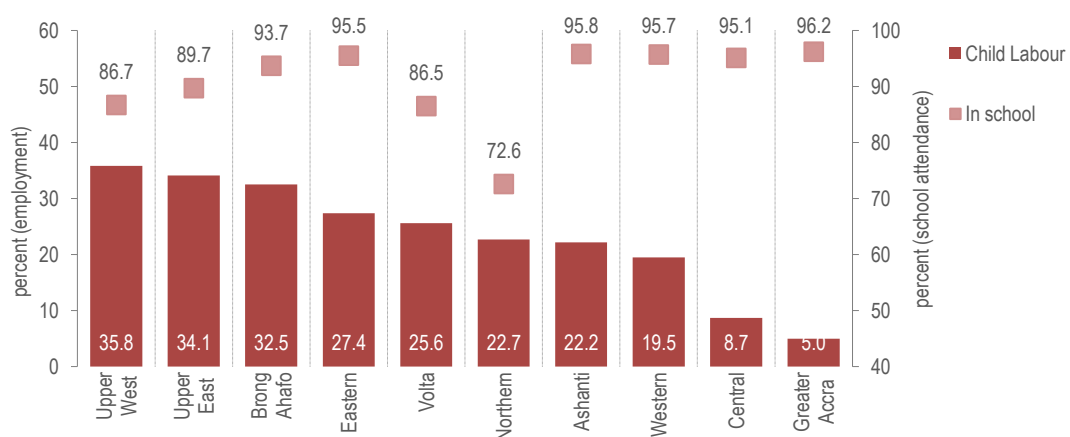
Notes: (a) Compulsory schooling in Ghana begins at age four and is 11 years in duration. The school system is comprised of a 2-year pre-primary cycle, a 6-year primary cycle, a 3-year lower secondary cycle and a (non-compulsory) 3-year upper secondary cycle. Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics and UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13).

<sup>20</sup> Recall also that children in employment are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period. Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economies; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time), or as a domestic worker outside the child’s own household for an employer (with or without pay). The concept of employment is elaborated further in the *Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization*, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 2013). The resolution is available at: [http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS\\_230304/lang--en/index.htm](http://www.ilo.org/global/statistics-and-databases/standards-and-guidelines/resolutions-adopted-by-international-conferences-of-labour-statisticians/WCMS_230304/lang--en/index.htm).

- **Gender:** Child labour does not appear to have an important gender dimension, as boys and girls work in employment in roughly equal proportions. But it is worth recalling in interpreting this result that it does not include involvement in household chores, a form of work where typically girls predominate.<sup>21</sup> For this reason, our estimates may understate girls' involvement in child labour relative to that of boys.
- **Residence.** Child labour among rural children (30%) is more than twice that of urban children (12%). The econometric results, in turn, confirm this pattern, indicating that children living in rural areas are more likely to work and less likely to attend school (Appendix Table A3).
- **Access to basic services.** Access to public water and electricity networks is also very relevant. Children from households with tap water and electricity access are less likely to work. Basic services are important determinants in large part because they influence the value of children's time outside of the classroom. In contexts where access to basic services is limited children must often shoulder a greater burden for tasks such as carrying water and fetching fuelwood.
- **Region.** There are large differences in child labour (and schooling) across regions (Figure 12), pointing to the importance of area-specific approaches to addressing it. The Upper West region stands out as having the highest level of children's employment (36%). At the other end of the spectrum lies the Central and Greater Accra regions, where 9% and five percent, respectively, of children are involved in child labour. The Northern region has the lowest level of school attendance (73%); the region, fares relatively better in terms of child labour, ranking fifth (lowest) of the 10 regions.

Figure 12. There are large differences across regions in terms of child labour and school attendance

Percentage of children in child labour and attending school, age group 5-14 years, by province



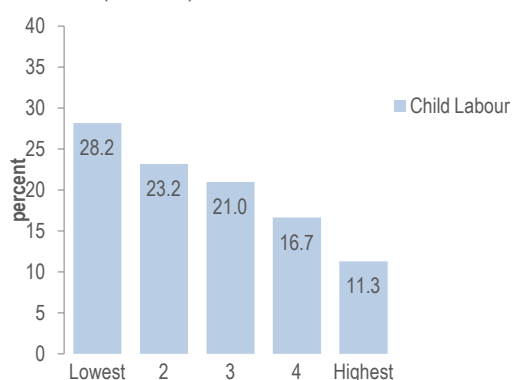
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

<sup>21</sup> In keeping with national legislation, household chores is not included in the analysis.

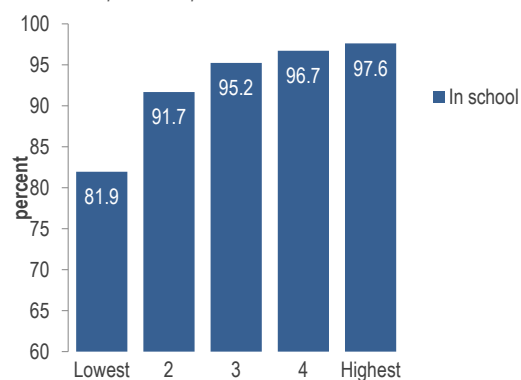
- Household poverty:** Child labour is higher and school attendance is lower among children from poor households, whether measured in terms of expenditure (Figure 13a and 3b) or poverty status (Figure 13c and 3d). The econometric results, in turn, confirm this pattern, indicating that children belonging to poor households are more likely to work and less likely to attend school (Annex Table A3). It should be noted however, that the correlation between poverty and child labour is not large once we control for other relevant covariates, underscoring the importance of factors *associated* with poverty are driving the observed correlation between household income and poverty. In policy terms, this result suggests that a strategic response based on poverty reduction alone is unlikely to be effective in eliminating child labour.

**Figure 13. Children from poor households are more vulnerable to child labour and educational marginalisation**

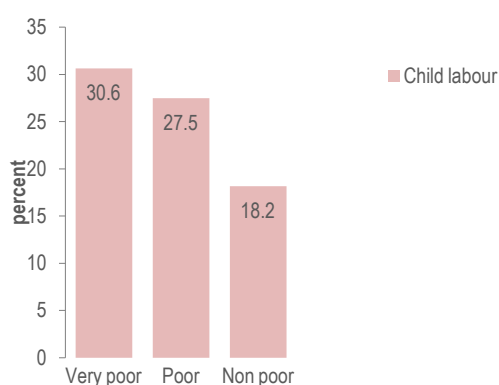
(a) Percentage of children in child labour, age group 5-14, by household expenditure quintile



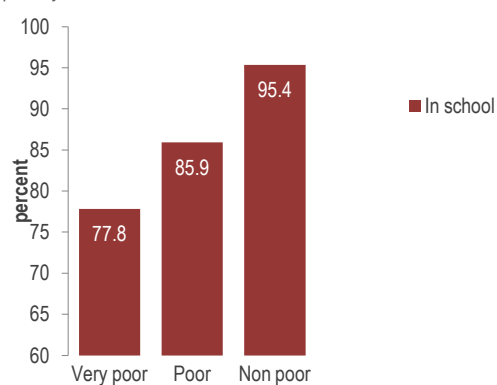
(b) Percentage of children attending school, age group 5-14, by household expenditure quintile



(c) Percentage of children in child labour, age group 5-14, by poverty status



(d) Percentage of children attending school, age group 5-14, by poverty status



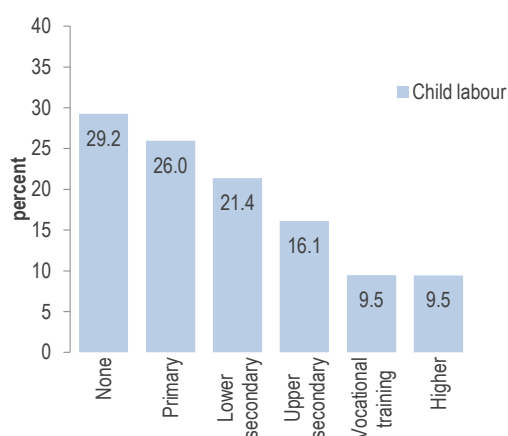
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

- Education level of the household head.** The effect of the level of education of the household head in reducing child labour and increasing school attendance is important. A higher educational level of the household head makes it more likely that a child attends school and less likely to be engaged in child labour (Figure 14). This relationship is also confirmed by the econometric evidence presented in Appendix Table A3. One possible explanation is that parents that are more educated might

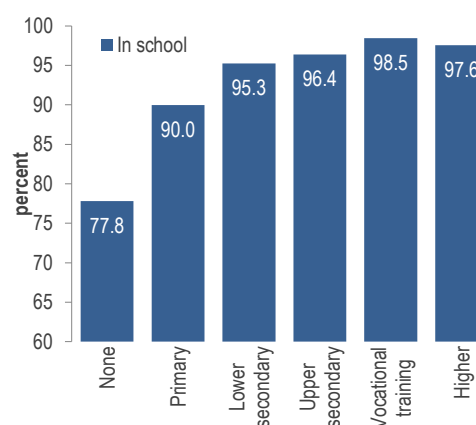
have a better understanding of the economic returns to education, and/or are in a better position to help their children realize these returns.

**Figure 14. Child labour is higher and school enrolment is lower among children from households with an uneducated household head**

(a) Children in child labour, age group 5-14 years, by level of education of the household head



(b) Children's school attendance, age group 5-14 years, by level of education of the household head



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

## 4.2 Trends in child labour

38. How is child labour changing over time? Data restrictions unfortunately prevent the estimation of child labour for the 2005 round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS). It is possible, however, to compare the estimates of children's *employment* for the 7-14 years age range<sup>22</sup> from the 2005 and 2012 rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey. While children's employment is a slightly broader concept than child labour,<sup>23</sup> it nonetheless provides a useful proxy for assessing changes in child labour.

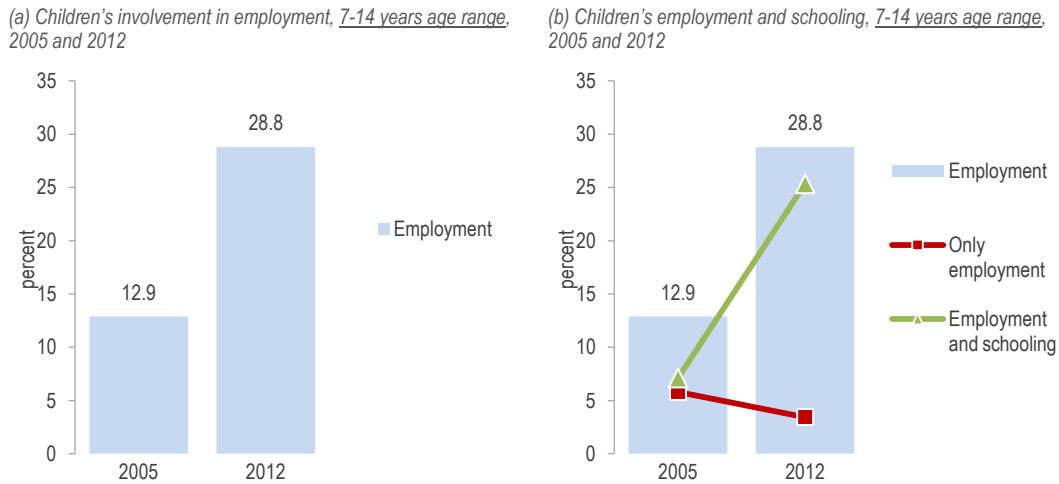
39. The comparison of the results from the 2005 and 2012 GLSS rounds points to a sharp rise in children's employment: the percentage of children in the 7-14 years age range in employment more than doubled from 2005 (13%) to 2012 (29%)(Figure 15a). The increase occurred for both boys and girls (Appendix Table A1) and across the entire 7-14 years age spectrum (Appendix Figure A3). The rise in children's employment occurred entirely in the sub-group of children combining school and work. The group only in employment (i.e., not also attending school) actually declined over the 2005-

<sup>22</sup> The 2005 round of the survey collected information on employment only for children aged 7 years and older. Earlier survey rounds are not included in the analysis of trends due to comparability issues.

<sup>23</sup> Specifically, as discussed above, child labour for children in the 12-14 years age range does not include children in light forms of employment.

2012 period (Figure 15b). Children, in other words, must increasingly shoulder the burden of work in addition to their studies. These stark results underscore the need for more information on the causes of the rise in children’s employment, and the need to adjust policy responses accordingly.

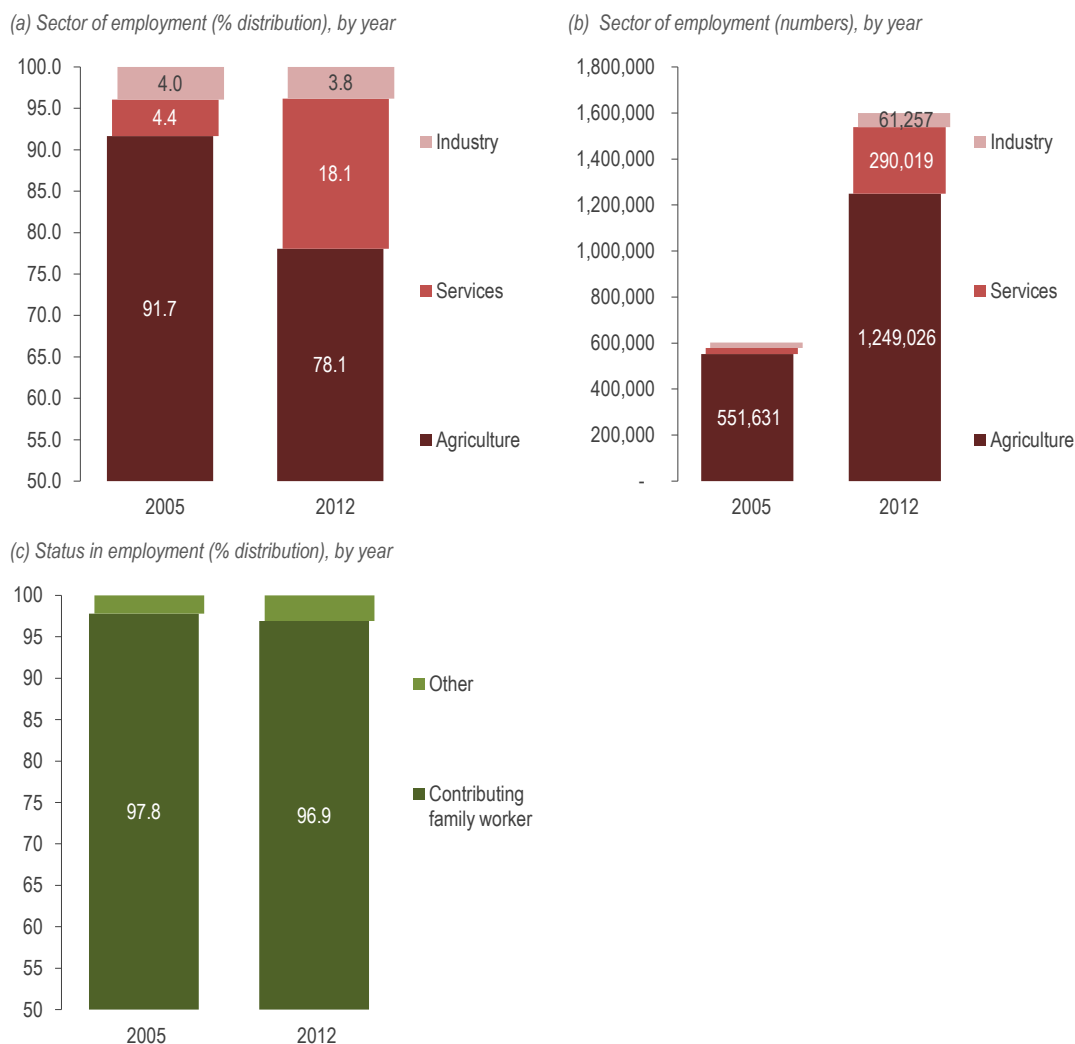
Figure 15. Changes in children’s involvement in employment, 2005-2012



Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

40. The rise in children’s employment was accompanied by an important change in terms of its make-up. As depicted in Figure 16a, the period from 2005 to 2012 saw a significant decline in the relative importance of agricultural work and a major increase in the relative importance of work in the service sector. Agriculture as a share of total children’s employment fell from 92% in 2005 to 78% in 2012, while services as a share of employment rose from four percent to 18% over the same period. These figures, it should be emphasised, reflect *relative* shares: in *absolute* terms, the period from 2005 to 2012 saw a dramatic increase in the numbers of working children in *all sectors* (Figure 16b). The distribution of working children by *status in employment*, a reflection of work arrangements remained largely unchanged; children were overwhelmingly contributing family workers in both 2005 and 2012 (Figure 16c).

Figure 16. The rise in the employment ratio was accompanied by a change in the composition of employment



Note: Sector of employment. The category "Other" includes mining and quarrying, construction, electricity, gas and water; status in employment: the category other includes employee, self employed and apprentice  
 Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

### 4.3 Characteristics of child labour

41. Information on the various characteristics of child labourers is necessary for understanding the nature of children’s work and children’s role in the labour force. This section presents data on broad work characteristics that are useful in this context. A breakdown of child labourers by industry is reported in order to provide a standardised picture of where children are concentrated in the measured economy. A breakdown of child labourers by status in employment is reported to provide additional insight into how child labour is carried out. Average working hours is looked at as an indirect indicator of the possible health and educational consequences of child labour.

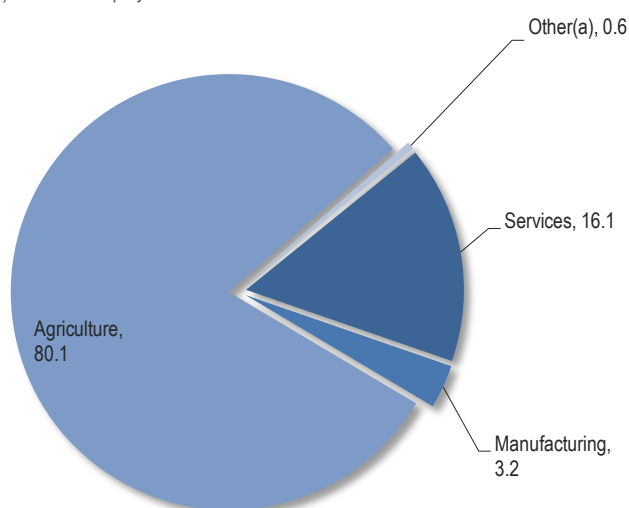


42. The largest share of children in child labour work in agriculture (80%). The predominance of agriculture is a particular concern in light of the fact that this sector is one of the three most dangerous in which to work at any age, along with construction and mining, in terms of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases.<sup>24</sup> Services is the second-most important sector (accounting for 16% of children in child labour), followed by manufacturing (3%) (Figure 17a). In terms of status in employment, children are found overwhelmingly in unpaid family work (97%) either on the farm (82%) or elsewhere (15%) (Figure 17b).

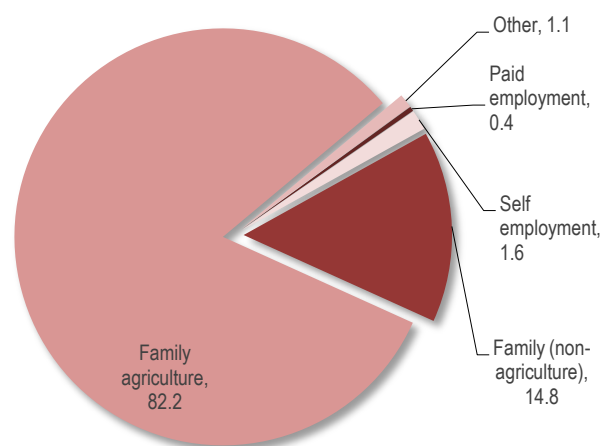
**Figure 17. Children in employment are concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit**

Distribution of children in employment by sector and status in employment, age group 5-14 years.

(a) Sector of employment



(b) Status in employment



Note: (a) Other includes mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water, and construction.

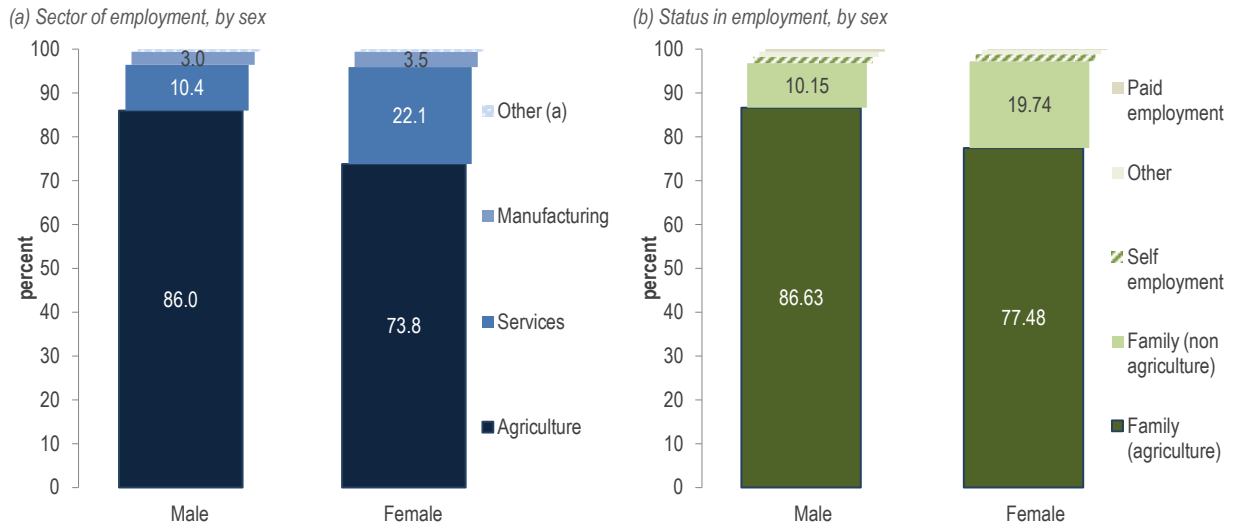
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

43. Gender considerations appear to play a role in terms of the nature of the work assigned to children. As reported in Figure 18a, girls are more likely to be tasked with work in the services and commerce sectors, and less likely to be involved in farm work. While both girls and boys are overwhelmingly in family based work arrangements, girls are relatively more likely than their male counterparts to perform family work off the farm (Figure 18b).

<sup>24</sup> For further details, please visit the “Child labour in agriculture” section of the ILO-IPEC website: <http://www.ilo.org/ipec/areas/Agriculture/lang--en/index.htm>.

**Figure 18. Children in employment are concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit**

Distribution of children in employment by sector and status in employment, age group 5-14 years.



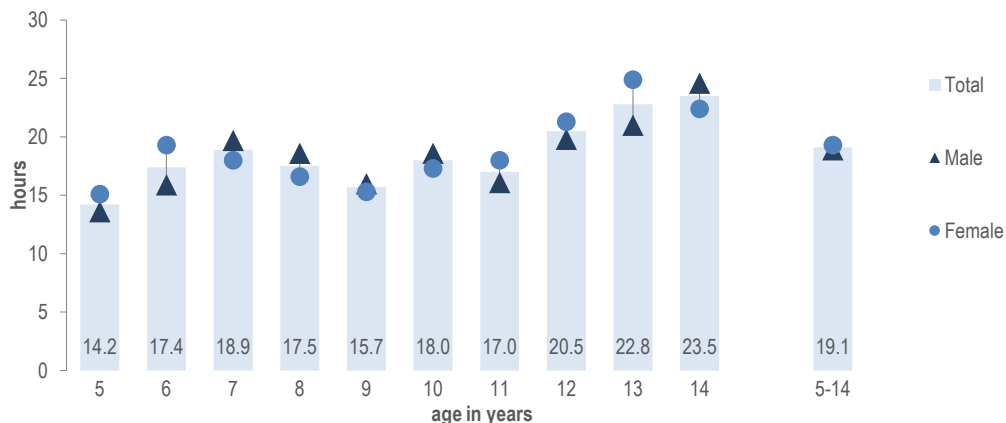
Note: (a) Other includes mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water, and construction.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

44. Children aged 5-14 years in child labour log an average of 19 working hours per week (Figure 19). It is noteworthy that working hours do not rise appreciably with age; indeed, even children as young as five years work for 14 hours per week and seven year-olds for 19 hours each week on average. Not included in these totals are the additional hours that most children spend each week performing chores within their own homes. The significant working hours logged by even very young children have obvious consequences for their rights to education and leisure. Longer hours also means more exposure to any hazards present in children’s workplaces.

**Figure 19. Child labourers log 19 hours each week, with obvious consequences for their rights to education and leisure**

Average weekly working hours, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

#### 4.4 Child labour in cocoa growing communities

45. Child labour in the cocoa sector in Ghana has been subject of increased international attention and stepped-up programming efforts, spearheaded by the Child Labor Cocoa Coordinating Group (CLCCG) under the aegis of the 2010 Declaration and accompanying Framework of Action signed by the Governments of Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana.<sup>25</sup> Children's involvement in the cocoa sector in Ghana nonetheless remains a priority child rights concern, as discussed in this section and in more detail in a separate forthcoming UCW research report.

46. To offer a preliminary indication of the incidence and evolution of child labour in cocoa growing areas we exploit the community level information collected in the 2005 and 2012 rounds of the GLSS survey. We define communities as cocoa growing if cocoa is one of the major crops grown in the community. In this way, 194 rural communities were classified as cocoa growing communities in 2012 and 139 in 2005, out of 690 and 376 respectively.

47. The statistics reported below refer to the rural areas of Ghana, and are broken down by cocoa growing communities and *other communities*.

48. It is worth stressing that while the GLSS is representative at national and regional levels it is not representative neither at the *community* level nor of the major cocoa growing areas. Nonetheless, the descriptive statistics reported below serve as an initial step towards a better understanding of children's activities (employment and schooling) in cocoa and non-cocoa growing areas.

49. Estimates from GLSS 2012 indicate that more than one-third (40%) of children living in cocoa growing areas are involved in employment. These children number 403,000 in absolute terms, making up more than one-third of all children's employment in rural areas (Table 9).<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> In September 2010, the Governments of Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana, USDOL, and Industry joined as partners to sign the Declaration and the accompanying Framework. In the signing of the Declaration and Framework, these partners committed to take action to reduce child labour and the worst forms of child labour in cocoa production and to the goal of achieving a 70% reduction in the worst forms of child labour in the cocoa sectors of the two countries in the aggregate by 2020. The Child Labour Cocoa Coordinating Group (CLCCG) was established to coordinate efforts among the partners working under the Declaration and Framework.

<sup>26</sup> We found similar results when we define an household as cocoa producer if cocoa is one of the major crop grown by the farm lands owned or/and operated by household members.

Table 9. Type of activity, rural areas, children aged 7-14 years

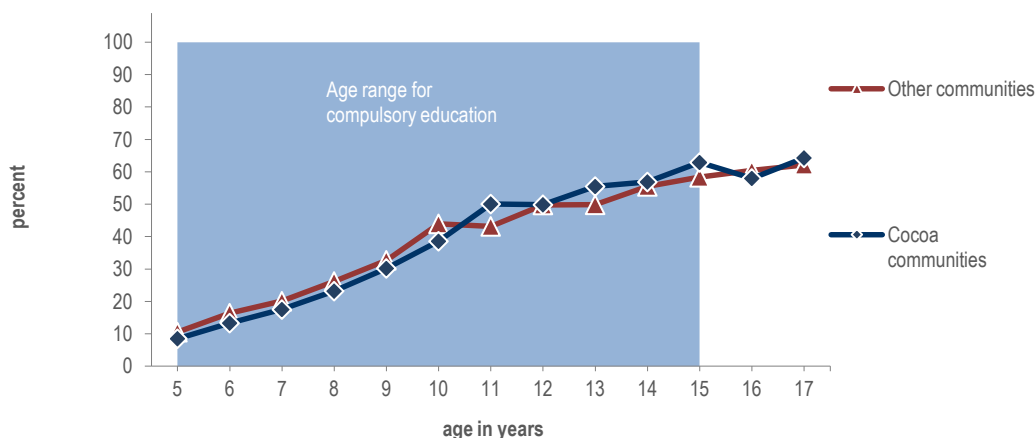
Characteristics		Total in employment	Total in school	Total out-of-school
Percentage	Cocoa communities	40.0	96.4	3.6
	Other communities	39.4	86.2	13.8
Number (thousands)	Cocoa communities	403	971	36
	Other communities	752	1643	264

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

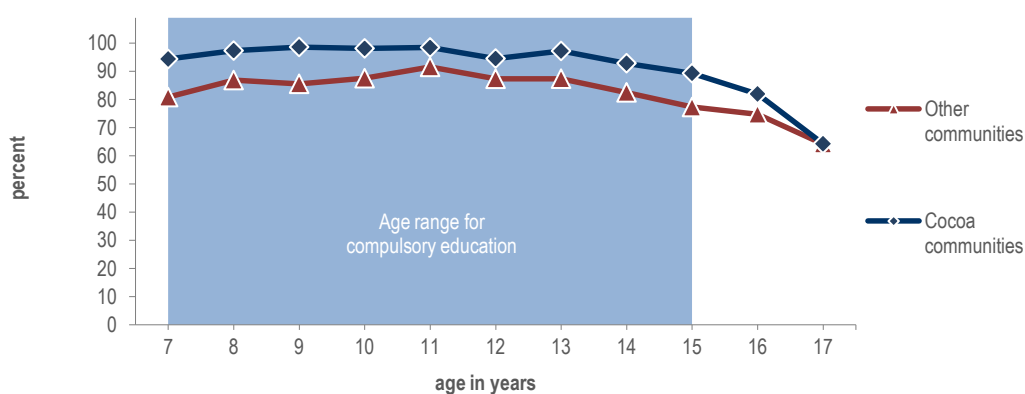
50. Figure 20a and Figure 20b compare the employment and school attendance of children from cocoa-growing communities and from other rural communities across the 7-17 years age spectrum. Children’s employment is very similar at most ages in cocoa and non-cocoa communities. Differences in school attendance are larger and favour children in cocoa growing communities. The attendance rate of children from cocoa communities is at least 10 percentage points higher than that of children from other rural communities across the 7-14 years age spectrum.

Figure 20. Children in cocoa growing communities are equally likely to work and more likely to attend school compared to children in other communities

(a) Children’s employment in rural areas, cocoa-growing and other communities, by age



(b) Children’s school attendance in rural areas, cocoa-growing and other communities, by age



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

51. Table 9 looks in more detail at the interplay between work and school. It indicates that while children from cocoa communities and other communities work in roughly equal proportion, children from cocoa communities are relatively more likely to do so in combination with schooling. A higher proportion of children in other rural communities, on the other hand, work at the expense of school attendance. While caution should be exercised in reading too much into these descriptive findings, they suggest that work in the cocoa sector may be more compatible with school attendance than other forms of work performed by children in rural areas. This does not mean the cocoa work is not harmful to education in other ways, however, as the time and energy required for this work inevitably affects the ability of children to benefit from their classroom time and ability to study outside of the classroom.

Table 10. Type of activity, rural areas, children aged 7-14 years

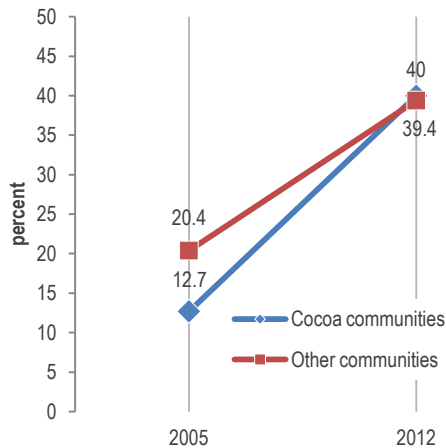
Characteristics	Activity			
	(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school
<i>Percentage</i>				
<i>Other communities</i>	7.2	54.0	32.2	6.6
<i>Number (thousands)</i>				
<i>Other communities</i>	137	1029	615	127

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)

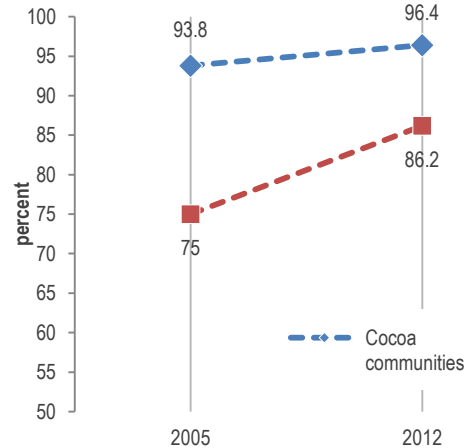
52. As we have seen in the previous chapters, child labour in Ghana increased substantially during period from 2005 to 2012. Figure 21a indicates that the rise in the incidence of children working in the cocoa communities was even greater than the rise in children's employment in non-cocoa communities during 2005-2012. At the same time, Figure 21b reports that the gap in children's school attendance between cocoa and non-cocoa communities narrowed during 2005-2012, but that children in cocoa communities still enjoy a substantial advantage in this regard.

**Figure 21. The rise in the incidence of children working in the cocoa communities was even greater the rise in children’s employment in non-cocoa communities during 2005-2012**

(a) Children’s *employment* in rural areas (age 7-14), cocoa-growing and other communities, 2005 and 2012



(b) Children’s *school attendance* in rural areas (age 7-14), cocoa-growing and other communities, by age, 2005 and 2012

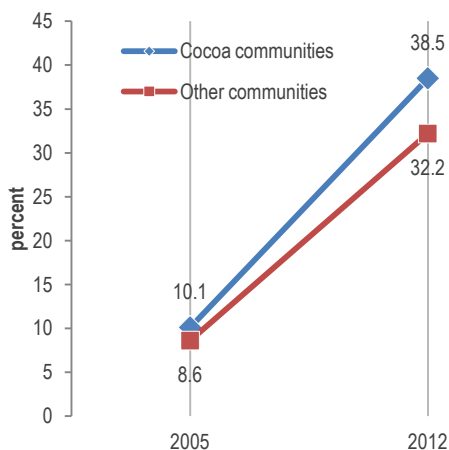


Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

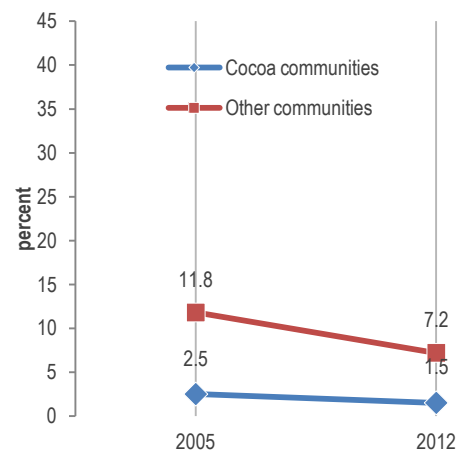
53. In both the cocoa and non-cocoa communities, the overall rise in children’s employment can be traced entirely to a rise in the share of children combining work and schooling (Figure 22a). The share of children working without also attending school, on the other hand, actually declined slightly in the cocoa and non-cocoa communities during the 2005-2012 period (Figure 22b).

**Figure 22. the overall rise in children’s employment can be traced entirely to a rise in the share of children combining work and schooling**

(a) Share of children *combining employment and schooling* (age 7-14), cocoa-growing and other rural communities, 2005 and 2012



(b) Share of children *in employment but not attending school* (age 7-14), cocoa-growing and other rural communities, 2005 and 2012



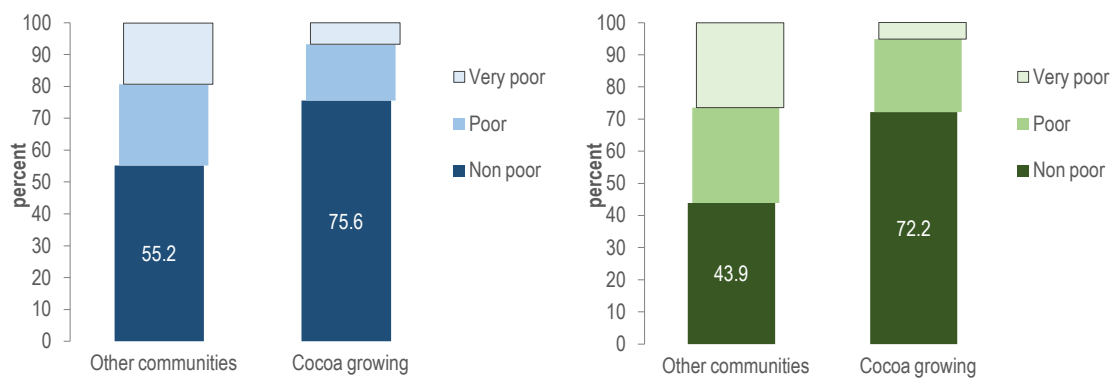
Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

54. Households in cocoa growing areas are less poor than households in other rural communities (Figure 23a). It is also noteworthy that a smaller share of children working in cocoa growing areas belong to poor households. Indeed, as reported in Figure 23b, almost three-quarters (72%) of children

working in cocoa-growing areas belong to non-poor households against only 44% of children working in other rural communities. This results suggests that labour market demand may be an important driver of children’s work in the cocoa sector. Many children work in this sector, in other words, not as a necessary household survival strategy but rather because labour market conditions make it worthwhile for them to do so.

**Figure 23. A smaller share of children working in cocoa growing areas belong to poor households**

(a) Distribution of rural population by poverty status, cocoa and non-cocoa communities (b) Distribution of children in employment (age 7-14) by poverty status, cocoa and non-cocoa communities



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

55. While the Ghana Living Standards Surveys offer little information about the dangers faced by children working in the cocoa sector, a separate research report published in 2015<sup>27</sup> suggests that work in the cocoa sector poses a direct threat to children’s health and safety. The report indicates that almost all children working in the cocoa sector are in hazardous work likely to harm their health, safety or morals. Land clearing, heavy loads, agro-chemicals, sharp tools, long working, night work are among the documented hazards faced by the child cocoa workers. In light of these facts, it is not surprising that the report has also found that work-related injuries among children working in the cocoa sector are very high<sup>28</sup>.

<sup>27</sup> 2013/2014 Survey Research on Child Labor in West African Cocoa Growing Areas (2015). School of Public Health and Tropical Medicine. Tulane University

<sup>28</sup> Th report also found that more than half of these children sustained injuries performing work-related activities.

Chapter 5.  
**ADOLESCENTS AGED 15-17 YEARS**

56. Adolescents aged 15-17 years are of interest to efforts relating to both child labour and youth employment. Even though this group is over the minimum working age they are still children in legal terms and still considered “child labourers” under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 if the work they do is hazardous. In other words, adolescents are legally permitted to work but only if this work is not hazardous in nature. Hazardous work in adolescence can create huge barriers – educational, physical, psychological, social – that impede a young person from competing successfully for good jobs in the future. A key goal for policy efforts in both the child labour and youth employment fields, therefore, should be to remove and prevent adolescents from hazardous jobs. In this chapter we address the extent of nature of child labour among children in the 15-17 years age range.

**5.1 Involvement in child labour**

57. Child labour in the 15-17 years age range is limited to hazardous and other worst forms of work. However, due to data limitations, estimates only include hazardous work, which is defined in accordance with Ghana’s legislation, i.e., work posing a danger to the health, safety or morals of a person (Children’s Act 560, 1998, Sec. 91.2). Hazardous work includes going to sea; mining and quarrying; portering of heavy loads; manufacturing industries where chemicals are produced or used; work in places where machines are used; and work in places such as bars, hotels and places of entertainment where a person may be exposed to immoral behaviour (Sec. 91.3)<sup>29</sup>.

Table 11. Children in child labour, age group 15-17 years<sup>(a)</sup>

(a) Percentage

Age	Sex		Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
15	27.4	18.6	12.4	33.1	22.9
16	27.3	18.2	13.3	31.8	22.7
17	30.1	22.6	17.0	36.0	26.3
<b>Total 15-17</b>	28.2	19.7	14.2	33.5	23.9

<sup>29</sup> For additional information on hazardous work estimates, see also: Ghana Statistical Service (2014), Ghana Living Standards Survey Round 6 (GLSS 6) – Child Labour Report



Table 11. Cont'd

Age	Sex		Residence		Total
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	
	15	80,904	58,947	37,674	
16	77,598	53,222	37,973	92,847	130,820
17	79,692	61,199	46,398	94,493	140,891
<b>Total 15-17</b>	238,195	173,367	122,045	289,517	411,562

Notes: (a) Child labour constitutes (a) children working over 43 hours per week; (b) children working during the evening or night; (c) and children exposed to hazardous forms of work irrespective of working hours.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

58. Child labour among 15-17 year-olds is very high in Ghana. As reported in Table 11, almost 24% of all children in this age range, 412,000 in absolute terms, are engaged in child labour. Differences in involvement in child labour by sex and residence are also pronounced for this age group. Child labour among adolescents is higher for males – 28% of male 15-17 year-olds are in child labour against 20% of same-aged females. As with younger children, child labour among 15-17 year-olds is in large part a rural phenomenon. The share of rural children in this age in child labour (34%) is more than twice that of urban children (14%); in absolute terms, rural child labourers outnumber their urban counterparts by 168,000 (290,000 to 122,000).

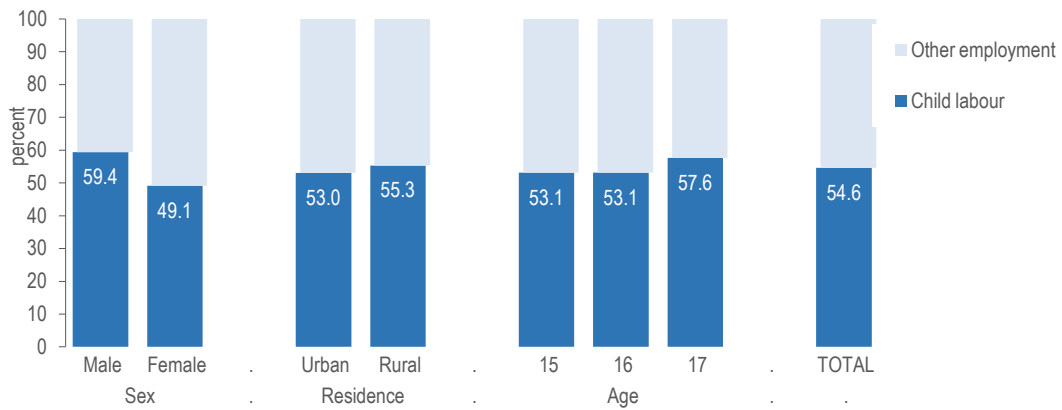
59. Another way of viewing the issue of child labour for the 15-17 years age group is its importance *relative to overall employment* for this age group. In other words, the share of *employed* adolescents in this age group that are in child labour. Globally, adolescents in hazardous work account for 40% of total employed adolescents.<sup>30</sup> In Ghana, the figure for 15-17 year-olds is much higher – almost 55% of those with jobs are in child labour (Figure 24). This share of jobs that are hazardous is even higher among male adolescents (59%). The high incidence of hazardous work among employed 15-17 year-olds is one indication of the size of the “decent work deficit” facing this group.<sup>31</sup>

<sup>30</sup> IPEC, *Global child labour trends 2008 to 2012* / International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) - Geneva: ILO, 2013.

<sup>31</sup> The concept of decent work is taken up in more detail in Chapter 7 of this Report.

**Figure 24. Adolescents aged 15-17 years in child labour constitute the majority of employed adolescents in this age group in Ghana**

Percentage of employed adolescents aged 15-17 years in child labour and in other employment

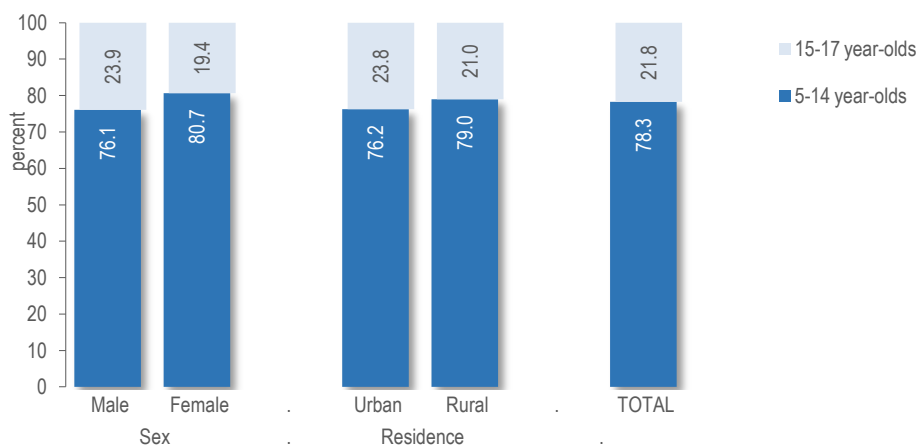


Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

60. Child labourers in the 15-17 years age range account for about one-fifth of total child labourers of all ages in Ghana (Figure 25). This statistic more than any other illustrates how the broad policy goals of eliminating child labour and improving youth employment outcomes intersect for the 15-17 years age group. The fact that adolescents constitute such a large component of the overall child labour population means that it will not be possible to achieve child labour elimination without addressing the employment outcomes of this group.

**Figure 25. Children aged 5-14 years in child labour constitute the majority of total child labourers in Ghana**

Distribution of the child labour population by sex and residence

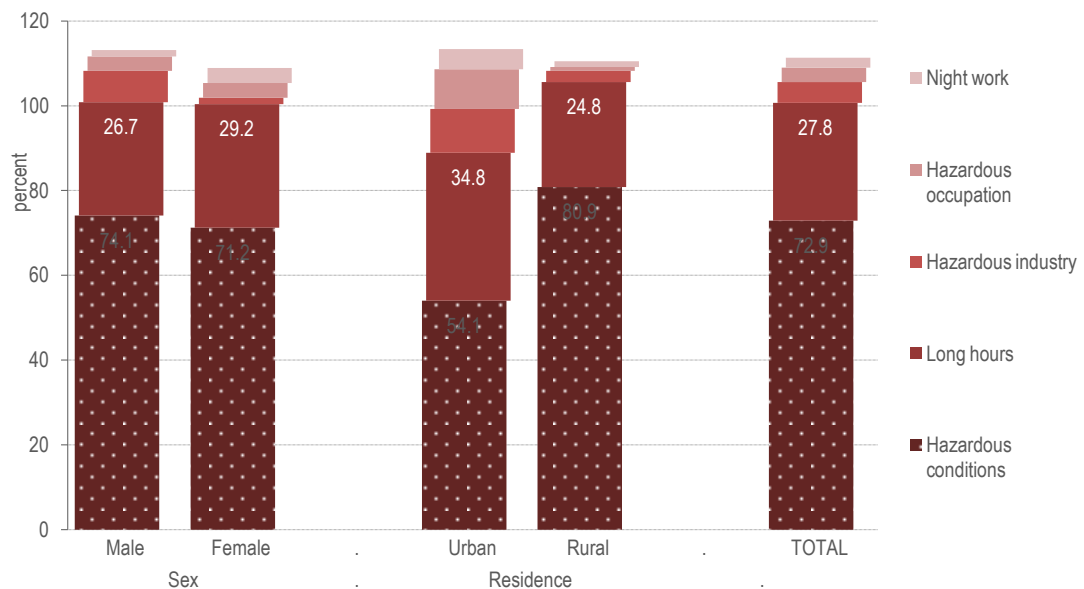


Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

## 5.2 Characteristics of child labour

61. Most adolescents in child labour are working in hazardous conditions and for long hours (Figure 26).<sup>32</sup> Hazardous conditions are experienced by 73% of all those in child labour and the long hours by 28% of child labourers. This combination of long hours and hazardous conditions is a particular concern because the greater the length of time that a child is exposed to hazardous conditions the more likely they are to be harmed by them.

Figure 26. Hazardous conditions are the most important criteria for child labour in the 15-17 years age group  
Percentage of 15-17 year-old child labourers affected by hazardous conditions, long hours, and night work, by sex and residence<sup>(a)</sup>



Note: (a) Percentages for each sub-group sum to more than 100 because some child labourers meet more than one of the child labour criteria;  
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

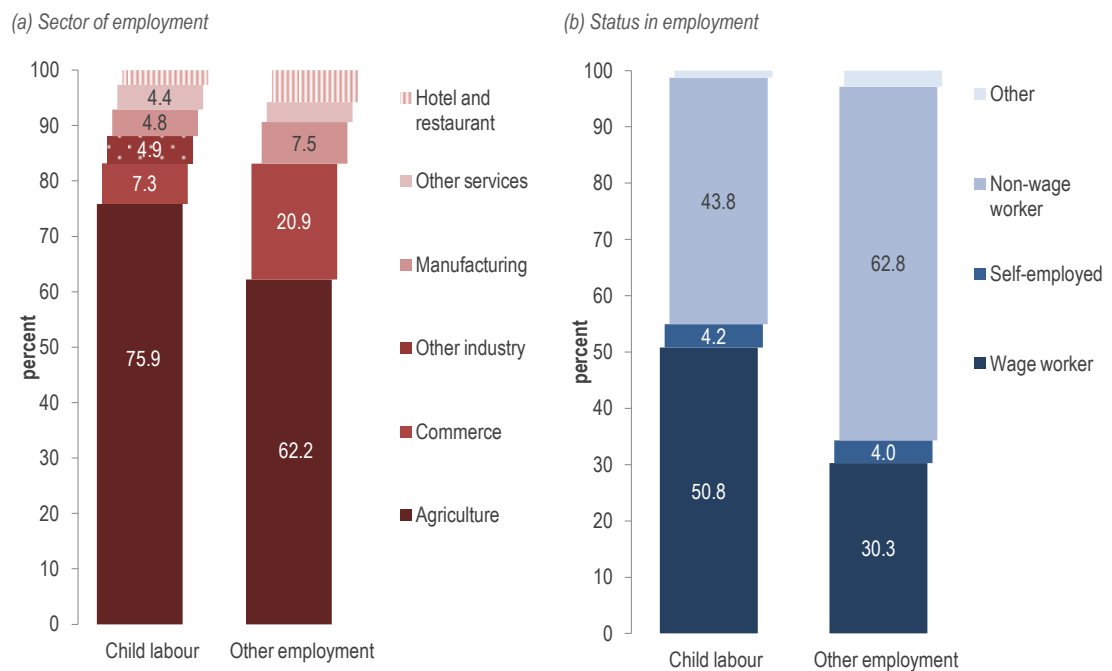
62. About three-fourths (76%) of adolescents in child labour are found in the agriculture sector (Figure 27a). A distant second in importance is commerce, accounting for seven percent of adolescent child labour. It is interesting to note that this sectoral composition differs considerably from that of employment *not* constituting child labour for the 15-17 years age group. As also reported in Figure 27a, adolescents *not* in child labour are much less likely to be found in agriculture and more likely to be found in commerce. Figure 27b reports the distribution of child labourers and

<sup>32</sup> Recall from Chapter 2 that we considered a number of criteria in estimating hazardous work – hazardous conditions, hazardous occupations or industries, night work and long hours. Adolescents are considered to be in hazardous work if they are found to be in any one of the following categories: children working in designated hazardous industries (mining, quarrying and construction); children working in designated hazardous occupations (they refer to the list of hazardous work established by the national legislation); children working long hours (42 hours or more per week); children working under other hazardous conditions such as night work, using hazardous tools and being in an unhealthy work environment.

other employed adolescents by status in employment. Again, important differences are evident: those in child labour are much more likely to be in wage work and much less likely to be in non-wage (family) work compared to their peers not in child labour.

**Figure 27. Child labourers are concentrated in agricultural work within the family unit**

*Distribution of children in child labour by sector and status of employment, age 15-17 years*



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

## CHILDREN'S EMPLOYMENT, CHILD LABOUR AND EDUCATION

63. The degree to which work interferes with children's schooling is one of the most important determinants of the long-term impact of early work experience. Reduced educational opportunities constitute the main link between child labour, on the one hand, and youth employment outcomes, on the other. Clearly, if the exigencies of work mean that children are denied schooling altogether or are less able to perform in the classroom, then these children will not acquire the human capital necessary for decent work upon entering adulthood. This section looks at evidence of the impact of children's work on their education. Links between child labour, human capital levels and *youth employment* outcomes in Ghana are explored in more detail in Chapter 7 of this report.

64. One way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by decomposing the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups – children in employment only, children attending school only, children combining school and employment and children doing neither. This breakdown shows that 70% of children aged 5-14 years attend school only, while 22% combine employment and school. Only three percent of children aged 5-14 years are exclusively in employment, while the remaining five percent are neither studying nor working (although likely to be engaged in other productive activities, such as household chores) (Table 12).

Table 12. Children's activity status, 5-14 years age range, by sex and residence

Characteristics		Activity				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out-of- school
		(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school			
Sex	Male	3.3	70.3	21.6	4.8	24.9	92.0	8.0
	Female	2.9	69.9	21.7	5.6	24.5	91.5	8.5
Residence	Urban	1.3	82.9	13.0	2.9	14.2	95.9	4.1
	Rural	4.7	58.7	29.3	7.3	34.0	88.1	11.9
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>3.1</b>	<b>70.1</b>	<b>21.6</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>24.7</b>	<b>91.7</b>	<b>8.3</b>

Sex		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	TOTAL
Sex	Male	116	2495	767	169	883
	Female	98	2389	740	193	838
Residence	Urban	41	2714	424	94	466
	Rural	173	2170	1084	269	1256
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>214</b>	<b>4884</b>	<b>1508</b>	<b>362</b>	<b>1722</b>

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

65. It is worth noting that the interaction between work and school differs considerably between rural and urban children: one third of rural students also work, while the share of urban students that also work is only 14%. Rural children, in other words, face a double disadvantage in terms of schooling: a smaller proportion attends school (88% versus 96%), and those that do attend school are more likely to have to shoulder the burden of work at the same time.

66. The interaction between work and school differs considerably for adolescents in the 15-17 years age group: a much smaller percentage (47%) only studies and a much higher percentage (13%) is in employment exclusively; 31% combine both activities and nine percent neither study nor work (Table 13). These differences between the 5-14 years and 15-17 years age cohorts are not surprising as the age of 15 years corresponds with the time that adolescents begin their transition from school to working life. The difference in activity status between rural and urban children is also noteworthy for the 15-17 years age group. Again, rural children are less likely to be in school and, among those that are in school, more likely to have to work at the same time.

Table 13. Adolescents' activity status, 15-17 years age range, by sex and residence

Characteristics		Activity				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out-of- school
		(a) Only in employment	(b) In school exclusively	(c) In employment and school	(d) Neither in employment nor in school			
Sex	Male	13.5	44.9	34.0	7.6	47.5	78.9	21.1
	Female	13.1	49.2	27.1	10.6	40.2	76.3	23.7
Residence	Urban	8.8	62.5	18.0	10.8	26.7	80.5	19.5
	Rural	17.8	31.7	43.0	7.5	60.7	74.7	25.3
<b>TOTAL</b>		13.3	47.1	30.5	9.1	43.8	77.6	22.4

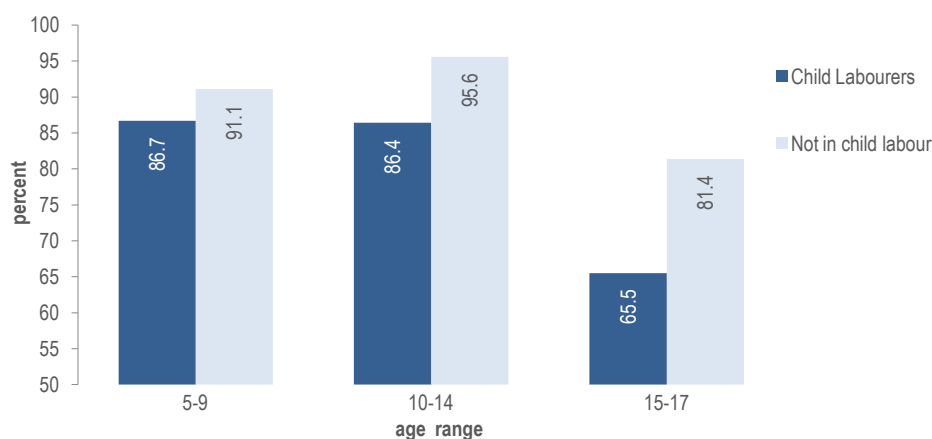
Sex		Male	Female	Urban	Rural	<b>TOTAL</b>
Male		114	379	287	64	401
Female		115	433	238	93	353
Urban		76	538	155	93	230
Rural		153	274	371	65	524
<b>TOTAL</b>		229	812	525	158	754

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

67. Child labourers are disadvantaged in terms of being able to attend school. The school attendance gap between child labourers and other children increases with age and is particularly marked at the end of the 5-17 years age spectrum: for the age group 10-14 years, the school attendance of child labourers is 10 percentage points less than that of other children and for the age group 15-17 years their attendance is 15 percentage points lower (Figure 28). These figures underscore the importance of child labour as a constraint to achieving universal basic enrolment in the country. Data are not available in Ghana on the *regularity* of school attendance, i.e. the frequency with which children are absent from or late for class, but attendance regularity is also likely to be adversely affected by involvement in employment.

Figure 28. Child labourers are disadvantaged in terms of being able to attend school

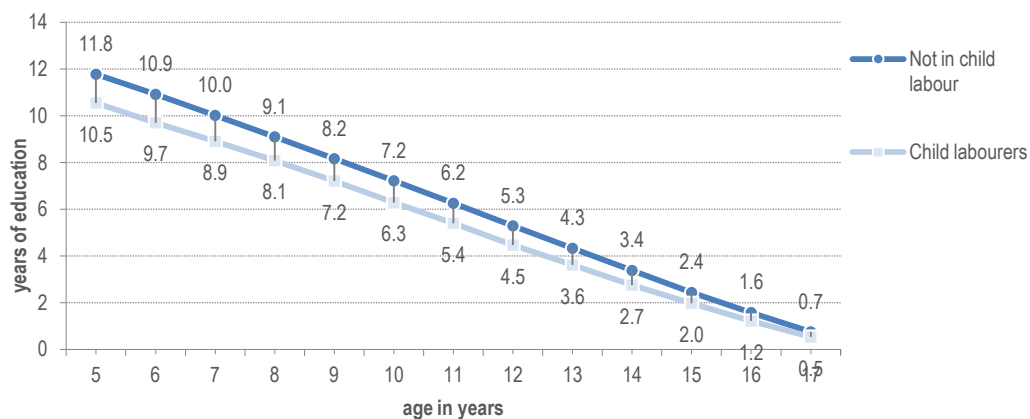
School participation by child labour status and age



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

68. Ghanaian working children also have lower school life expectancy (SLE). School life expectancy (SLE) provides a measure of the total number of years of education that a child can be expected to complete. SLE, reported in Figure 29, indicates that working children entering schooling can expect to remain there for less time than non-working children. At each age up to the age of 10 years, the difference in school life expectancy is about one year. Differences in school life expectancy diminish after this age, but nonetheless continue to favour non-working children. This illustrates the different paths taken by working children attending school compared to their non-working peers. The former are more likely to drop out prematurely and transition into full-time work at an earlier age.

**Figure 29. Child labour is associated with lower school life expectancy at every age**  
School life expectancy by child labour status and age



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

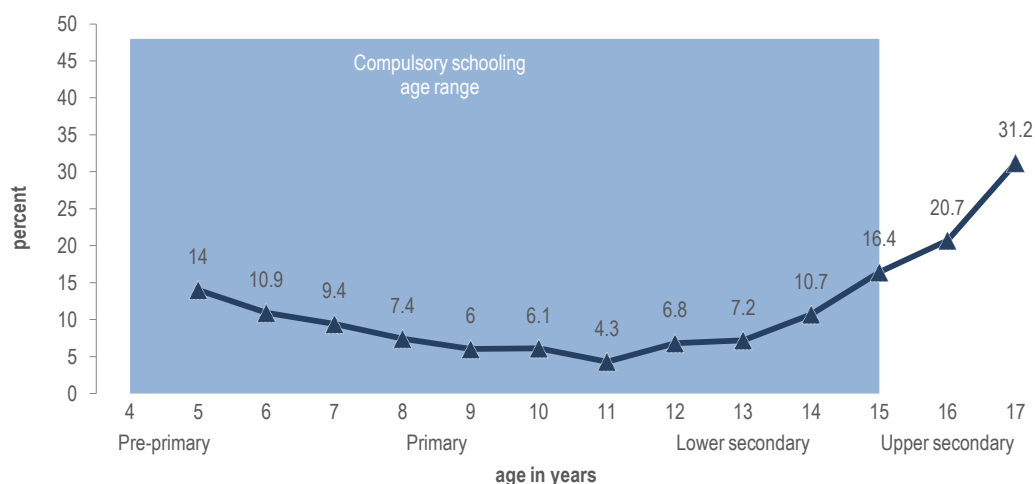
69. There remains a significant share of children who are not in school, particularly at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum. The share of children who are out of school falls throughout the primary school age range but begins to rise thereafter, reaching 10% at the age of 14 years (Figure 30). This pattern suggests that late entry is a key driver of school non-attendance in the primary cycle<sup>33</sup> while drop-out gains in importance thereafter. In all, about eight percent of children in the compulsory schooling age range of 6-14 years, 485,000 children in absolute terms, are out of school.

<sup>33</sup> The declining percentage of children out of school in the primary cycle indicates that more children are entering the system late than are dropping out prematurely.



Figure 30. There remains a small but significant share of children who are not in school, particularly at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum

Percentage of children out-of-school by age



Notes: (a) Compulsory schooling in Ghana begins at age four and is 11 years in duration. The school system is comprised of a 2-year pre-primary cycle, a 6-year primary cycle, a 3-year lower secondary cycle and a (non-compulsory) 3-year upper secondary cycle (Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics).

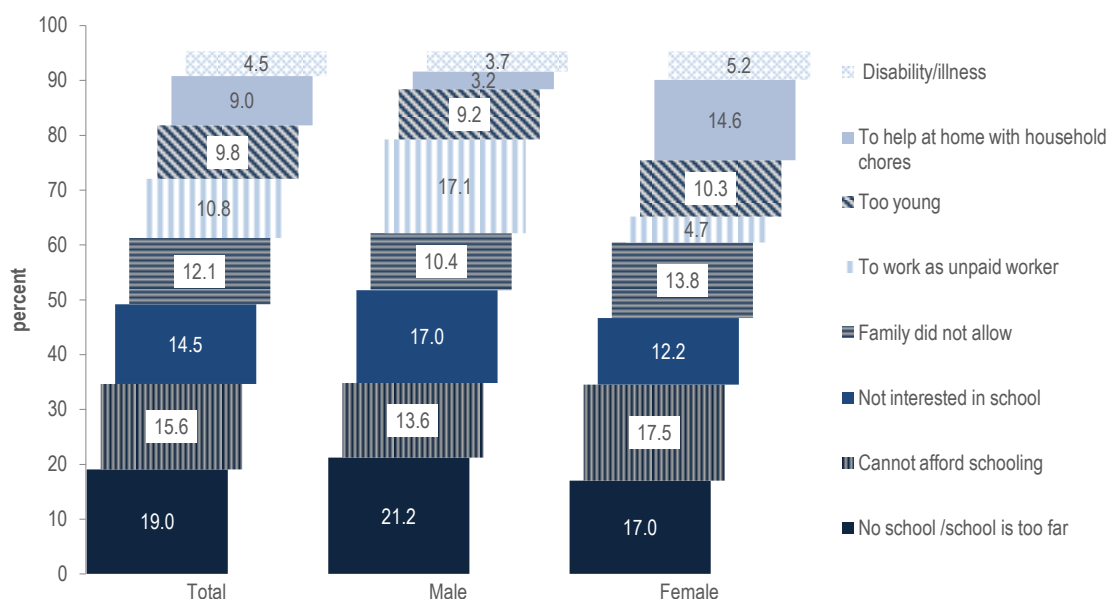
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

70. Why are children outside of the school system? Feedback from children themselves points to the importance of both supply- and demand-side factors (Figure 31). More than one-third of out-of-school children do not go to school because it is either too far away (19%) or too expensive (17%). An additional 15% cite a lack of interest in studying as the primary motive for being out of school, a response likely driven in important part by perceptions of school quality and relevance. On the demand-side of the schooling equation, 12% of out-of-school children are not allowed by their parents to attend school, and 20% are out of school in order to work as an unpaid worker (11%) or to perform household chores (9%). Ten percent of out-of-school children indicate being too young to attend school, suggesting a lack of awareness of the starting age for compulsory schooling.<sup>34</sup>

<sup>34</sup> Compulsory schooling in Ghana begins at the age of four years and is 11 years in duration.

Figure 31. Push and pull factors are both important in explaining out of school children

Main reason for not attending school in the current year (% distribution)<sup>(a)</sup>



Notes: (a) Respondents were aged 6-17 years.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

71. The reasons for not attending school appear to be influenced by gender. As reported in Figure 31, girls' school attendance is relatively more likely to be constrained by school costs, by negative parental attitudes towards schooling and by the need to perform household chores. For boys, school distance, lack of interest and unpaid work play a relatively larger role in explaining school non-attendance.

Table 14. Out-of-school children aged 8-14 with less than 2 and 4 years of education

Age	Extreme education poverty (out-of-school children with <2 years of completed education)		Education poverty (out-of-school children with <4 years of completed education)		Total Out-of-school children
	No.	% of total of out-of-school children	No.	% of total of out-of-school children	
8	50,956	91.8	-	-	55,493
9	36,003	89.3	-	-	40,315
10	32,594	73.7	42,639	96.4	44,223
11	20,118	76.3	21,926	83.2	26,368
12	34,515	64.4	36,818	68.7	53,554
13	23,823	46.5	28,055	54.8	51,236
14	24,913	38.5	28,169	43.5	64,743
15	29,405	29.4	29,907	29.9	100,155
16	25,576	21.4	25,998	21.8	119,350
17	25,673	15.4	26,097	15.6	166,833

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

72. Reaching out-of-school children with second chance educational opportunities is important to ensuring that they do not graduate into adulthood lacking the basic skills needed for work and life. Table 14, which looks in detail at the second chance learning needs of out-of-school

children, suggests that second chance learning needs are significant. Limiting our focus to out-of-school children aged 10-14 years,<sup>35</sup> some 158,000, or 66% of the total out-of-school children in this age range, suffer what UNESCO terms “education poverty”, i.e., possess less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. Of this group, 136,000, or 57% of total out-of-school children aged 10-14 years, suffer “extreme education poverty”, i.e., possess less than two years of schooling. It is likely that the education poverty indicator actually underestimates second chance learning needs as basic literacy skills alone are a less and less adequate “skills floor” for successful entry into the Ghanaian labour market.

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<sup>35</sup> A minimum age of 10, rather than six, years is used in light of the fact that many out-of-school children aged 6-9 years are late-entrants, i.e., not currently in school but likely to enter school in the future.

## Chapter 7.

# YOUNG PERSONS AGED 15-34 YEARS

73. This chapter focuses on the labour market situation of Ghanaian youth. In accordance with the country's National Youth Policy (2010), youth is defined as those in the age range from 15 to 34 years.<sup>36</sup> Using data from the labour force module of the sixth round of the Ghana Labour Standards Survey undertaken in 2012 (GLSS 2012), the chapter first provides an overview of the activity status of Ghanaian young persons and then looks in more detail at job access and job quality and at how human capital levels influence both. The definitions of the key labour market indicators used in this chapter are presented in Panel 2.

### Panel 2. Youth employment definitions

**Labour force participation:** The labour force participation rate is defined as the labour force expressed as a percentage of the working age population. The labour force is in turn the sum of the number of persons employed and the number of persons unemployed.

**Employment:** A person is considered employed if he or she worked during the week prior to the survey for at least one hour for pay (or without pay), profit, in kind, or family business. A person is also considered to be in employment if he or she was not working but had a job to go back to.

**Unemployment:** A person is considered unemployed if he or she did not work during the week prior to the survey but is actively seeking work and is available for work.

**Underemployment:** A person is considered underemployed if he or she is working less than 35 hours. The underemployment rate is the underemployed expressed as a percentage of the total employed population.

**Inactive:** A person is considered inactive if he or she is not in the labour force. The inactivity rate and labour force participation rate sum to 100.

**NEET:** A person is categorized as NEET if he or she is not in education, employment or training. NEET is therefore a measure that reflects both youth who are inactive and out of education as well as youth who are unemployed.

## 7.1 Youth labour force status: the overall picture

74. Seventy-one percent of Ghanaian youth are in the labour force and 31% are continuing with their education (Table 15). The two activities are not of course mutually exclusive: 12% of all youth continue in education after entering the labour force (Appendix Table A5). A substantial share of youth – 10% – are absent from both education and the labour force.

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<sup>36</sup> The policy defines "youth" as "persons who are within the age bracket of fifteen (15) and thirty-five (35)" (Sec. 3.2). However, the policy states that the following age categories of youth are considered: 15-19 years, 20-24 years, 25-29 years, and 30-34 years (Sec. 3.4). This chapter therefore utilises the age range 15-34 years.

Among those in the labour force, six percent are unemployed. “NEET” youth, who include both unemployed youth and youth absent from education and the labour force, make up 14% of the youth population.

Table 15. Aggregate labour market indicators, persons aged 15-34 years, by residence, sex, and age range

Population category		% of population				% of active population	
		Labour force participation	Education participation	Inactive and out of school	NEET <sup>(a)</sup>	Employment ratio	Unemployment rate <sup>(b)</sup>
Residence	Urban	64.7	31.4	11.8	17.3	59.2	8.5
	Rural	78.8	30.4	7.3	10.6	75.5	4.1
Sex	Male	73.0	35.7	6.5	10.4	69.1	5.4
	Female	69.5	26.8	12.7	17.6	64.5	7.1
Age range	15-24	57.0	49.6	11.8	16.4	52.3	8.1
	25-34	90.9	5.1	6.9	11.2	86.6	4.7
Region	Western	75.8	31.1	5.6	10.6	70.8	6.6
	Central	58.4	31.8	16.2	20.3	54.2	7.1
	Greater Accra	62.4	27.8	13.7	20.0	56.0	10.1
	Volta	71.7	35.6	7.6	10.5	68.9	3.9
	Eastern	73.7	32.9	8.5	12.9	69.3	6.0
	Ashanti	71.7	29.0	11.4	14.8	68.3	4.8
	Brong Ahafo	77.6	34.9	6.4	10.1	73.9	4.7
	Northern	76.6	25.8	7.8	10.8	73.5	4.0
	Upper East	81.4	33.2	4.2	12.2	73.4	9.8
Upper West	80.4	43.0	3.8	10.3	73.9	8.0	
<b>Total</b>		<b>71.1</b>	<b>31.0</b>	<b>9.8</b>	<b>14.2</b>	<b>66.7</b>	<b>6.3</b>

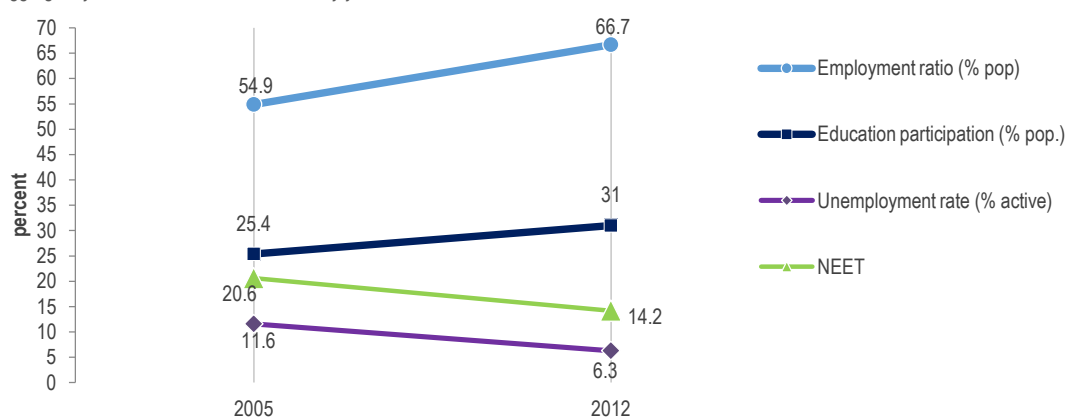
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

75. The youth definition in Ghana, however, covers a wider age spectrum (i.e., 15-34 years) and the headline labour force statistics for Ghanaian youth should be interpreted with this mind. The youth labour force picture changes considerably if we restrict our focus to the narrower 15-24 years age cohort used in most international statistics on youth employment. As reported in Table 15, labour force participation is much lower for this cohort (57%) while education participation is much higher (50%). Rates of NEET (16%) and unemployment (8%) are also higher among youth in the 15-24 years age cohort. The headline labour force statistics for the 15-34 years age range also mask large variations by residence and sex, as also reported in Table 15 and discussed in more detail in the remaining sections of this chapter.

76. Comparable labour force statistics for one earlier point in time –2005 – suggest a gradual improvement in the youth employment situation in the country. As reported in Figure 32, youth participation in education rose steadily over the 2005-2012 period (from 25% in 2005 and to 31% in 2012), while the youth unemployment and NEET rates were almost halved over the same period. The youth employment ratio rose from 55% in 2005 to almost 67% in 2012. A breakdown of these changes by age cohorts indicates that they have been most pronounced among younger,

15-19 and 20-24 year-old, young persons (Appendix Figure A4 and Figure A5).

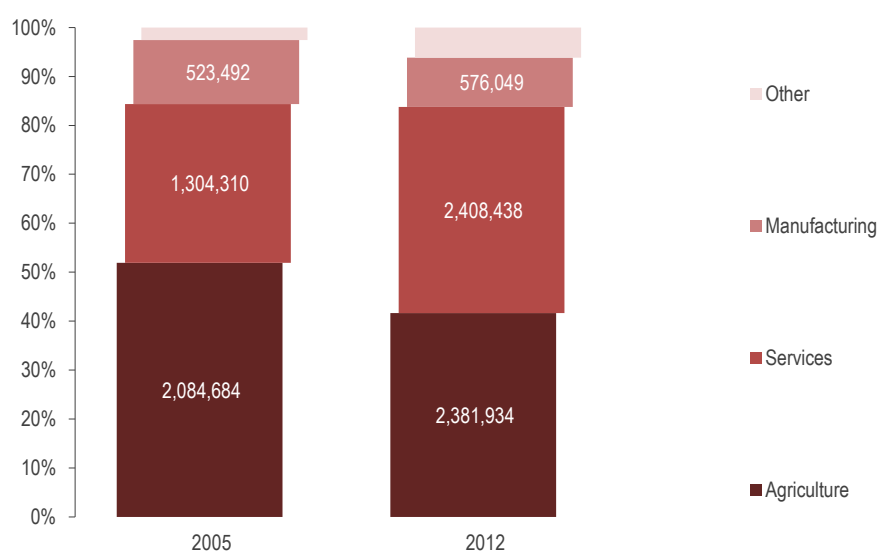
**Figure 32. Comparable statistics for earlier years suggest a gradual improvement in the youth employment situation**  
Aggregate youth labour market indicators by year, 2005 and 2012



Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

77. The rise in the employment ratio was accompanied by a change in the composition of employment. As reported in Figure 33 and in Figure 34, this change involved a significant shift from the agriculture sector to the service sector, and from self-employment in agriculture to paid employment. Moreover, the increase in jobs was mostly due to an increase of jobs in the service sector, which is also reflected in the increase in paid employment. However, the agriculture sector still accounted for half of all youth jobs in 2012, as discussed further later in the chapter.

**Figure 33. The rise in the employment ratio was accompanied by a change in the composition of employment**  
Sector of employment (% distribution), employed youth aged 15-34 years, by year

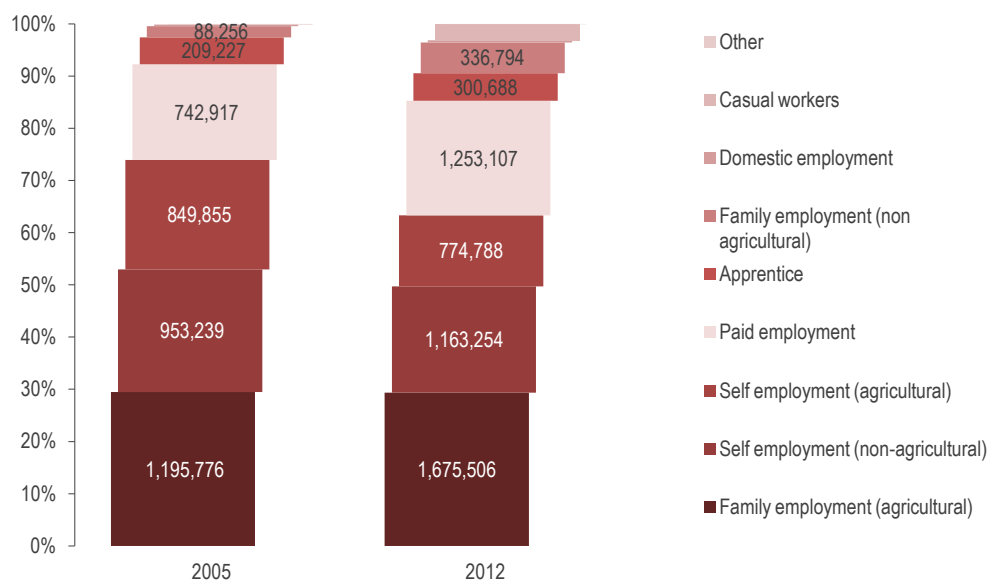


Note: The category "Other" includes mining and quarrying, construction, electricity, gas and water.

Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

**Figure 34. The rise in the employment ratio was accompanied by a change in the composition of the status in employment**

Status of employment (% distribution), employed youth aged 15-34 years, by year



Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

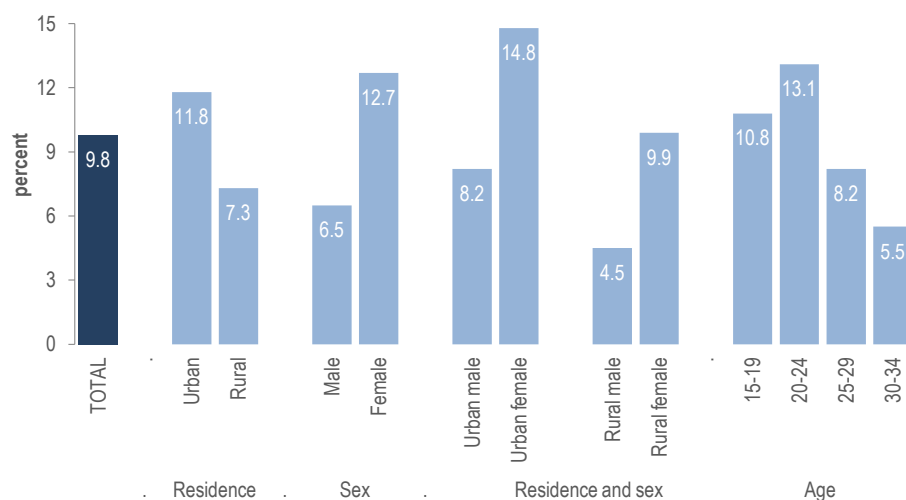
## 7.2 Youth access to jobs

78. This section focuses on youth labour market challenges as reflected by lack of access to jobs. Two main groups of young people are looked at in this context: youth not in education and not in the labour force; and unemployed youth. Taken together, these groups constitute the “NEET” youth population.<sup>37</sup> Young people who are neither attaining marketable skills in school nor in the labour force, and particularly male youth in this group, frequently find themselves at the margins of society and more vulnerable to risky and violent behaviour. At a macro-economic level, they constitute unutilised productive capacity and a constraint to growth, especially as NEET youth enjoy higher level of education than non-NEET youth (Figure A6). Other risks borne by unemployed youth are also well-documented: unemployment can permanently impair their productive potential and therefore influence lifetime patterns of employment, pay and job tenure.

<sup>37</sup> NEET is an acronym for “not in employment, education or training”; NEET is increasingly being used as an indicator of youth marginalisation and labour market difficulties.

**Figure 35. Female youth are most likely to be inactive and out of education**

Percentage of young people (15-34 years) who are inactive and out of education, by sex, age range, and residence



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

79. Almost 10% of all youth are not in education or in the labour force (Figure 35). This figure is driven primarily by female youth, who are nearly twice as likely to be inactive and out of school than male youth (13% versus 7%). The gender gap is in turn the result of both a lower level of labour force participation (69% versus 73%) and lower education participation (27% versus 36%) among female youth. Again, the differences between youth in the standard 15-24 years range and older youth are also noteworthy: those in the “younger” youth cohorts are much more likely to be inactive and out of education. Residence appears to be another important factor. The share of youth who are inactive and out of education is one-third higher among urban youth compared to their rural counterparts. This is in turn a reflection of the different nature of the rural and urban youth labour markets in Ghana, a point discussed further below.

80. Six percent of young persons in the labour force are unable to secure jobs (Figure 36). This youth unemployment rate, although not high by global standards,<sup>38</sup> is nonetheless three times that of Ghanaian adults (Appendix Figure A7), pointing to the existence of special barriers to youth employment in the country. Not all youth, however, face the same risk of unemployment - differences in youth unemployment by residence and age are especially marked. Unemployment is much more common in urban areas (9%) than in rural ones (4%), despite the lower levels of labour force participation in the former. In terms of age, unemployment

<sup>38</sup> According to ILO estimates, the global youth unemployment rate stood at 12.6 percent in 2013 (Source: ILO (2013), *Global Employment Trends for Youth 2013: A generation at risk* / International Labour Office - Geneva).



peaks in the 20-24 years cohort at 10%, declining thereafter to just three percent for the 30-34 years age cohort.

**Figure 36. A substantial share of youth wanting to work are unable to secure jobs**  
Unemployment rate, by sex, age range, and residence



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

81. Fourteen percent of Ghanaian young persons are not engaged in education, employment or training, a group expressed by the acronym “NEET”. The group of NEET youth consists of both youths who are unemployed and youth who are inactive and out of education, and therefore NEET is a more comprehensive measure for assessing youth labour market difficulties. The NEET concept is accordingly being increasingly used in youth labour market statistics, particularly in industrialised countries. Patterns by sex, age and residence are similar to those for unemployment. The incidence of youth in the NEET category is much higher for urban youth (17%), for female youth (18%) and for youth in the 20-24 years age cohort (20%).

**Figure 37. Female youth are most likely to fall into the NEET category**  
Percentage of young people who are NEET<sup>(a)</sup>, by sex, age range, residence



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

### 7.3 Youth job characteristics

82. Obtaining a job is of course an insufficient condition for successful labour market outcomes. This is because in countries such as Ghana where poverty is widespread, many youths simply cannot afford to remain without work altogether and must accept jobs regardless of the conditions and pay associated with them. The policy concern is not limited to whether young people are working but also extends to whether the jobs constitute decent work, offer a path for advancement and route out of poverty.

#### *Panel 3. ILO and Decent Work*

Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.

The Decent Work concept was formulated by the ILO's constituents – governments and employers and workers – as a means to identify the Organization's major priorities. It is based on the understanding that work is a source of personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, democracies that deliver for people, and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development.

#### **Promoting Decent work for all**

The ILO has developed a Decent Work Agenda for the community of work. It provides support through integrated Decent Work Country Programmes developed in coordination with its constituents. Putting the Decent Work Agenda into practice is achieved through the implementation of the ILO's four strategic objectives, with gender equality as a crosscutting objective:

Creating jobs – an economy that generates opportunities for investment, entrepreneurship, skills development, job creation and sustainable livelihoods.

Guaranteeing rights at work – to obtain recognition and respect for the rights of workers. All workers, and in particular disadvantaged or poor workers, need representation, participation, and laws that work for their interests.

Extending social protection – to promote both inclusion and productivity by ensuring that women and men enjoy working conditions that are safe, allow adequate free time and rest, take into account family and social values, provide for adequate compensation in case of lost or reduced income and permit access to adequate healthcare.

Promoting social dialogue – Involving strong and independent workers' and employers' organizations is central to increasing productivity, avoiding disputes at work, and building cohesive societies.

#### **Making Decent Work a global goal and a national reality**

The overall goal of Decent Work is to effect positive change in people's lives at the national and local levels. The ILO provides support through integrated Decent Work Country Programmes developed in coordination with ILO constituents. They define the priorities and the targets within national development frameworks and aim to tackle major Decent Work deficits through efficient programmes that embrace each of the strategic objectives.

The ILO operates with other partners within and beyond the UN family to provide in-depth expertise and key policy instruments for the design and implementation of these programmes. It also provides support for building the institutions needed to carry them forward and for measuring progress. The balance within these programmes differs from country to country, reflecting their needs, resources and priorities.

Progress also requires action at the global level. The Decent Work agenda offers a basis for a more just and sustainable framework for global development. The ILO works to develop "decent work"-oriented approaches to economic and social policy in partnership with the principal institutions and actors of the multilateral system and the global economy.

Source: ILO (<http://ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/decent-work-agenda/lang--en/index.htm>).

83. Securing *decent work*, in other words, rather than work *per se*, is the desired goal of the transition to working life, and therefore we need to assess youth jobs against basic decent work criteria for a more complete picture of labour market success.

84. Effectively measuring decent work is critical to assessing the employment outcomes of young persons. Yet, the multifaceted nature of the decent work concept – it combines access to full and productive employment with rights at work, social protection and the promotion of social dialogue – means that measurement is a complex task. This is especially the case for the current report, because the data utilised only contain limited information on current job characteristics. This section presents the few available indicators of job characteristics in order to provide a partial picture of the extent to which youth jobs constitute decent work.

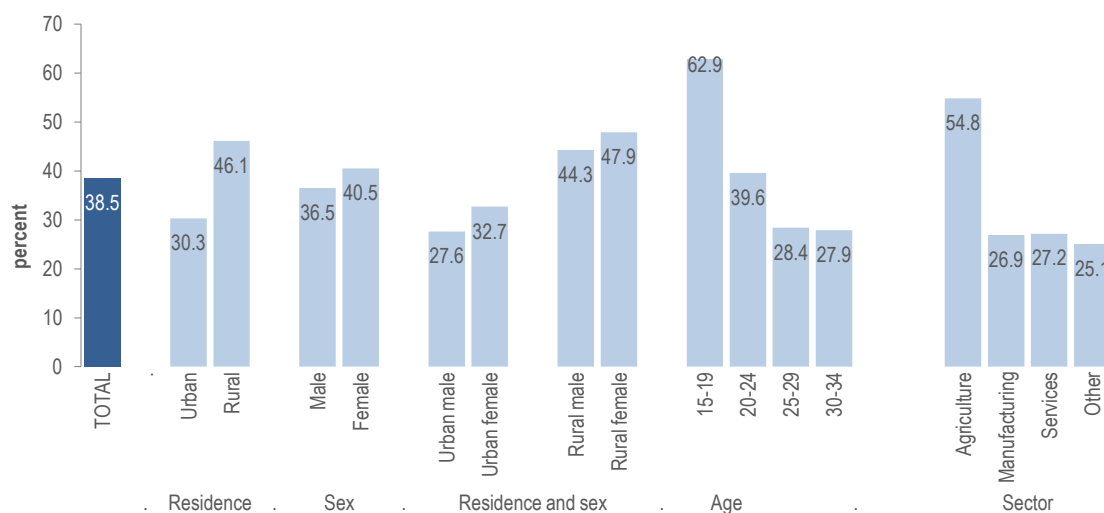
85. Youth *underemployment*,<sup>39</sup> sometimes referred to as “hidden unemployment”, affects over one-third (38%) of all Ghanaian youth with jobs (Figure 38). The underemployment rate rises to 63% for youth in the 15-19 years age range, suggesting that part-time work is common entry point in the labour market for youth. It is interesting to note that underemployment is much higher in *rural* areas (46%) compared to urban ones (30%), the opposite of the pattern seen for unemployment and NEET. Rural youth, it follows, have an easier time securing work, but this work is more likely to be only part-time in nature. The youth underemployment rate in the agriculture sector, where much of rural youth employment is concentrated, stands at 55%.

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<sup>39</sup>Time-related underemployment, as the only component of underemployment to date that has been agreed on and properly defined within the international community of labour statisticians, is the best available proxy of the underutilized labour force. The time-related-underemployed as share of total employment is measured as those who work less than 35 hours per week. The underemployment rate is defined here as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment.

Figure 38. **Underemployment is also an issue for employed youth, especially in rural areas and in some provinces**

Youth underemployment rate<sup>(a)</sup> (percentage of employed population aged 15-34 years), by sex, age, and residence



Note: (a) The time-related underemployment rate is defined as the number of employed persons in situations of underemployment expressed as a percentage of total persons in employment. A person is considered in a situation of underemployment if he/she works less than 35 hours a week.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

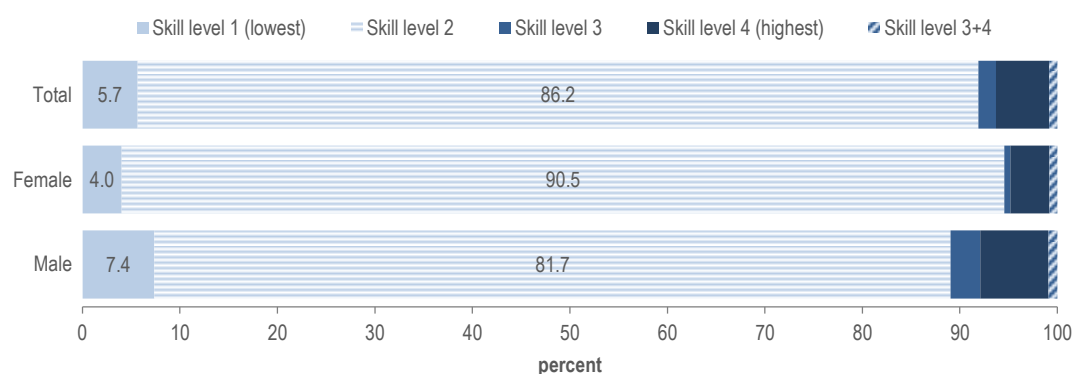
86. Youth are concentrated overwhelmingly in low-skill jobs, another indicator of their decent work deficit. Figure 39 reports the decomposition of youth jobs by skills requirements based on the four standardised International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) skills. It shows that 92% of all youth jobs fall into either the lowest skills category (6%)<sup>40</sup> or the second lowest skill category (86%).<sup>41</sup> Low-skill jobs are slightly more common for employed female youth: almost 95% must settle for jobs in the lowest two ISCO skill categories compared to 89% of employed male youth. Low-skill jobs are more common for rural youth (97%) but also account for most (87%) of jobs held by urban youth (Appendix Figure A8). As discussed further in the next section of this chapter, the majority of even the most educated group of youth with tertiary education manage to only secure low-skill jobs (in the lowest two skills categories).

<sup>40</sup> Skill level 1 requires only the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks.

<sup>41</sup> Skill level 2 requires the performance of tasks such as operating machinery and electronic equipment.

**Figure 39. Youth are concentrated in low skill jobs**

*Skill level classification of youth jobs (% distribution of employed youth), by sex*



Notes: Definitions of each of the four ISCO skill levels are as follows:

- Skill Level 1.** Occupations at Skill Level 1 typically require the performance of simple and routine physical or manual tasks. They may require the use of hand held tools, such as shovels, or of simple electrical equipment, such as vacuum cleaners. They involve tasks such as cleaning; digging; lifting and carrying materials by hand; sorting, storing or assembling goods by hand (sometimes in the context of mechanised operations); operating non-motorised vehicles; and picking fruit and vegetables. Many occupations at Skill Level 1 may require physical strength and/or endurance. For some jobs basic skills in literacy and numeracy may be required. If required these skills would not be a major part of the job;
- Skill Level 2.** Occupations at Skill Level 2 typically involve the performance of tasks such as operating machinery and electronic equipment; driving vehicles; maintenance and repair of electrical and mechanical equipment; and manipulation, ordering and storage of information. For almost all occupations at Skill Level 2 the ability to read information such as safety instructions, to make written records of work completed, and to accurately perform simple arithmetical calculations is essential. Many occupations at this skill level require relatively advanced literacy and numeracy skills and good interpersonal communication skills. In some occupations, these skills are required for a major part of the work. Many occupations at this skill level require a high level of manual dexterity.
- Skill Level 3.** Occupations at Skill Level 3 typically involve the performance of complex technical and practical tasks that require an extensive body of factual, technical and procedural knowledge in a specialised field. Occupations at this skill level generally require a high level of literacy and numeracy and well developed interpersonal communication skills. These skills may include the ability to understand complex written material, prepare factual reports and communicate with people who are distressed.
- Skill Level 4.** Occupations at Skill Level 4 typically involve the performance of tasks that require complex problem solving and decision-making based on an extensive body of theoretical and factual knowledge in a specialised field. The tasks performed typically include analysis and research to extend the body of human knowledge in a particular field, diagnosis and treatment of disease, imparting knowledge to others, design of structures or machinery and of processes for construction and production. Occupations at this skill level generally require extended levels of literacy and numeracy, sometimes at a very high level, and excellent interpersonal communication skills. These skills generally include the ability to understand complex written material and communicate complex ideas in media such as books, reports and oral presentations.

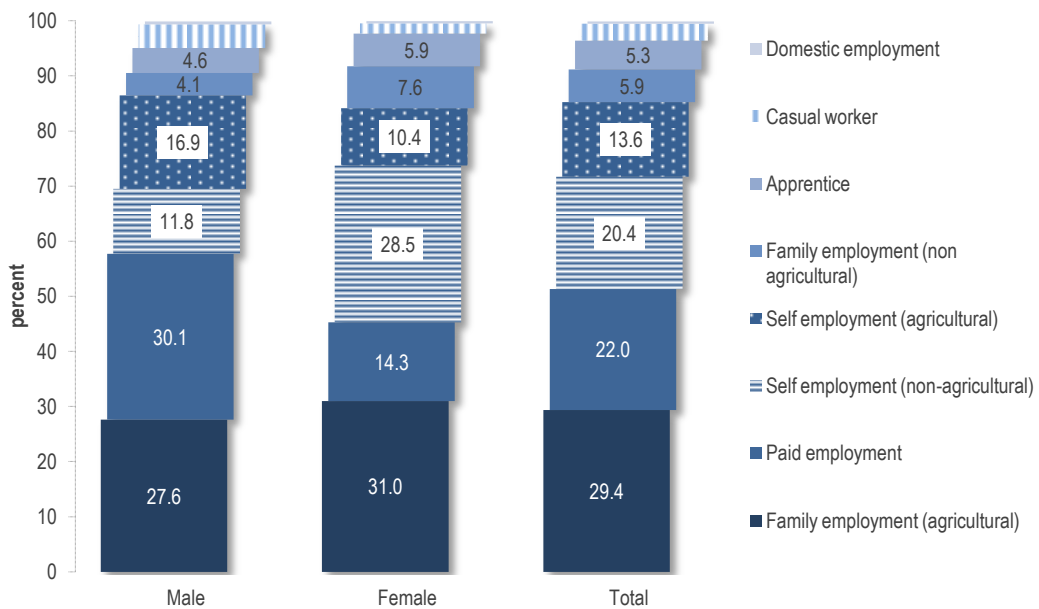
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

87. Employed youth are concentrated overwhelmingly in non-remunerated jobs in the informal economy. Figure 40, which reports the status in employment of working youth, indicates that only around one in five youth jobs (22%) are in paid employment while the remainder involve a variety of informal work arrangements. Female youth are especially disadvantaged in this regard – only 14% of their jobs are remunerated. About 44% youth jobs involve either family-based farm work (29%) or self-employed farm work (14%), 20% of jobs involve self-employment off the farm, and the remaining jobs are distributed across non-farm family work (6%), apprentice work (5%) and casual work (3%). As emphasized by the ILO, although it is hard to generalize concerning the quality of

informal employment arrangements, they often mean lack of adequate protection, unsafe working conditions and the absence of social benefits such as pensions, sick pay and health insurance.<sup>42</sup> At the same time, while more formal paid job arrangements make it more likely that a worker enjoys a fair income, security in the workplace, social protection and other attributes of decent work, this type of job is by no means a guarantee of decent work.

Figure 40. Employed youth are concentrated in non-remunerated informal economy jobs

Youth status in employment (percentage distribution), by sex



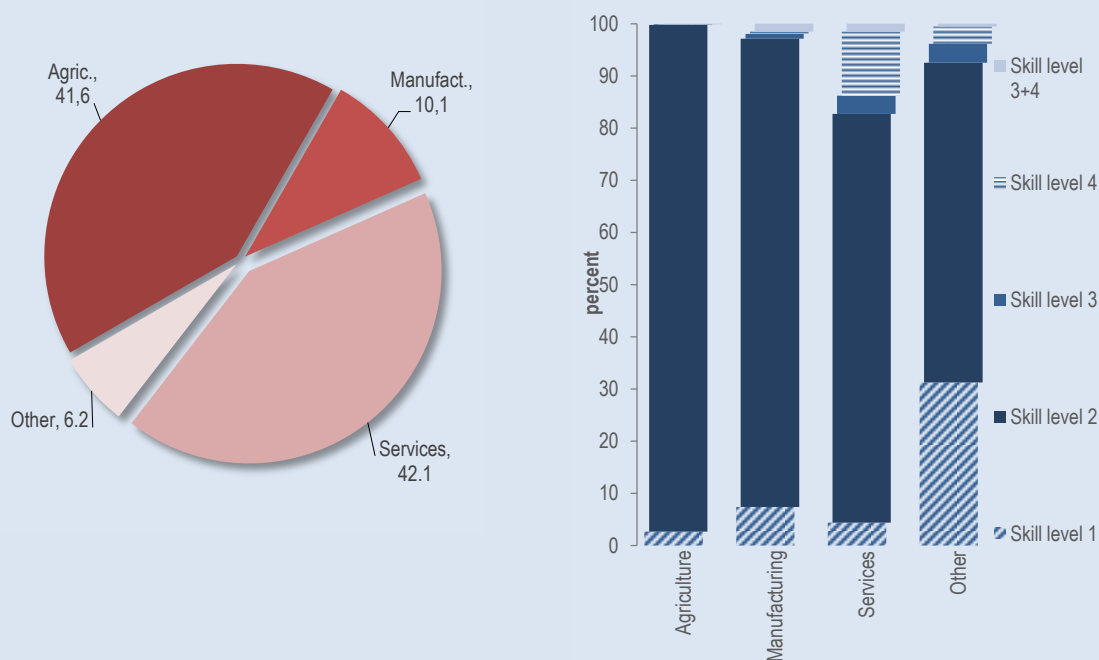
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

<sup>42</sup> ILO, Informal economy information page (<http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-promotion/informal-economy/lang-en/index.htm>).

**Panel 4. Where youth jobs are concentrated in the economy**

Sector of employment also provides insight into the nature of work performed by youth and to the question of decent work. Youth jobs are divided across services, agriculture, and manufacturing in Ghana. Agriculture and services (the latter includes commerce, transport and domestic work) each account for about 42% of employed youth, while about 10% are in manufacturing and the remainder are spread across mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water, construction (Figure A). A small share of services sector jobs (about 17%) require higher-level skills (ISCO skills categories 3 and 4). The remainder of service sector jobs, as well as almost all jobs performed by youth in agriculture and manufacturing, are low-skill in nature (ISCO skills categories 1 and 2) (Figure B).

Figure A. Percentage distribution of employed youth by sector of employment Figure B. Skill level classification of youth jobs by employment sector (% distribution)



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

### 7.4 Human capital and youth employment outcomes

88. The most obvious connection between child labour and poor youth labour market outcomes is through compromised education. In Chapter 6 of the Report, evidence was presented indicating that child labour is associated with compromised education. This section, in turn, looks at the role of education in youth labour market outcomes.<sup>43</sup>

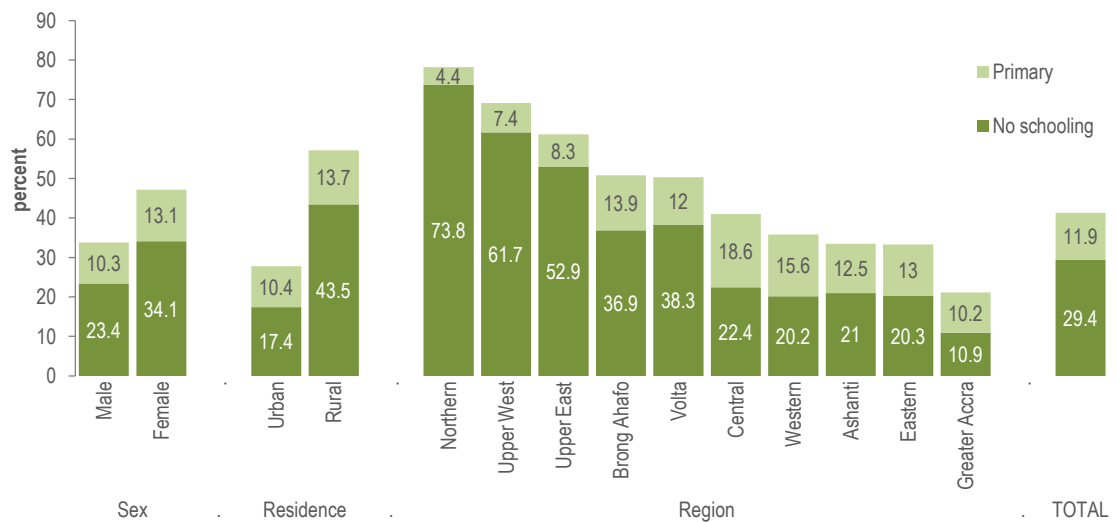
89. Levels of human capital remain low for many Ghanaian young people, compromising their future prospects. Forty-one percent of young persons

<sup>43</sup> A lack of longitudinal data and/or of retrospective questions on involvement in work as children prevents exploring the link between youth employment outcomes and child labour involvement directly.

not in school have either no education (29%) or only primary education (12%). Low human capital is especially pronounced in rural areas, where 57% have primary or less education, and among female youth, among whom almost half (47%) have limited or no education (Figure 41). A number of regions also lag behind national averages in this regard – the share of youth with primary or less education is greatest in the Northern (78%), Upper West (69%) and Upper East (61%) regions.

Figure 41. Educational levels remain low for many Ghanaian young persons

Educational attainment, non-student population aged 15-34 years



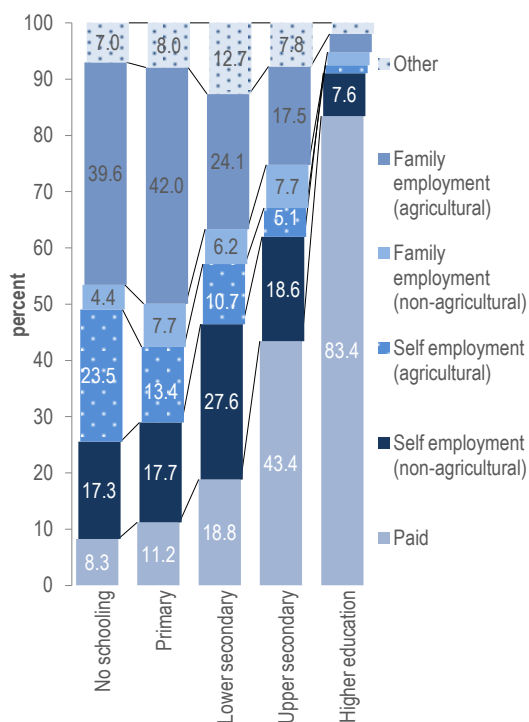
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

90. Level of education is clearly linked with job quality. Figure 42 reports the composition of youth employment by level of education. It shows that the likelihood of wage work and of work in the services sector both rise consistently with more education, while work in informal arrangements and in agriculture move in the opposite direction. Involvement in wage employment rises from eight percent among those with least education to 83% among those with most education. Similarly, work in the services sector goes from 26% for the least educated to 87% for those with higher education. As discussed in the next section, educated youth are not surprisingly also likely to be found in jobs requiring higher skills, although a large share of even educated youth must settle for low-skill jobs.

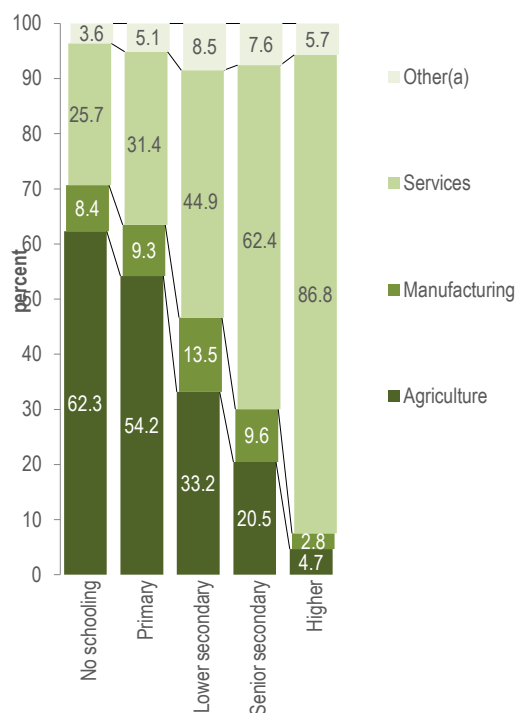


Figure 42. Better-educated youth are much more likely to enjoy wage and tertiary sector employment

(a) Percentage distribution of employed youth not currently in education by education level and status in employment



(b) Percentage distribution of employed youth not currently in education by education level and sector of employment



Note: (a) The category "Other" includes construction, mining and quarrying, electricity, gas and water supply and extraterritorial organizations and bodies.

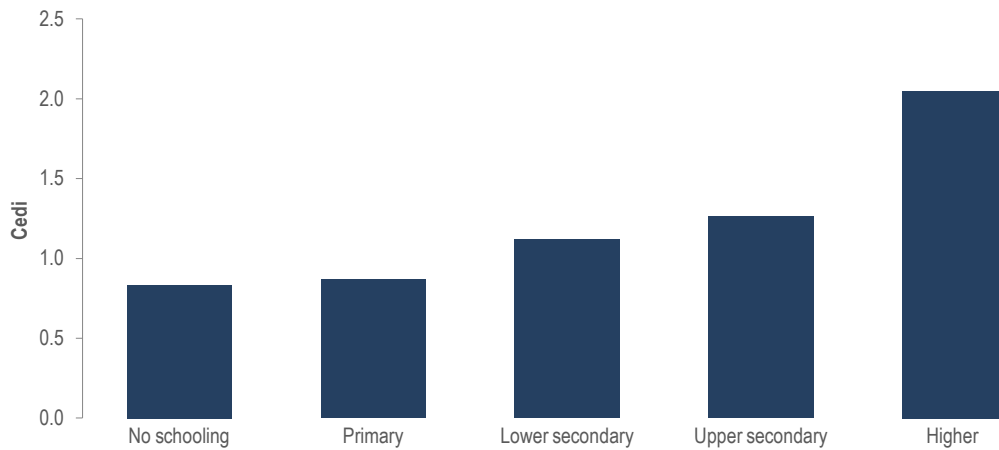
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

91. Higher education is associated with a very large earnings premium. Figure 43, which reports average labour income of young employees by education level, shows that successive levels of educational attainment are associated with higher earnings for male and female youth alike. The premium associated with higher education is especially large – those with higher education can expect to be paid more than twice that of youth with secondary education and five times that of youth with no education. Econometric evidence confirms the importance of higher education as a determinant of earnings (Annex Table A6).<sup>44</sup>

<sup>44</sup> A wage equation was estimated in order to assess the importance of education and other individual and household characteristics on earnings of employees. Estimation results, Annex Table A6, indicate that the earnings premium associated with primary and secondary education are positive and significant and that the premium associated with higher education is even greater.

**Figure 43. More education is associated with higher levels of earnings**

Average daily wage (Ghanaian Cedi)<sup>(a)</sup> of paid workers not currently in education, by education level



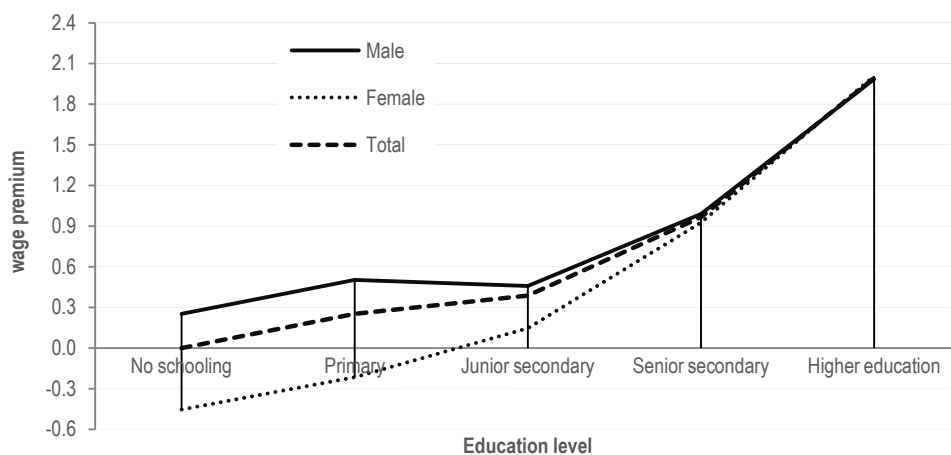
Notes: (a) Average wage is calculated for all paid youth workers with non-zero wage.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

92. The wage premiums associated with education enjoyed by male youth are much higher than those enjoyed by female youth, another indicator of the relative disadvantage that female youth face in the labour market (Figure 44). However, the differences in wage premium by sex tend to decline as the level of education increases and disappear for youth equipped with tertiary education.

**Figure 44. Wage premiums associated with education enjoyed by male youth are higher than those enjoyed by female youth**

Wage premium by sex, youth 15-34, with respect to total without schooling



Note: Calculations of earning differentials estimated on the basis of the analysis of the determinants of earnings.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

93. In summary, the balance of evidence points to substantial returns to education in the labour market. The jobs that educated young persons secure are likely to be of better quality and better paid. The positive links between education and employment outcomes has important

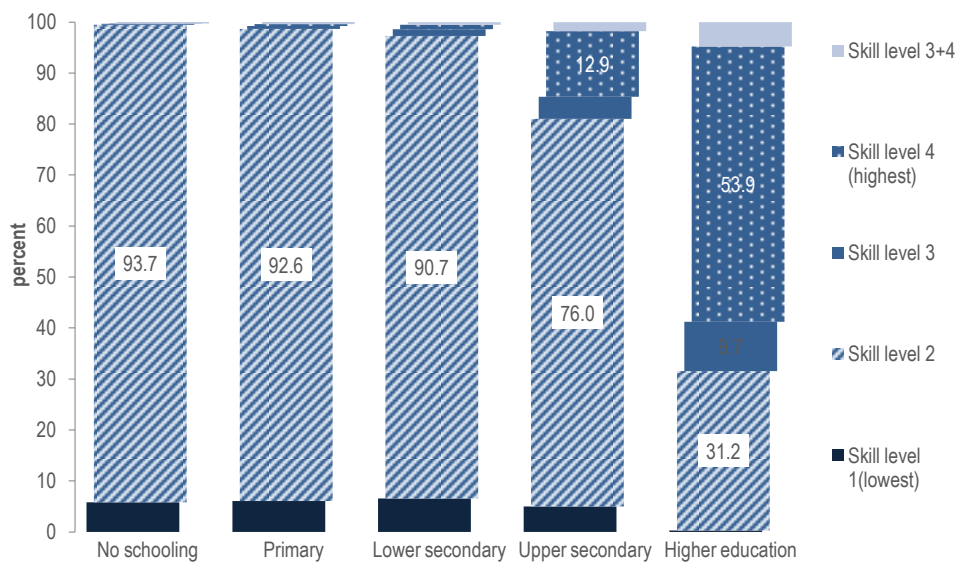
implications in terms of trade-offs between child labour and education earlier in the lifecycle. Theory and evidence suggests that positive returns to education can have an important feedback effect on parents' decisions to invest in children's education.<sup>45</sup> In situations where there are opportunities for better paid jobs for educated young persons, parents have greater incentive to invest in their children's schooling, and to not send their children to work prematurely.

## 7.5 Skills mismatches

94. Skills mismatch is defined as the difference between workers' skills (proxied by the level of education attainment) and the job/tasks actually performed. This decomposition of youth jobs by skills intensity, reported in Figure 45, shows that young people with up to and including secondary education are concentrated overwhelmingly in low-skill jobs. The picture changes somewhat for most-educated youth, but even in this group almost one-third (31%) are in jobs in the two lowest skill classifications.

**Figure 45. A substantial of even well-educated youth must settle for low-skill jobs**

*Skill level classification of youth jobs (% distribution of employed youth)*



*Notes: Definitions of each of the four ISCO skill levels are provided in Figure 39*

*Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service*

95. Under-education in particular appears to be a concern among young workers. Figure 46 looks at the issue of skills mismatches in more detail. It indicates that half of young workers are under-educated, i.e., have

<sup>45</sup> See, for example, the discussion on this point in: UCW programme, *Joining Forces Against Child Labour. Inter-agency report for The Hague 2010 Global Child Labour Conference*, Rome, May 2010.

qualifications less than those required by their job. Only about three percent, on the other hand, are over-qualified for their jobs.

**Figure 46. Skills mismatches between job requirement and qualification among young workers in the Ghana appear substantial**

*Incidence of over-(1) and under-qualification(2) and total skills mismatch among youth, by sex*



*Notes: Age range 15-34, ; (1) Over-education is defined as the share of total workers whose qualifications exceed those required by their job; (2) Under-education is defined as the share of total workers whose qualifications are less than those required by their jobs. Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012 (GLSS 6, 2012)*

## NATIONAL RESPONSES TO CHILD LABOUR AND YOUTH EMPLOYMENT CONCERNS

### 8.1 Responses to child labour

#### 8.1.1 *National legal framework for child labour*

96. The Government of Ghana has made a number of important commitments in the area of child labour. Among the international legal instruments relating to children and child labour that the country has signed or ratified are the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) and its two optional protocols,<sup>46</sup> ILO Convention No. 138 on Minimum Age (1973), ILO Convention No. 182 on Worst Forms of Child Labour (1999) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990). Others are the ILO Forced Labour Convention (No. 29), the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (No. 105), the United Nations Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice and the ILO Convention on Labour Inspection (No. 81). These international legal standards have been domesticated through Ghana's national Constitution and more than 40 national laws.<sup>47</sup>

97. At the apex of Ghana's legal framework for realizing the rights of children is the **1992 Constitution**. It provides the foundation and guidance for developing and amending all other laws of the state for the protection of children. Article 15 of the constitution speaks to the inviolability of the dignity of all persons. Other relevant articles include article 16, which prohibits slavery or servitude and forced labour; article 17 on non-discrimination; and articles 25 and 28 on children's rights. The latter provides a framework for the enactment of laws on child care (including education, health and physical welfare), protection of children from engaging in work that is detrimental to their health, education and development as well as protection of the family as a unit of society. Article 38 spells out educational objectives towards the progressive realization of accessible, equitable and appropriate quality education system in Ghana.

98. **The Children's Act (Act 560, 1998)** has been described as "the main thrust of legislative reform concerning children" since the 1992

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<sup>46</sup> Optional Protocol on sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography and involvement of children in armed conflict

<sup>47</sup> Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations, 2014, ECOWAS Peer Review of Child Labour Elimination Activities in Ghana.

Constitution came into existence.<sup>48</sup> It is “An Act to reform and consolidate the law relating to children, to provide for the rights of the child, maintenance and adoption, regulate child labour and apprenticeship, for ancillary matters concerning children generally and to provide for related matters”.<sup>49</sup> Section 5 of the Act proscribes the engagement of children in labour that is exploitative. It defines exploitative work as work that deprives the child of its health, education or development. Furthermore, the Act defines hazardous work as work that poses danger to the health, safety or morals of a person. Examples cited include going to sea, mining and quarrying, portage of heavy loads and work in manufacturing industries where chemicals are used. The rest are workplaces where machines are used and work in bars and other entertainment centres which potentially exposes children to immoral behavior. Light work on the other hand is defined as any work that is not harmful to the health or development of a child and that does not interfere with school attendance or a child’s ability to benefit from school work. In line with ILO conventions, the Children’s Act defines the minimum age for admission into employment as 15 years, 13 years for light work and 18 years for hazardous work.

99. **Human Trafficking Act (Act 694, 2005)** prohibits the trafficking of all persons including children. Section 18 (4) of the Act indicates that the best interest of the child shall be taken into consideration in a bid to rescue, re-habilitate and reintegrate a trafficked child. Other statutes that form part of the legal framework for addressing child labour and youth employment in Ghana include the **Labour Act (Act 651, 2003)**, which prohibits forced labour and hazardous work, **Labour Regulations (L.I. 1833, 2007)**, which regulates employment of young persons and prohibits trafficking, the **Children’s Rights Regulations (L.I. 1705, 2002)**, which devotes a section to child labour, the **Juvenile Justice Act (2003)**, which provides a framework for addressing children involved in breaches with the law, and the **Education Act (Act 778, 2008)**.

100. While significant progress has been made in developing a comprehensive legal framework, this framework is not yet complete. Stakeholders in this context, for example, cite the need for greater clarity concerning hazardous work and for greater attention to legal standards governing work performed by adolescents aged 15-17 year-olds (see also discussion in Section 9.1.5).

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<sup>48</sup> Ministry of Justice (2012), Protecting the Rights of Children in Ghana: The Legal Framework and Ancillary Matters

<sup>49</sup> The Children’s Act, 1998 (Act 560)

### 8.1.2 National policies and programmes relating to child labour

101. The fourth republican era, heralded by the coming into force of the country's 1992 Constitution, saw a return to democratic rule, the development of democratic institutions and the consolidation popular participation. Besides the Vision 2020, a perspective plan launched in 1996, Ghana's development policy landscape during the period has been shaped by the Poverty Reduction Strategy series including the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I (2003-2005), Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II (2006-2009), Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (2010-2013), Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies (2014-2020) and its offshoot – the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda II (2014 -17). These frameworks espoused human development as a central theme. The latest of them are described below.

102. **The Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies (CPESDP, 2014-2020)** presents medium to long-term term national policy objectives and priorities in four key areas: investing in people, building a strong and resilient economy, expanding infrastructure services and promoting transparent, accountable and responsive governance. The **Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA II, 2014-2017)** represents an “operational framework” for the CPESPD and thus a medium-term development policy framework for the country.<sup>50</sup> Key focus areas and issues captured include strengthening social development and social protection mechanisms, promoting effective child development and protection and addressing high levels of youth unemployment and under-employment.

#### *Panel 5. Actors involved in the fight against child labour*

The government of Ghana has been spearheading its child labour efforts mainly through sectoral Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs) and the National Steering Committee on Child Labour (NSCCL). The key MDAs, who are also members of the NSCCL include the Ministry of Employment and Labour relations (including the Labour Department, which hosts the Child Labour Unit); Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection; Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Food and Agriculture. Others are the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Lands and Mines, Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (including Ghana Statistical Service), NDPC, among others. The about 40 member NSCCL further hosts civil society organizations; workers' and employers' organizations; and development partners including ILO and UNICEF, who have an observer status. The committee is primarily responsible for coordinating and monitoring child labour interventions in the country. At the sub-national level, the Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies play a vital role either through established child protection committees or through key departments such as Social Welfare/Development and Education. This is complemented by the work of non-governmental organizations and other civil society groupings. Civil society coalitions and organizations such as the Ghana NGO

<sup>50</sup> It is crafted around 7 thematic areas: ensuring and sustaining macroeconomic stability, enhancing the competitiveness of the private sector, accelerated agricultural modernization and sustainable natural resource management, oil and gas development, infrastructure and human settlements development, human development, productivity and decent work, and transparency, responsiveness and accountable governance. (Source: Republic of Ghana, 2014, The Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA) II, 2014-2017, Volume I: Policy Framework).

Coalition on Child Rights, Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition, International Cocoa Initiative, World

Cocoa Foundation, Child Rights International, Mondelez International, Afri Kids, Challenging Heights, Amarjaro/Source Trust and the media play diverse roles ranging from sensitization to providing direct services such as provision of school supplies to children, distribution of teaching and learning materials, provision of social infrastructure and the implementation of community livelihood programmes. Key development partners involved in the fight against child labor in Ghana include United States Department of Labour, ILO, UNICEF, WFP, Canadian Government, Department for International Development, World Bank, among others.

The National Plan of Action on Child Labour defines the roles of lead and collaborating state and non-state institutions involved in the fight against child labour.

103. The country's first attempt to develop a comprehensive national plan on children was in 1992, following the ratification of the UNCRC and the country's participation in the World Summit for Children in 1990.<sup>51</sup> Since then, several policies and plans have been developed to deal with the special needs of children and youth.<sup>52</sup>

104. The **National Plan of Action against Child Labour (NPA, 2009-2015)** represents the country's first coordinated framework for the prevention and elimination of child labour and its worst forms. Endorsed by Cabinet in 2009, the overall goal of the NPA is to "reduce the worst forms of child labour to the barest minimum by 2015, while laying strong social, policy and institutional foundation for the elimination and prevention of all forms of child labour in the longer term".<sup>53</sup> Among the priorities addressed by the NPA are the enforcement of laws; broad-based awareness raising and mobilization; establishment of standard procedures and protocols for dealing with child abuse and exploitation; and the development of institutional capacities for effective application of standards and procedures. Each of the critical issues are further explored under an objective, a presentation of actions required, the lead and collaborating agencies responsible for action as well as the timelines for implementation envisaged. As the final year of implementation draws to close, a review of the current plan and the development of a new one are currently underway.

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<sup>51</sup> The 10-year plan was to project a "long-term perspective" for the development of children, especially those 15 years or younger, identified as the most vulnerable. (Source: Republic of Ghana, 1992, *The Child Cannot Wait – A National Plan of Action on the Follow-up to the World Summit for Children.*)

<sup>52</sup> These include the National Gender and Children Policy (2004), Education Strategic Plan (2003-2015, 2010-2020), Early Childhood Development Policy (2004), National Street Children Policy Framework (2006), National Plan of Action for the Elimination of Child Labour (2009-2015), National Plan of Action on Orphans and Vulnerable Children (2010-2015), National Domestic Violence Policy and Action Plan, National Child Protection Policy (2013) and the National Child and Family Welfare Policy (2014). Others are the National Population Policy (1994), National Youth Policy (2010), National Youth Policy Implementation Plan (2014-2017) and the National Employment Policy (2015). There also national policies covering health, disability, HIV/AIDs and population, which impact on child labour.

<sup>53</sup> Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare, 2009, *The National Plan of Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Ghana*



**Panel 6. The Cocoa Communities Project (CCP)**

Titled “Towards child labour free cocoa growing communities in Côte d’Ivoire and Ghana through an integrated area based approach”, the CCP project exemplifies the merits of sustained collaboration involving the governments of both countries, the International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour of ILO, Workers’ Unions, Employers’ Unions, CSO partners, the media and local citizens, including children. The four-year project commenced in December 2010 with financial support from the United States Department of Labor (USDOL) under the *Declaration of Joint Action to Support Implementation of the Harkin-Engel Protocol*, which provides a Framework of Action for accelerating efforts towards the reduction of the worst forms of child labour in the production of cocoa in Ghana and Cote D’Ivoire. The five re-enforcing objectives of the project included creating awareness and implementing community action plans, improving access to quality education, enhancing sustainable livelihoods within cocoa-growing communities, deploying an appropriate child labour monitoring system (GLCMS in Ghana and SOSTECI in RCI) and improving the technical and institutional capacity of partner organizations.

The implementation of the CCP project represents a successful testing of new and improved methods of addressing child labour and a contribution to the NPA of Côte d’Ivoire and Ghana, using an Integrated Area-Based Approach. Its design benefited from ILO’s past experiences with child labour elimination efforts in various contexts. An evaluation of the project revealed improved technical capacity of ILO constituents and partner organizations to address child labour and its worst forms, increased level of efficiency in meeting and in some cases exceeding project targets (over 5,400 children in or at risk of child labour provided with educational and vocational services and more than 2,200 households reached with livelihood services), improvement in school infrastructure, adequate integration of gender issues, among others. Some of the key recommendations for sustaining achievements included the need to scale-up the project interventions, in addition to reinforcing community involvement towards strengthening and sustaining a community-based approach to addressing child labour.

105. The development of a **Hazardous Activity Framework (HAF)** for Ghana<sup>54</sup> represented an important step in meeting the ILO Convention 182 requirement of clarifying the sectors and type of work that constitutes hazardous activity for children.<sup>55</sup> Its development was also in direct response to a gap identified in the NPA on the need to “... develop a framework that will clearly provide for the identification of hazardous tasks or activities within each of the identified sectors.”<sup>56</sup> It provides a list of 34 activities or circumstances considered to be hazardous and 17 priority hazardous occupations.<sup>57</sup> These serve as the building blocks of the framework and thus helped to determine forms of work that are permissible for children versus those that are not. In addition, a sector specific HAF exists for the cocoa industry. This was published in 2008 as part of the roll out of the **National Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour in Cocoa (NPECLC)**. The cocoa HAF was also developed in response to international concerns on the involvement of children in cocoa

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<sup>54</sup> Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare, 2014, Hazardous Child Labour Activity Framework for Ghana (Started with ILO/IPEC, ICI and Ministry initiative to develop a hazardous activity list in 2006, which culminated in a full HAF in 2012. Further reviewed to arrive at the 2014 version).

<sup>55</sup> Article 4 of ILO Convention 182.

<sup>56</sup> NPA, 2009-2015.

<sup>57</sup> The development of the list was guided by ILO Recommendation 190.

agriculture in Ghana and how that was potentially aggravating the child labour situation (see Panel 6).

106. The discussion around a Child Labour Monitoring (CLM) system began in the 1990s in fulfilment of national development aspirations and obligations under international laws. Since then, child labour monitoring has evolved through upgrading and scaling-up and a national conference in 2010 was organized to review, harmonize and standardize the design, operations and management of the Child Labour Monitoring System. The output of this conference was the **Ghana Child Labour Monitoring System (GCLMS)**, launched in 2012. The GCLMS involves direct observations, repeated regularly, to identify child labourers and to determine risks to which children are exposed, to refer child labourers to services, to verify that they have been removed and to track them to ensure that they have satisfactory and sustainable alternatives.<sup>58</sup>

107. A set of **Standard Operating Procedures (SOP)** was developed to provide to stakeholders, information, standard procedures and guidelines for identifying, rescuing, rehabilitating, family tracing, re-integrating and providing support to children involved in the worst forms of child labour.<sup>59</sup> It relies on international and national laws as well as the HAF in defining permissible and non-permissible activities. It further provides a host of supplementary information including available public and private shelters for children throughout the country. The SOP is a key response to the NPA's objective of harmonizing standards and procedures for addressing the worst forms of child labour. The **National Children and Family Welfare Policy**<sup>60</sup> and the **Orphans and Vulnerable Children's Policy (and accompanying National Action Plan)**<sup>61</sup> also deal with the protection of vulnerable children.

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<sup>58</sup> Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare (MESW) (2010), Ghana Child Labour Monitoring System (GCLMS), September 2010

<sup>59</sup> Republic of Ghana, 2012, Standard Operating Procedures and Guidelines for Addressing the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Ghana.

<sup>60</sup> The main goal of the policy is to create a more culturally-sensitive framework for developing child and family welfare programmes and activities that effectively prevent and protect children from all forms of violence, abuse, neglect and exploitation. The seven specific objectives outlined to achieve the goal include ensuring effective coordination of a child and family welfare system at all levels; empowering children and families to better understand abusive situations and therefore make choices to prevent and respond to situations of risk; building capacity of institutions and service providers to ensure quality of services for children and families in urban and rural areas; and reforming existing laws and policies to conform to the child and family welfare system. The policy looks at both the formal (i.e. regulated by laws, policies and delivery of services by state agencies) and informal (delivered by community and traditional systems) child and family welfare system.

<sup>61</sup> In 2005, the Government of Ghana developed the National Policy Guidelines on Orphans and other Children made Vulnerable by HIV/AIDS, which later culminated in the development of a three-year National Action Plan on Orphans and Vulnerable Children (2010-2012). The plan seeks to protect children from vulnerable conditions and reduce their risk of being abused. The plan identifies three strategies – preventative, protective and transformative - in addressing vulnerability among children. The preventative strategy aims at supporting vulnerable children with social protection, health and early childhood development interventions as a means of keeping them with their families in their respective communities. The protective strategy aims at providing remediation for children who are separated, exploited or at risk in a bid to re-uniting them with

### 8.1.3 Education policies and programmes

108. Ghana has undertaken numerous education reforms of direct relevance to improving the relevance of schooling as an alternative to child labour.<sup>62</sup> Among the key policies and plans shaping Ghana's educational system since the 1992 Constitution are the **Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme**,<sup>63</sup> the **Capitation Grants Policy**,<sup>64</sup> **Early Child Hood Care Development Policy** and the **Education Strategic Plans (2003-2015, 2010-2020)**.

**Panel 7. Structure of Ghana's educational system**

Ghana's education system can be described as having a 2-6-3-3-4 structure: 2 years of Kindergarten, 6 years of primary, 3 years of Junior High School, 3 years of Senior High School and 3 to 4 years of tertiary education. The period spanning Kindergarten to Junior High School constitutes basic education.

Years (Duration)	Age		Cycle of Education	Level of Education/Training (detail)	
			Tertiary	<b>Tertiary</b> (University/Polytechnic/Professional Institute/Colleges of Education)	
3 2 1	17-18 16-17 15-16	Pilot roll out of free SHS begins 2014/2015 academic year	Second cycle of education	<b>Senior High School</b> (Specialization in Grammar/ Technical/ Agricultural/ Vocational/ Apprenticeship Programmes)	Apprenticeship/Skills Training
3 2 1	14-15 13-14 12-13	Government commits to 11 years of compulsory education for all from 4 to 15 years	First cycle of education	<b>Junior High School</b> (General curriculum for entry into Grammar, Technical, Vocational, Agricultural courses)	
6 5 4 3 2 1	11-12 10-11 9-10 8-9 7-8 6-7			<b>Primary</b> (Basic Literacy, Numeracy, Science and Social Studies)	
2 1	5-6 4-5			<b>Kindergarten</b>	

Source: Based on MoE, 2007 in Schwegler-Rohmeis et al. 2014 and MoEYS, 2004 in Poku et al, 2013

109. Article 38(2) of Ghana's 1992 Constitution states that, "The government shall, within two years after Parliament first meets after the

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their families or providing special care. The transformative strategy aims at enhancing the capacity of state and non-state actors to provide effective protection for orphans and vulnerable children. A revised NPA OVC outcome matrix exists for 2010-2015.

<sup>62</sup> Complete reviews of Ghana's educational system through to the fourth republican constitutional era include Poku et al 2013 and Acheampong 2008.

<sup>63</sup> Various literature on Ghana's education sector refer to an FCUBE policy however there seem to be no such documented policy. This was also confirmed from the Ghana Education Service, the implementing agency for the policy.

<sup>64</sup> A government subsidy provided per child to public basic schools for children enrolled. Amount currently stands at GH¢4.50 (approximately \$1.2 at UN exchange rate for October).

coming into force of this Constitution, draw up a programme for implementation within the following ten years, for the provision of free, compulsory and universal basic education.” In line with this provision, the government launched the **Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme (FCUBE)** programme with the aim to increase access and participation, improve teaching and learning and improve management and efficiency in the educational sector. Financial and non-financial barriers were to be removed in order to facilitate the effective participation and retention of children in basic schools.

110. The main goal of the **Early Childhood Care Development Policy (ECCD)** is to promote the survival, growth and development of all children from birth up to the age of eight years in Ghana.<sup>65</sup> The policy is to serve as a guide and also assign responsibility to stakeholders towards establishing an effective coordination and monitoring framework for early childhood development in the country. It identifies policy objectives related to observance and enforcement of the Children’s Act and all other laws against child abuse and socio-cultural practices that are inimical to the wellbeing of children. Other objectives relate to the provision of pre-school education in partnership with public and private stakeholders, improving earning capacity of parents, strengthening the database on children, among several others. According to the 2015 national budget statement, a review of the policy is underway towards targeting children aged from zero to three years.

111. The **Education Strategic Plan (ESP, 2010-2020)**<sup>66</sup> is the latest strategic framework for the development of the education sector in Ghana. A review of the previous ESP (2003-2015)<sup>67</sup> indicated that ensuring quality outcomes on performance, pupil-teacher ratios and skills development remained major challenges. The current Plan builds on broader reform efforts<sup>68</sup> to address these challenges in the education sector. Focus areas identified by the 2010-2020 Plan include basic education, secondary education and non-formal education. A series of strategic goals are included in the Plan relating to each.<sup>69</sup>

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<sup>65</sup> Republic of Ghana, 2004: Early Childhood Care Development Policy. Policy targets providing access and quality ECCD programmes to 100% of children in Ghana by the year 2015.

<sup>66</sup> An Annual Educational Strategic Operational Plan (AESOP) is developed out of the ESP.

<sup>67</sup> ESP 2003-2015 was developed around four main themes/goals: education access; quality of education; education management; and science, technology and technical, vocational education and training. A review exercise in 2008 revealed that while significant improvements were achieved in the education sector, including improvements in access and equity, this did not correspond with quality outcomes on performance, pupil-teacher ratios and skills development.

<sup>68</sup> As reflected, inter alia, in the National Education Reform Programme, the 2008 Education Act, national and sub-sectoral policies such as the Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy II, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) policy and Teacher Education Policy.

<sup>69</sup> Strategic goals include (a) Provide equitable access to good-quality child-friendly, universal, basic education, by improving opportunities for all children in the first cycle of education at kindergarten, primary and junior high school levels; (b) Increase equitable access to high quality second cycle education that prepares young

112. The Education Strategic Plan recognizes **complementary education** as one of the key initiatives that ought to be sustained towards ensuring that every out-of-school child is returned to the classroom. Under its Complementary Basic Education (CBE) Policy, the Ministry of Education commits to expanding access to CBE throughout the country towards ensuring that every out-of-school child aged 8-14 years is put back into formal school.<sup>70</sup> Under the latest ESP (2010-2020), CBE is identified under non-formal education, the third focus area.

113. **Comprehensive education programmes** in Ghana have been implemented since 1995, largely led at the time of their inception, by non-state actors such as School for Life and Ibis Ghana.<sup>71</sup> In 2013, the government launched a Comprehensive Basic Education Programme under a public-private partnership and with the support of the Department for International Development (DFID). The aim is to reach at least 120,000 out-of-school children in Ghana's most deprived communities. The programme has so far enrolled about 24,117 children under the first cycle (2013/2014), with plans to enroll another 55,000 children by the end of the second cycle (2014/2015).

#### 8.1.4 *Social protection policies and programmes*

114. Ghana's social protection programmes cover a wide range of options including cash transfers (e.g. Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty<sup>72</sup>, Ghana-Luxembourg Social Trust<sup>73</sup>); in-kind transfers (e.g. Free School Uniforms<sup>74</sup> and the School Feeding Programme<sup>75</sup>); subsidies and fee

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adults for the various options available within tertiary education and the workplace; (c) Provide opportunities for those outside the formal education system to have free access to meaningful high-quality user-friendly education and training, whether through inclusive or complementary provision, approved or informal apprenticeships, distance education or technical and vocational skills development (TVSD); (d) Provide education for excluded children (including those who are physically and/or mentally impaired or disabled, slow/fast learners, orphans, young mothers, street children, those from deprived areas, slum children, poverty victims) by including them, wherever possible, within the mainstream formal system or, only when considered necessary, within special units or schools; (e) Increase equitable access to high quality tertiary education that provides relevant courses to young adults within Colleges of Education, Polytechnics and Universities, and for research and intellectual stimulus; and (f) To improve planning and management in the delivery of education by devolving resource management and decision-making to regions, districts and institutions, while retaining central responsibility for establishing norms, guidelines and system accountability.

<sup>70</sup> Ministry of Education, 2013, Comprehensive Basic Education Policy Framework

<sup>71</sup> Comprehensive Basic Education Programme, accessed 17-06-2015, <http://www.ges.gov.gh/cbe/sites/all/cbe-brochure/CBE-Brochure.pdf>: Under a typical CBE programme, out-of-school children (aged 8-14yrs) are recruited into afternoon classes in a mother tongue for a period of about 9months. They are then assessed and mainstreamed into the formal education system.

<sup>72</sup> LEAP covers about 1.6% of children under 15 years (ILO, 2015)

<sup>73</sup> A conditional cash transfer project started in 2009 by the ILO for pregnant and nursing mothers in low income groups. It collects evidence on the impact of such transfers on accessing a set of reproductive and child health-related services.

<sup>74</sup> Government programme to supply free school uniforms for children in deprived public schools and communities

<sup>75</sup> A programme launched in 2005 by the government to provide one hot meal to children in public schools.

waivers (e.g. energy and agricultural subsidies, capitation grants and the National Health Insurance Scheme); youth employment programmes<sup>76</sup> and labour-intensive public works<sup>77</sup>; contributory pensions and other social services (free maternal services and free transportation for school children and aged).

115. The underlying framework for delivering social protection interventions is the **National Social Protection Strategy**, developed in 2007, and revised in 2012. It served as a national blue-print for establishing minimum guarantees for income security and the provision of basic social services for the most vulnerable sections of the Ghanaian populace. As a follow up to a rationalization study on social protection, Cabinet issued a memorandum for the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection in June 2014 to put in place mechanisms to ensure effective and efficient delivery of social protection interventions. Recently, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection has been developing a National Social Protection Policy, aimed at creating a well-coordinated, inter-sectoral social protection system to ensure effective implementation and coordination, and enable people to live in dignity through income support, livelihoods empowerment and improved systems of basic services.<sup>78</sup>

116. The **Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme (LEAP)** was launched in 2008 as one of Ghana's flagship social protection programmes. It is a cash transfer<sup>79</sup> programme targeted at empowering the bottom 20% of the extremely poor, disadvantaged and vulnerable populations to "leap" them out of poverty.<sup>80</sup> Its specific objectives include improving access (including attendance and retention) to basic education for children aged five to 15 years.<sup>81</sup> Households with children less than 15 years fall under conditional cash transfer recipients and

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<sup>76</sup> Programme launched in 2006 by government to provide youth employment and skills training to young people in various sectors of the economy including ICT, education, health and sanitation, transport and agriculture

<sup>77</sup> The key component of World Bank-Government of Ghana funded Ghana Social Opportunities Project aimed at providing short-term employment for very poor and usually unskilled persons in rural communities during the off-agriculture season. Areas of employment include rehabilitation and construction works on rural infrastructure, afforestation, among others.

<sup>78</sup> Government of Ghana, Gender Ministry validates draft Social Protection Policy: <http://www.ghana.gov.gh/index.php/media-center/news/2060-gender-ministry-validates-draft-social-protection-policy>

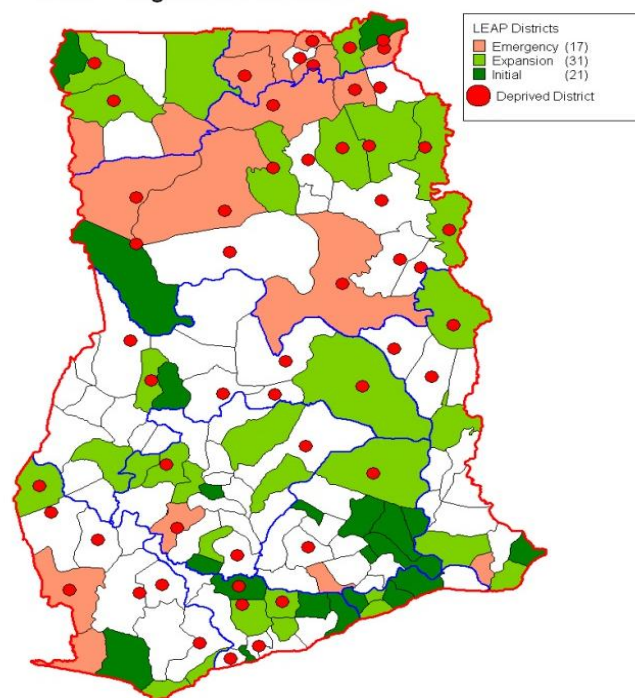
<sup>79</sup> The amount ranges from 24GHC (US \$12.50) per beneficiary per month to a maximum of 45GHC (US\$24.60) for four or more beneficiaries per month. Payments are made once every two months. The July 2<sup>nd</sup> 2015 edition of the Daily Graphic (page 13) indicates that there are plans to further increase the amount to GHC44.00 per beneficiary per month

<sup>80</sup> Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare, 2012, LEAP Operations Manual

<sup>81</sup> Other objectives include basic consumption and nutrition for children less than two years, the aged (more than 65 years) and persons with severe disability; increasing access to health services for children less than five years, the aged and persons with severe disability; and facilitating access to complementary services among beneficiary households.

hence sign co-responsibilities ensuring that children attend school<sup>82</sup> and pre-school children aged less than five years undergo vaccinations and growth monitoring. As at mid-2015, the programme had reached more than 90,000 households in over 100 political districts throughout the country. A recent impact evaluation of the programme shows that, while LEAP has had no impact on current enrolment, likely because primary school enrolment is nearly universal in Ghana, it had an important impact on other dimensions of schooling, reducing the likelihood of missing any day of school (8 percentage points) and reducing the chance of repeating a grade (11 percentage points). The evaluation also shows a reduction in average number of days children spend working for pay.<sup>83</sup>

Figure 47. LEAP Programme districts



Source: FAO, 2013

## 8.2 Responses to youth employment challenges

117. Youths are among three special groups<sup>84</sup> identified in the Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies

<sup>82</sup> With no more than 20% absenteeism rate.

<sup>83</sup> The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (2013), Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Program Impact Evaluation, October 2013

<sup>84</sup> The others are women and persons with disability

(CPESDP, 2014-2020)<sup>85</sup> and the creation of decent work for youth is one of four priority programmes articulated by the CPESDP. The CPESDP recognizes the role and creative potential of youth key to fostering shared growth, tackling social alienation and nurturing political stability. In addition to the CPESDP, the policy framework for delivering decent work for young people in Ghana is articulated in key policy documents such as the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (2014-2017), the Ghana Decent Work Country Programme II (2013-2016), The National Youth Policy and Implementation Plan and the recently launched National Employment Policy (2015).

118. Ghana's **National Employment Policy** was launched by the President at an International Jobs Summit in April 2015, jointly hosted by the government and the International Labour Organization. The NEP<sup>86</sup> embodies a multi-sectoral strategy with a goal to "create gainful and decent employment opportunities for the growing labour force to improve their living conditions and contribute to economic growth and national development within the framework of equity, fairness, security and dignity"<sup>87</sup>. The four key objectives outlined include: creating more decent jobs to meet the demand for employment; improving the quality of jobs for those employed; increasing labor productivity; and enhancing governance and labour administration. It identifies youth unemployment and child labour as key issues to be addressed and suggests a National Employment Coordinated Council as the coordinating institutional framework for implementing the policy. It is to be chaired by the Vice-President. An implementation plan is to guide the roll out of the policy.

119. **National Youth Policy (NYP) and Implementation Plan (2014-2017)** articulates a vision of empowering youth to contribute positively to national development.<sup>88</sup> This is to be achieved through six key policy objectives in eighteen policy focus areas. The policy focus areas include education and skills training, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), youth employment (including modern agriculture), entrepreneurial development and sports and recreation. Youths are defined as those within the 15 to 35 age bracket. The Implementation Plan fits the focus areas into four broad thematic areas (clusters): human development and technology; economic empowerment; youth participation, governance and leadership; and culture, sports and national orientation. An

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<sup>85</sup> The Coordinated Programme of Economic and Social Development Policies (CPESDP, 2014-2020) presents medium to long-term term national policy objectives and priorities in four key areas: investing in people, building a strong and resilient economy, expanding infrastructure services and promoting transparent, accountable and responsive governance.

<sup>86</sup> The policy cites at least 24 laws and regulations (including the Labour Act, 2003) and 15 multi-sectoral policies, plans and programmes from which it derives its principles

<sup>87</sup> Government of Ghana, 2015, National Employment Policy

<sup>88</sup> Ministry of Youth and Sports, 2010, National Youth Policy



implementation matrix then expands each thematic area into outcomes, outputs and actions envisaged<sup>89</sup>. There is a matching M&E plan and budget towards ensuring that the objectives are achieved.

120. **Ghana Decent Work Country Programme (GDWCP II, 2013-2016)**<sup>90</sup> prioritizes inter-sectoral approaches to promote increased employment and decent work opportunities and improving social protection, especially for women and informal sector workers. Efforts at job creation aim at improving the employability of the labour force as a whole but also focusing on key groups such as youth and women. Strategies to improve social protection include the elimination of the worst forms of child labour, addressing risks and vulnerability to HIV/AIDs at the workplace, promoting occupational safety and health and providing minimum guarantees per the social protection floor concept through effectively coordinating, delivering and expanding on existing social protection interventions. For each priority area, the GDWCP II provides outcomes, strategies, actions, indicators and targets for achievement.

### 8.2.1 Youth skills development

The **Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (COTVET)** was created in 2006 by an Act of Parliament, Act 718, to provide nationwide oversight and coordination of technical and vocational education and training at all levels in the country. The Council’s mission is to create a TVET system that produces a globally competitive workforce for national development.

Panel 8. **Functions of the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (COTVET)**



<sup>89</sup> One of the key outcomes which this report contributes to is the provision of relevant labour market information, including statistics on youth unemployment.

<sup>90</sup> The GDWCP represents a broad framework for collaboration between the Government of Ghana and the ILO, with support from social partners.

121. As part of efforts towards building an efficient and effective technical and vocational education and training (TVET) system in the country, several projects have been rolled out; notable among them are the Ghana Skills Development and Entrepreneurship Project, Development of Skills for Industry Project, Ghana Skills Development Initiative and the Skills Development Fund.

122. **Development of Skills for Industry Project (DSIP)** is a five year (2012-2017) \$125 million partnership between the Government of Ghana and the African Development Bank with the development objective of nurturing a high quality middle-level technical and vocational skills expertise in the country. Some specific objectives include expanding equitable access of females and the rural poor to public TVET institutions, improving relevance and quality of TVET delivery and improving the coordination and management of TVET. One of the components of the DSIP is the “Student Entrepreneurship Business Model”, which aims to assist students to begin and sustain start-ups as a way of developing their skills and competences. There is also a National Bursary Scheme under the project for needy but skillful students and apprentices. The third component of DSIP provides support to public TVET partner institutions to set up or strengthen production units for education, training and innovation.

123. **Ghana Skills Development Initiative (GSDI)** is a Government of Ghana and Germany (GIZ) collaboration aimed at improving the informal apprenticeship system in the country. It is being implemented in pilot regions in the Northern, Volta and Greater Accra Regions. The project aims to introduce quality standards in apprenticeship training at the workplaces concerned. In addition, apprentices have opportunity to complement their training with structured courses at selected training institutions leading to the award of a certificate.

124. **Skills Development Fund**<sup>91</sup> was set up by COTVET in partnership with the Ministry of Environment, Science, Technology and Innovation towards providing a regular and sustainable resource base for rolling out a national TVET system. Starting as a pilot with support from the World Bank and DANIDA, it is envisaged that the project will serve as a model for providing financial support to skills development and technological innovation in the country. It is demand-driven and competitive, with entry through submission of proposals. The fund targets different firm sizes (micro, small, medium and large), labour unions, trade association, educational and training institutions, among others. At the current phase,

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<sup>91</sup> Being managed as a component of a five year (2011-2016) Ghana Skills and Technology Development Project with a \$50 million IDA/World Bank facility and a grant of \$10 million from DANIDA.

the SDF focuses on five sectors: construction and housing, livestock, horticulture, tourism and hospitality, and ICT. Since 2011, about 510 beneficiaries have been reached with GH¢87 million<sup>92</sup>. The fund continues to provide support/grants to institutions although it is not clear how many were supported in 2014 and how many were planned to be reached in 2015.<sup>93</sup>

125. The **Youth Employment Agency (YEA)** was launched by the government in 2006<sup>94</sup> to tackle the challenges of youth unemployment, underemployment and food insecurity in the country by providing skills and job opportunities to the youth. This was on the back of a paper presented to cabinet in March 2005 by the National Security Coordinator on the security implications of the high incidence of unemployment in Ghana.<sup>95</sup> The 10-module programme targeting 18-35 year olds was expanded to 14-modules when a new government assumed power in 2009.<sup>96</sup> In 2012, the NYEP was restructured into a Ghana Youth Employment and Entrepreneurial Development Agency (GYEEDA). GYEEDA was further restructured into the YEA under an Act of Parliament, Act 887.<sup>97</sup> The restructured agency is aiming to provide employment for about 100,000 youth.<sup>98</sup>

126. The **National Apprenticeship Programme (NAP)**<sup>99</sup> is a government initiative for providing a year's apprenticeship training to Junior High School graduates who are unable to continue to the secondary level. It aims at equipping beneficiaries with skills that could facilitate their self-employment. Additionally, the programme is geared towards providing a link between informal apprenticeships and formal TVET institutions. The National Apprentice Programme is being managed by COTVET. It hopes to tackle youth unemployment and livelihood deficits among early school leavers. The programme began in 2011 with 5000 apprentices selected

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<sup>92</sup> Official Website of Skills Development Fund: <http://www.sdfghana.org/new/aboutus.php> (Accessed on 9th September 2015)

<sup>93</sup> Republic of Ghana, 2014, The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana for the 2015 Financial year

<sup>94</sup> Originally under the name National Youth Employment Programme.

<sup>95</sup> Gyampo R, 2012, Youth Participation in Youth Programmes: The Case of the National Youth Employment Programme, *Journal of Pan African Studies*, Vol.5, No.5, 2012

<sup>96</sup> First ten were Youth in Agribusiness; Youth in Trades and Vocations; Youth in ICT; Community Protection System; Waste and Sanitation Management Corps; Rural Education Teaching Assistants; Auxiliary Health Care Workers Assistants; Paid Internships and Industrial Attachments; Vacation Jobs; and Volunteer Services. Four additional modules introduced include Youth in Eco Brigade; Youths in Afforestation; Youths in Road Repairs and Maintenance; and Youths in Film Industry

<sup>97</sup> Korboe, D., 2014, Youth Development Interventions in Ghana: Policy and Practice

<sup>98</sup> "Restructured GYEEDA to provide employment for 100,000 youths" <http://graphic.com.gh/news/general-news/37488-restructured-gyeeda-to-employ100-000-youth.html>

<sup>99</sup> A Smiling Youth Initiative, somewhat an upgrade to the NAP and aiming at 15-17 year olds was proposed to government (Mensah, 2014). It provides up to two years of training/apprenticeship and an additional year of post-training employment before placement. It also offers opportunities for trainees to start their own business.

from 75 districts nationwide. This has been completed. The second phase started in 2012 with a target of 8,000 beneficiaries to receive training in ICT, carpentry, block work, auto mechanics, electronics, among others. In 2014, 2,000 apprentices were enrolled and matched with master crafts persons.

127. The National Youth Authority runs about 11 **Youth Leadership and Skills Training Institutes (YLSTI)** spread across all the regions of Ghana.<sup>100</sup> About 75 persons aged between 15 and 24 are enrolled in each institute each year. They are provided with a two-year skills training programme leading to an award of a Certificate or Diploma in areas such as agriculture, carpentry and joinery, dress making, electrical works and information and communication technologies, among others. Beneficiaries are also taught subjects like Mathematics and English, in addition to specialized courses on book keeping and leadership. Other public training institutes such as the National Vocational Training Institute, Opportunities Industrialization Centre-Ghana, Don Bosco Technical Institute and GRATIS Foundation provide similar training with target beneficiaries in a similar age bracket (14 years old and above).

128. Apart from the YLSTIs, the Ghana Education Service runs about 45 **Technical and Vocational Institutes (TVIs)**; other ministries oversee about 75 others while private institutes total about 65. Total enrolment in the 120 public TVIs stands at almost 40,000 while the private institutes have over 3,600 entrants.<sup>101</sup> Generally, enrolment in the private sector institutions has been on the decline in recent years. The share of females in total enrolment in private sector institutions exceeds 50%, but female enrolment in public TVIs is low; females account for only about one in five students in public TVIs. Initiatives such as the Role Model Programme and “Female in Electronics” are being rolled out by COTVET to address this challenge.

129. **Integrated Community Centre for Employable Skills (ICCES)**<sup>102</sup> is a skills development and entrepreneurial training agency under the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations. It was set up by government as a response to the challenges of youth unemployment, rural-urban migration and the growth of micro and small-scale enterprises. It has over 60 training centres throughout the country that targets categories of youths between the ages of 15 and 25 years who have or are unable to complete basic or secondary education,

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<sup>100</sup> They include Sandema in the Upper East, Issa in the Upper West, Takrowase, Eastern Region; Ajumako Afranse, Central Region; Wassa Akropong, Western Region; Asankare, Ashanti Region; Afiennyaa, Greater Accra and Avenorpeme in the Volta Region.

<sup>101</sup> Ministry of Education, 2015, Education Sector Performance Report 2015

<sup>102</sup> Initially established in 1986 under the Non-Formal Education Division of the Ministry of Education and later moved to Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare in 1994 by a cabinet decision.

unemployed adults and other vulnerable youths. The training, depending on the type, spans from three months to four years. Some graduates also have the opportunity of pursuing further technical education with polytechnics. Although ICCES has the largest number of training centres for any single agency not much is known about its work; additionally, it does not seem to command the attention and political interest compared to other TVET initiatives.<sup>103</sup> According to the 2014 National Budget and Economic Policy Statement, ICCES, NVTI and OIC accounted for a total of 21,802 trained artisans while 3,640 trainees were placed into internship programmes to acquire on-the-job skills.

### 8.2.2 *Youth entrepreneurship,*

130. **The Youth Enterprise Support (YES) Programme** is a multi-sectoral Presidential Initiative involving other agencies such as the National Youth Authority, National Board for Small Scale Industries (NBSSI), Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Trade and Industry and Ministry of Youth and Sports aimed at promoting youth enterprise. A GH¢10 million Youth Entrepreneurship Fund has been launched to bolster the programme. It targets 18 to 35 year olds with the aim to honing their entrepreneurial skills, providing mentorship and supporting them to develop their own start-ups or grow their existing business. Out of 107 participants that were selected and provided with training, 42 beneficiaries had received a total of GH¢1.2 million by the end of September 2015.<sup>104</sup>

131. **The Venture Capital Trust Fund (VCTF)** was established by the government in 2004 through an Act of Parliament, Act 680. The object of the Act is to provide financial resources for the development and promotion of venture capital financing for Small and Medium Enterprises in priority sectors of the Ghanaian economy.<sup>105</sup> The fund's mission is to make available low cost financial support to Small and Medium scale Enterprises (SMEs) towards aiding their growth, creation of jobs and wealth. Financial support to SMEs is usually done through Venture Capital Financing Companies (VCFCs), who invest equity for a period not exceeding 10 years. The VCFCs adopt an equity financing model which leverages other available technical capacities within towards growing the investee companies. While the Act establishing the VCTF makes provision for a 25% allocation from the National Reconstruction Levy, the repeal of the latter in 2006 meant that the fund has had to depend on direct allocations from the national budget. Since its inception, the VCTF has

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<sup>103</sup> Darvas P. and Palmer R., 2014, Demand and Supply of Skills in Ghana: How Can Training Programmes Improve Employment and Productivity? World Bank studies. Washington,DC

<sup>104</sup> Daily Graphic, October 1<sup>st</sup> 2015 edition, "Forty-two beneficiaries receive GH¢1.2 million"

<sup>105</sup> Article 2(1) of Venture Capital Trust Fund Act, 2004, Act 680

mobilized in excess of GH¢100 million. It has created 5 VCFCs and over 46 investee companies.<sup>106</sup>

**132. Local Enterprise and Skills Development Programme (LESDEP)** was launched in 2011 under the auspices of the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development as a public-private partnership programme aimed at endowing unemployed youths with entrepreneurial and other specialized skills that then puts them in a position to create and manage their own business. The programme further supports these businesses with start-up equipment and post-start up support services. A revolving fund has been set up as a means for delivering equipment to beneficiaries in the form of loans. The Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development exercises oversight over the programme with support from the Ministry of Employment and Labour Relations, ICCES, OIC, NBSSI, among others. In 2011 and 2012, the programme received about \$8 million and \$54 million respectively for implementation.<sup>107</sup> However by 2013, the budget had reduced to about a third of the previous year's amount thus reducing the intake to about 15,000. Despite the fact that the programme is still running, the 2014 and 2015 versions of the National Budget Statement and Economic Policy Statement were silent on its operations. There are concerns regarding the management of the revolving fund as many beneficiaries have failed to pay back the support they received. Funds are thus being withheld pending a review of the programme, which was supposed to be completed in June 2015.

**133. National Board for Small Scale Industries (NBSSI)** is a public institution under the Ministry of Trade and Industry set up by an Act of the Parliament, Act 434 of 1981<sup>108</sup>. It exists to facilitate the growth and development of micro and small enterprises. It provides business development services through the 170 Business Advisory Centres it has set up throughout the country. In 2014, a total of 21 797 entrepreneurs (more than half were female) were trained to enhance their competitiveness while 256 SMEs were supported to formalize their business with the Registrar General's Department and the Ghana Standards Authority.<sup>109</sup>

**134. The Graduate Entrepreneurial and Business Support Scheme (GEBSS)** scheme was launched in 2011 with the vision of becoming the most effective means of addressing graduate unemployment in Ghana.<sup>110</sup> It is a

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<sup>106</sup> Annual Report of VCTF, 2012

<sup>107</sup> Ibid

<sup>108</sup> Official website of the National Board for Small Scale Industries, <http://www.nbssi.org/> (Accessed 22<sup>nd</sup> September 2015)

<sup>109</sup> Republic of Ghana, 2014, The Budget Statement and Economic Policy of the Government of Ghana for the 2015 Financial year

<sup>110</sup> Official website of GEBSS, [http://www.gebssghana.org/cat\\_select.php?linkID=2](http://www.gebssghana.org/cat_select.php?linkID=2), accessed 14<sup>th</sup> September 2015

public-private partnership between the then Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare and Graduate Business Support Scheme Limited with support from Management Development and Productivity Institute, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development and the Ministry of Youth and Sports. The scheme aims at developing young people with business-focused skills that enables them to begin and grow their own start-ups. The four-tier process begins with an initial 10,000 unemployed graduates, who are taken through a five-day business training on identifying opportunities and setting up start-ups. The number is then reduced to 2000, and later 500 for more focused training, including a three-month industrial attachment which also serves as an incubation period for the latter. A final 100 is then selected to receive additional training, a month-long international attachment and an additional three months of incubation support. A financial support package is then provided for their start-ups. The 2015 national budget targets 4,000 unemployed graduates.

**135. Rural Enterprises Programme (REP)** is a micro and small scale enterprise development collaboration involving the government of Ghana, International Fund for Agricultural Development and African Development Bank. The programme seeks to increase the number of rural micro and small scale enterprises (MSM) that generate growth, profit and employment opportunities.<sup>111</sup> It is a scale up of two phases of a Rural Enterprises Project implemented in 66 districts from 1995 to 2011. The current programme, REP III, is expected to run from 2012 to 2017 in at least 161 (i.e. including the 66 old districts) rural municipal and district assemblies in all regions across the country. The programme emphasizes on inclusive growth, youth employment and women empowerment and plans to create about 100,000 new jobs.<sup>112</sup> According to the 2015 national budget, REP III will complete the establishment of 95 new Business Advisory Centres in 95 rural districts, where NBSSI will provide the required technical backstopping. Furthermore, about 30,000 rural poor would receive training in community-based income generating activities, small business management and marketing. All-year-round business counseling services would also be provided to 16,500 operators of rural, micro and small enterprises. A joint collaboration involving REP, NBSSI and GRATIS Foundation would see 1,619 rural people trained to identify self-employment opportunities.

**136. Microfinance and Small Loans Centre (MASLOC)** is an initiative of government that seeks to build partnership among the youth towards mobilizing resources for the development of business enterprises and the

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<sup>111</sup> Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2012, Ghana Rural Enterprise Programme II, Executive Summary of Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA)

<sup>112</sup> African Development Fund, 2012, Appraisal Report: Rural Enterprises Programme III, Ghana

creation of jobs. It was set up in 2006 with a vision of supporting local entrepreneurs to grow and develop small and micro business startups through the delivery of microfinance, loans and other business services. According to the 2014 national budget statement, MASLOC imported and distributed 1,000 outboard motors and 6,450 bundles of fishing nets to fishing communities in the country as part of its collaboration with the Ministry of Fisheries and Aquaculture. The distribution of the outboard motors was expected to generate 13,000 direct jobs and 20,000 indirect jobs. Other MASLOC interventions include a Vehicle Hire Purchase Scheme for taxi drivers, Poultry Finance Scheme for poultry farmers, and other input supply schemes for hairdressers, food crop farmers, among others.

137. The **Savannah Agriculture Development Authority (SADA)** is a government effort to tackle underdevelopment, poverty and vulnerability in deprived regions of the country as revealed by national statistics. SADA was set up through Act 805, 2010 to focus on the Northern Savannah Economic Zone, which has consistently fared worst in rankings of various socio-economic indicators. SADA has been involved in several business development and job creation interventions. According to the 2014 national budget statement, SADA distributed about 2,075 tractors to poor farmers during the 2013 farming season. It also provided agricultural inputs to about 20,000 households. About 5,000 youths were engaged in SADA's tree planning programme.

138. **Youth in Agriculture Project (YIAP)** is a Ministry of Food and Agriculture entrepreneurial development initiative started as a pilot in 1999 and then extended nationwide in 2009. The period marked a significant decline in the share of employment in agriculture, falling by about 20 percentage points between 1992 and 2010 (Schwegler-Rohmeis et al., 2014). The objectives of the project include helping youths identify and accept farming as a viable commercial business venture, improving their incomes and therefore their livelihood as well as providing motivation for youth to stay in rural areas for agriculture. The project ensures that relevant inputs are supplied to beneficiaries at their farm gate. The components of the project include block farming, livestock and poultry, fisheries and aquaculture and agribusiness. Depending on the component, beneficiaries are weaned off support after one to three years. The project has had about 300,000 beneficiaries since its inception.

139. **Technoserve** was founded in Ghana more than four decades ago. It is a private not-for-profit organization with the aim of reducing poverty through developing competitive farms, businesses and industries. The organization is currently running a four and a half-year business enterprise project with a \$4.1 million financial support from the



Department for International Development (DFID)<sup>113</sup>. Rolled out in the form of a business plan competition, the project is aimed at developing about a 1000 startups over the period. Other significant private sector-led youth employment and skills training initiatives includes University of Ghana's Creative Enterprise Training Programme, the Junior Achievers' Trust International Training Programme and the training and mentoring programme run by the Meltwater Entrepreneurial School of Technology (MEST) and the MEST incubator.

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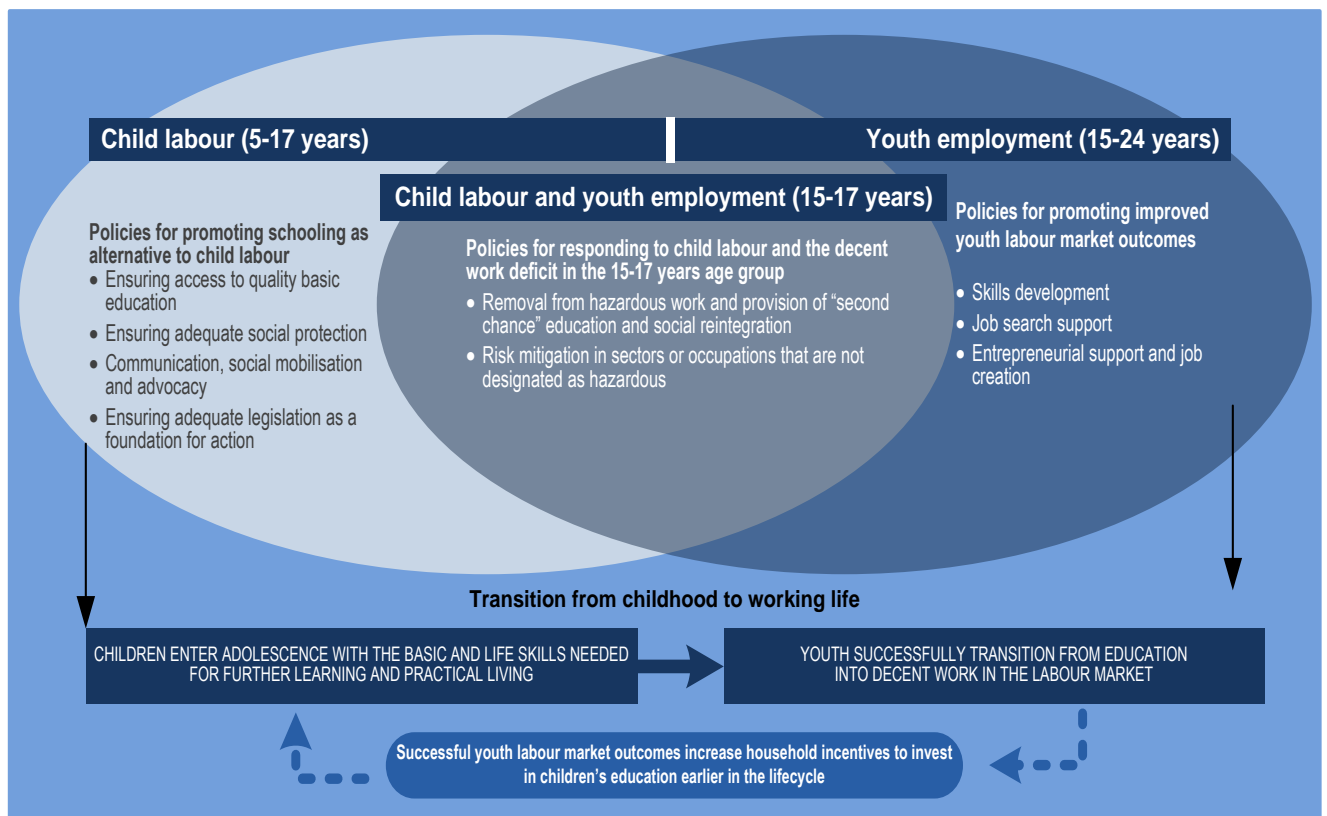
<sup>113</sup> "Technoserve supports Ghana's micro and small enterprises"  
<http://www.myjoyonline.com/business/2014/April-7th/technoserve-supports-ghanas-micro-and-small-enterprises.php>

Chapter 9.

## ADDRESSING CHILD LABOUR AND THE YOUTH DECENT WORK DEFICIT: POLICY PRIORITIES

140. This chapter discusses policy recommendations for addressing child labour and the youth decent work deficit drawing on the evidence presented above. Child labour and youth employment are closely linked, underscoring the importance of addressing the two issues hand in hand, following a lifecycle approach. The figure below illustrates key components of an integrated response. A set of child-centred policies are needed to promote schooling as an alternative to child labour, and, following from this, to ensure that children enter adolescence with the basic and life skills needed for further learning and practical living. This foundation is in turn crucial to the success of active labour market policies for promoting improved youth employment outcomes, and to ensuring that youth successfully transition from education into decent work in the labour market. This causal chain can also work in the opposite direction: successful youth labour market outcomes can increase household incentives to invest in children’s education earlier in the lifecycle.

Figure A1. An integrated response to child labour and youth employment problems



## 9.1 Addressing child labour: children aged 5-14 years

141. Child labour in Ghana continues to affect almost 1.9 million children aged 5-17 years, or 22% of all children in this age group. These stark figures underscore the distance that the country must still travel to achieve child labour elimination, and highlights the need for accelerated action to reach this goal in the nearest possible future. Child labour is a complex phenomenon requiring a policy response that is integrated and cross-sectoral in nature. Evidence from Ghana and elsewhere point to a set policy pillars that are particularly relevant in this regard – basic education, social protection, public awareness, social mobilisation and advocacy – building on the foundation provided by comprehensive child labour legislation and a solid evidence base.

### 9.1.1 Education access and quality

142. There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school-aged children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so. School attendance needs to be made an attractive prospect for children and parents both by addressing the costs of school attendance and by ensuring that schooling is inclusive and relevant. Providing schooling as an alternative to child labour is important not only for the individual children concerned, but also for society as a whole, as children who grow up compromised educationally by child labour are in a poor position to contribute to the country's growth as adults. Moreover, a non-negligible share of ghanian children (22 percent) combine school and employment, pointing to the need for specific policies targeting this group.

143. The empirical results presented in this report indicate that Ghanaian working children are less likely to be attending school, and that the attendance gap increases as children grow older. In all, about eight percent of children in the compulsory schooling age range of 6-14 years, 485,000 children in absolute terms, are out of school. These results underscore the need to address the school access and quality issues influencing decisions to enrol and stay in school, within the framework provided by the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme, the Capitation Grants Policy and the Education Strategic Plans (2003-2015, 2010-2020).

144. **Ensuring access to early childhood education (ECD).** Evidence from a range of developing countries suggests that early childhood development programmes can promote learning readiness, increase school enrolment and school survival, and help children keep away from work in their early years. The Government is committed to extending ECD opportunities and

has enacted a number of measures towards this goal. Ghana has seen important progress in terms of raising pre-school attendance, driven in important part by the extension of free and compulsory education to include a two-year pre-primary cycle, by the requirement that all primary schools have a kindergarten attached and by the introduction of capitation grants. But despite the increase in the number of KGs, access remains difficult in some locations, particularly in rural or remote areas, where young children may have to travel long distances to attend school. ECD services and opportunities for younger, 0-3 year-old, children also remain very limited. The extent to which KGs meet *quality standards* is not known, but KG observation visits undertaken as part of a UNICEF evaluation revealed quality problems related to overcrowding, poor infrastructure and an insufficient number of teachers with training in early education.<sup>114</sup> The national Early Childhood Care Development Policy provides the broad framework for national efforts in addressing these challenges.

**145. Promoting education access and quality.** Continued efforts are needed to remove access and quality barriers to schooling for all children. Increasing school access is a particular challenge at the upper end of the compulsory school age spectrum. Ten percent of all children are out of school at the age of 14 years, rising thereafter. Foremost among the factors for being out of school are distance and cost, together cited by over one-third of out of school children, and a lack of interest, cited by a further 15% of out-of-school children.<sup>115</sup> School quality also remains an important challenge. Overcrowding, inadequate water and sanitation facilities, poorly-trained teachers and limited textbook supplies are among the among the issues affecting the quality of the education received by Ghanaian students.<sup>116</sup> These quality challenges are reflected in students' results: only 16% of grade six students are proficient in mathematics and only 35% proficient in English, according to the 2011 National Education Assessment. Measures addressing school access and quality feature prominently in the Education Strategic Plan (2010-2020) but now need to be operationalised across the education system. The country's success in reaching the education Millennium Development Goals provides a valuable template for efforts in this regard moving forward.

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<sup>114</sup> Evaluation report, 2011 Ghana: *Evaluation of UNICEF's Early Childhood Development Programme with Focus on Government of Netherlands Funding (2008-2010) - Ghana Country Case Study Report* ([http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/index\\_60106.html](http://www.unicef.org/evaldatabase/index_60106.html)).

<sup>115</sup> UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012 (GLSS 6, 2012)

<sup>116</sup> UNICEF Ghana, *Reaching out to those missing out on school* ([http://www.unicef.org/ghana/education\\_7528.html](http://www.unicef.org/ghana/education_7528.html)).

### 9.1.2 Social protection

146. The importance of social protection in reducing child labour is well-established. Social protection instruments serve to prevent vulnerable households from having to resort to child labour as a buffer against poverty and negative shocks. There is no single recipe for expanding social protection programmes to reduce household vulnerability and child labour. Unconditional and conditional cash transfer programmes, including various forms of child support grants, family allowances, needs based social assistance and social pensions, are all relevant to ensuring household livelihoods, supplementing the incomes of the poor and reducing household dependence on child labour. Public works schemes can serve both the primary goal of providing a source of employment to household breadwinners and the secondary goal of helping to rehabilitate public infrastructure and expand basic services, both being potentially relevant in terms of reducing reliance on child labour. Micro-loan schemes can help ease household budget constraints and mitigate social risk.

147. The Government has prioritized social protection expansion and in 2012 issued a revised the National Social Protection Strategy to guide efforts in this regard. Foremost among social protection programmes targeting vulnerable households is the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty Programme (LEAP). LEAP provides direct cash transfers to poor families on condition that their children continue to attend school and that the family makes use of preventive health care and nutrition services. The programme aims at empowering the bottom 20% of the extremely poor, disadvantaged and vulnerable populations to “leap” them out of poverty.<sup>117</sup> Other noteworthy efforts include other cash transfers (e.g. Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty<sup>118</sup>, Ghana-Luxembourg Social Trust<sup>119</sup>); in-kind transfers (e.g. Free School Uniforms<sup>120</sup> and the School Feeding Programme<sup>121</sup>); subsidies and fee waivers (e.g. energy and agricultural subsidies, capitation grants and the National Health Insurance Scheme); youth employment programmes<sup>122</sup> and labour-intensive public

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<sup>117</sup> Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare, 2012, LEAP Operations Manual

<sup>118</sup> LEAP covers about 1.6% of children under 15 years (ILO, 2015)

<sup>119</sup> A conditional cash transfer project started in 2009 by the ILO for pregnant and nursing mothers in low income groups. It collects evidence on the impact of such transfers on accessing a set of reproductive and child health-related services.

<sup>120</sup> Government programme to supply free school uniforms for children in deprived public schools and communities

<sup>121</sup> A programme launched in 2005 by the government to provide one hot meal to children in public schools.

<sup>122</sup> Programme launched in 2006 by government to provide youth employment and skills training to young people in various sectors of the economy including ICT, education, health and sanitation, transport and agriculture

works.<sup>123</sup> These and other efforts, taken together, provide key protection for vulnerable families but do not yet constitute a complete basic social protection floor. Further investment is needed evaluating their impact, and, on this basis, extending the most effective approaches to reach all vulnerable households.<sup>124</sup>

### 9.1.3 *Strategic communication*

148. Strategic communication is needed as part of efforts to build a broad consensus for change. Child labour is a clear example in which both social norms and economic considerations are important, and strategic communication efforts need to be designed with this in mind. Households require information concerning the costs or dangers of child labour and benefits of schooling in order to make informed decisions on their children's time allocation. But factors which influence decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour can extend well beyond economics or work conditions. Cultural attitudes and perceptions can also direct household decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour, and therefore should also be targeted in strategic communication efforts.

149. Communication efforts are needed at both national and local levels. A mix of conventional (e.g., radio, television and print media) as well as of non-conventional communication channels (e.g., religious leaders, school teachers, health care workers) is important in order to achieving maximum outreach. Social media represents another increasingly important communication tool in the context of both national awareness raising and global campaigns against child labour abuses. Baseline information on local knowledge and cultural attitudes towards child labour is needed to tailor communication messages, and to evaluate changes in awareness and attitudes following communication activities. Providing information on national child labour legislation, presented in terms that are understandable to the populations and communities concerned, is another communication priority. For girls in particular, there is also a need to educate families on what are acceptable domestic chores

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<sup>123</sup> The key component of World Bank-Government of Ghana funded Ghana Social Opportunities Project aimed at providing short-term employment for very poor and usually unskilled persons in rural communities during the off-agriculture season. Areas of employment include rehabilitation and construction works on rural infrastructure, afforestation, among others

<sup>124</sup> The ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation (No. 202) of 2012 provides a key framework for efforts in this regard. The Recommendation sets out that SPFs should contain basic social security guarantees that ensure that all in need can afford and have access to essential health care and have income security at least at a nationally defined minimum level over the life cycle. See ILO, 2011. Resolution and conclusions concerning the recurrent discussion on social protection (social security), International Labour Conference, 100th Session, Geneva, 2011, in Record of Proceedings (Geneva, 2011), No. 24: Report of the Committee for the Recurrent Discussion on Social Protection.2011b, paras. 4 and 5. Available at: [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed\\_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_152819.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_152819.pdf).

for children and what are not. While doing light chores around the house can be important for the socialization of children, research shows that children are working very long hours in the home and have little time for rest, study or leisure.

#### 9.1.4 *Social mobilisation and advocacy*

150. Achieving sustainable reduction in child labour requires social consensus well beyond the level of the household. Policy responses to child labour are also unlikely to be effective in the absence of the active participation of civil society and of social partners in implementing them. Similarly, laws to protect children from child labour are unlikely to be effective if they are not backed by broad social consensus. Social mobilisation is therefore critical to engaging a broad range of social actors in efforts against child labour. Various social actors, including, for example, NGOs, faith-based organisations, teachers' organizations, the mass media, trade unions, employers' organizations, have important roles to play in a broader societal effort against child labour. The National Steering Committee on Child Labour (NSCCL), whose membership now includes some 40 members, including various Government Ministries, Departments and Agencies (MDAs),<sup>125</sup> civil society organizations,<sup>126</sup> workers' organizations, employers groups and development partners,<sup>127</sup> has a particularly important potential role to play in social mobilization efforts. The The National Plan of Action against Child Labour (NPA, 2009-2015) help define the roles of the various governmental and non-governmental actors involved in the fight against child labour.

#### 9.1.5 *Child labour legislation, inspections and monitoring*

151. Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour requires a supportive policy and legislative environment which is in line with international standards and effectively mainstreamed into national development plans and programmes. This has the important effect of signalling national intent to eliminate child labour and providing a framework in which this can be achieved.

152. While significant progress has been made in developing a comprehensive legal framework (see discussion in Section 8.1.1), this

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<sup>125</sup> The key MDAs include the Ministry of Employment and Labour relations (including the Labour Department, which hosts the Child Labour Unit); Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection; Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Food and Agriculture. Others are the Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development, Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Lands and Mines, and Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (including Ghana Statistical Service).

<sup>126</sup> Civil society coalitions and organizations active in Ghana include the Ghana NGO Coalition on Child Rights, Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition, International Cocoa Initiative, World Cocoa Foundation, Child Rights International, Mondelez International, Afri Kids, Challenging Heights, and the Amarjaro/Source Trust.

<sup>127</sup> ILO and UNICEF have an observer status on the Steering Committee.

framework is not yet complete. For instance, there have been concerns about the lack of a stronger framework for articulating the scope of permissible versus non-permissible work among children across various sectors of the economy. While an existing Hazardous Activity Framework (HAF) attempts to provide this distinction, it does not have a legal backing to facilitate enforcement despite the fact that an action included in this regard in the NPA. The Government is currently working on amending the Children's Act (Act 560, 1998) and there is a view of incorporating the HAF in the revision process. The Education Act is also currently under review in a bid to synthesize and consolidate key provisions regarding education sector. With respect to adolescents, there has been the concern that the Labour Act, 2003 (Act 651) does not adequately address the special needs of 15-17 year-olds who, despite falling under the category of children under the Children Act, 1998 (Act 560), are entitled to work, having attained the minimum age of entry into employment.

153. The effectiveness of legislation in protecting children from child labour also depends on establishing and strengthening mechanisms for monitoring and enforcing laws, including provisions for inspections and for the removal child labourers to safe places. Expanding the Government's actual capacity to monitor formal workplaces remains a major challenge, and unregistered businesses in the the informal economy are largely outside formal inspection regimes. The labour inspectorate needs to be strengthened so that inspectors can effectively enforce labour legislation and workplace safety standards relating to child labour. But given the extent of child labour and resource constraints, it will likely continue to be difficult for the formal inspection system alone to be effective in protecting children from workplace violations. This highlights the importance of establishing effective community-based child labour monitoring systems as a mechanism for identifying children who are involved or at risk of engaging in child labour, referring them to appropriate social services, and tracking them to ensure positive outcomes.

#### 9.1.6 *Improving the evidence base*

154. Effective and well-targeted responses to child labour demand a strong body of knowledge on the issue, including an understanding of how many child labourers there are, which sectors and geographical areas they work in, the demographic characteristics of the children involved, and the type of work that they carry out. Despite recent national household surveys, data quality and comparability are uneven and significant information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Better data is especially needed on programme *impact*, in order to identify good practices from the large number of child labour initiatives undertaken in the country, and, following from this, approaches with most potential for



broader scale implementation. Promoting the use of the Ghana Child Labour Monitoring System (GCLMS) can contribute to an effective and sustainable monitoring of child labour, which in turn is critical for the development of a coordinated response to child labour. More evidence is also needed, *inter alia*, on the worst forms of child labour, recognizing that “the effective elimination of the worst forms of child labour requires immediate and comprehensive action”,<sup>128</sup> and on child migration (in-country and cross-border).

## 9.2 Addressing child labour: adolescents aged 15-17 years

155. Even though young people aged 15-17 years are over the minimum working age they are still considered “child labourers” under ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and national legislation if the work they do is hazardous. As we saw in Chapter 5 of this Report, child labour among 15-17 year-olds is very high in Ghana, affecting almost 24% of all children in this age range, or 412,000 children in absolute terms. Child labourers in the 15-17 years age range account for about one-fifth of total child labourers of all ages in Ghana. At the same time, almost 55% of all 15-17 year-olds in employment are in child labour. Adolescents aged 15-17 years are therefore of common interest to programmes addressing child labour and the decent work deficit faced by youth, but they have not to date been accorded priority attention in either. While the policies articulated above for younger children are also largely relevant for combatting child labour in the 15-17 years age range, there is also a need for additional policy measures tailored specifically to the unique challenges posed by child labour in this age group.

### 9.2.1 *Removing youth from hazardous work in order that they are protected and afforded second chances for acquiring decent work*

156. In instances in which adolescents in the 15-17 years age range are working in sectors or occupations that are designated as hazardous or where there is no scope for improving working conditions, the policy requirement is clear – they must be removed from the hazardous job. In these instances it is imperative that there is an effective inspections and monitoring system for identifying the adolescents concerned and a strategy in place for providing withdrawn adolescents with adequate support services and opportunities for social reintegration. Community-based mechanisms close to where the child labourers are located are particularly relevant in this regard.

157. Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment and work conditions indicates that school enrolment declines sharply as

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<sup>128</sup> Preamble, Convention 182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, International Labour Organization, 1999.

children enter the 15-17 years age range, and many of those leaving the school system end up in hazardous jobs. Options for reaching disadvantaged, out-of-school children with second chance learning opportunities includes mainstreaming (i.e., providing returning children with special remedial support within the regular classroom) and “bridging” education (i.e., separate intensive courses, delivered within or outside the formal school system, designed to raise academic proficiency prior to returning to the regular classroom). Second chance policies need to take place within the context of a broader effort to improve secondary schooling access and quality, in order to make secondary schooling a more viable and attractive alternative to hazardous work.

158. For out-of-school children whose circumstances mean that they are unable to re-enter basic education, experience in a range of countries suggests that targeted packages of active labour market policies can be effective in terms of providing withdrawn adolescents (and other vulnerable youth) with second chances for securing decent work. Many of the elements discussed in the next section of this chapter are relevant in this context, including vocational and technical training, apprenticeships, job search training and support, and entrepreneurial support, with the critical difference being that they are tailored to the special needs of this group of particularly vulnerable youth. Not infrequently, adolescents withdrawn from exploitative situations may also need a range of social services: emergency shelter, medical care, psychosocial counselling, legal support, family tracing and assessment and post-reintegration follow-up.

### 9.2.2 *Mitigating risk in order to ensure that youth are not exposed to hazards in their workplace*

159. Risk mitigation is a strategic option in instances where adolescents are exposed to hazards in sectors or occupations that are *not designated as hazardous in national hazardous work lists* and where there is scope for changing work conditions. Such a strategy involves measures to remove the hazard, to separate the child sufficiently from the hazard so as not to be exposed, or minimise the risk associated with that hazard.

160. The ILO speaks of this as “identifying hazards and reducing risks”. Strategies aimed at improving the working conditions of adolescent workers include various types of protective measures: hours of work can be reduced; work at night, or travel to and from work at night, can be prohibited; workplace policies against harassment can be established and enforced; adolescents can be barred from using dangerous substances, tools or equipment; and adequate rest periods can be provided.

161. Especially important in the context of risk mitigation is training and awareness-raising on occupational safety and health for employers and their young workers, including on adequate and consistent supervision. Another priority is the implementation of adequate monitoring

mechanisms. Trade unions, business associations, chambers of commerce, community organizations, social protection agencies – when properly trained and linked with the labour inspectorate – can monitor minimum age guidelines, the safety of the workplace and its adolescent workers.<sup>129</sup> Risk mitigation should be seen as part of a broader effort to ensure that young persons receive equal treatment and are protected from abuse and exposure to hazards.<sup>130</sup> The enforcement of labour laws and collective agreements should be strengthened, and the participation of young people in employers’ and workers’ organizations and in social dialogue should be enhanced.

### 9.3 Addressing the decent work deficit: young persons aged 15-24 years

162. The results presented in this Report highlight a number of challenges facing Ghanaian young people entering the labour market. Levels of human capital remain low for many Ghanaian young people, compromising their future prospects. Forty-one percent of young persons not in school have either no education (29%) or only primary education (12%). Fourteen percent of all youth are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and therefore at risk of social marginalisation and require specific interventions. Youth employment is dominated by low-skill, unremunerating jobs in the informal economy offering fewer chances for upward mobility. Underemployment, or “hidden unemployment”, affects 38% of employed youth. These results point to the need for active labour market policies<sup>131</sup> aimed at improving youth labour market outcomes, building on the knowledge foundation acquired during childhood through improved basic education and preventing child labour.

#### 9.3.1 Skills development

163. A variety of TVET programmes are in place in the country under the administrative umbrella of the Council for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (COTVET). Notable among them are the Ghana Skills Development and Entrepreneurship Project, Development of Skills

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<sup>129</sup> It is important to note that while we are focusing here on children, neither is hazardous work acceptable for adult workers. The ILO Conventions on occupational safety and health (OSH) and on labour inspection offer protection for all workers. In fact, nearly half of all ILO instruments deal directly or indirectly with OSH issues. It has long been recognized in this context that action against child labour can also be action for decent work for adults. In the case of hazardous work, where economic necessity or deeply ingrained tradition blocks attempts to improve conditions for adult workers, it is sometimes the call to stop child labour that can be the entry point to change. Eliminating hazardous work of children can help improve safety and health of all workers – the ultimate goal.

<sup>130</sup> A recent learning package to support trade unions, employment services, education and training institutions, as well as youth organizations, in their initiatives aimed at raising young people’s awareness of their rights at work, see ILO (2014): *Rights@Work 4 Youth: Decent work for young people: Facilitators’ guide and toolkit* (Geneva).

<sup>131</sup> Active labour market policies are designed to improve labour market outcomes for young people within existing institutional and macro-economic constraints; the broader structural economic reforms needed to reduce youth unemployment in the long run are beyond the scope of this Report.

for Industry Project, Ghana Skills Development Initiative and the Skills Development Fund. These efforts have led to progress in terms of increasing access to training for young persons, but both the quality and coverage of training nonetheless remain limited. The fact that half of young workers are under-qualified for their jobs<sup>132</sup> is evidence of unmet training needs. Ensuring training opportunities extend to vulnerable youth, particularly for the 15-17 age group, with limited levels of formal education remains a particularly important challenge facing the TVET system. This group of vulnerable youth includes those whose education was compromised by involvement in child labour. Access is also especially limited for female youth and for the rural poor.

164. This discussion points to the importance of continued investment in providing “second chance” opportunities to former working children and other categories of vulnerable youth for acquiring the skills and training needed for work and life. Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment indicates that such policies are particularly relevant in Ghana context: many students leave the system prior to the end of the primary education cycle and many of those out of school lack the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. Some 158,000, or 66%, of the total out-of-school children in the 10-14 age range, for instance, suffer what UNESCO terms “education poverty”, i.e., possess less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. What is more, it is likely that the education poverty indicator actually underestimates second chance learning needs as basic literacy skills alone are a less and less adequate “skills floor” for successful entry into the Ghanaian labour market.

165. The Education Strategic Plan (2010-2020) includes as one of its central strategic goals providing “... opportunities for those outside the formal education system to have free access to meaningful high-quality user-friendly education and training, whether through inclusive or complementary provision, approved or informal apprenticeships, distance education or technical and vocational skills development.” There are already a number of second chance learning initiatives active in the country, offering useful models for expanded efforts in this regard moving forward. Effectively coordinating these wide-ranging efforts, and successfully extending them based on needs-based criteria to ensure they reach all unserved groups of vulnerable youth, however, remain key priorities. Integrating informal training and apprenticeships into the formal system is another priority. Currently, the array of informal training

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<sup>132</sup> UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012 (GLSS 6, 2012).

and apprenticeships do not lead to formal certification or qualifications, although National Apprenticeship Programme (NAP) is aimed in part at linking informal apprenticeships with formal TVET institutions. Additional investment is also needed in evaluating the impact of existing efforts and in tracing labour market outcomes of participants, in order to identify the approaches with most potential for expansion.

### 9.3.2 *Job search support*

166. The high levels of skills mismatch among Ghanaian youth (see discussion in Chapter 7) is suggestive of a need for further investment in job search skills and in formal mechanisms linking young job seekers with appropriate job openings. It will again be especially important to ensure that at-risk youth are able to access these employment services programmes. This can be difficult because most at-risk youth live in either marginal urban or rural areas, while most employment services are offered in more central locations. One criticism of employment services programmes elsewhere has been that those who benefit from the programmes are typically more qualified and connected to begin with and therefore more likely to become employed. This points to the importance of targeting job search support to disadvantaged young people most in need.

### 9.3.3 *Public works programmes*

167. The high percentage of youth who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and who are underemployed (see discussion in Chapter 7) points to the need for demand-side measures aimed at improving employment opportunities for young people. Labour-intensive public works programmes targeting young persons represent one important policy option in this context. Such programmes can provide both qualified and unqualified young people with an entry point into the labour market within broader efforts to reduce poverty and develop rural services infrastructure.

168. There is a range of public works programmes already in place in Ghana, including the Ghana Social Opportunities Project.<sup>133</sup> With some exceptions,<sup>134</sup> these programmes do not explicitly target youth and opportunities for youth participation in employment creation programmes are limited. This discussion underscores the need to

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<sup>133</sup> The key component of World Bank-Government of Ghana funded Ghana Social Opportunities Project aimed at providing short-term employment for very poor and usually unskilled persons in rural communities during the off-agriculture season. Areas of employment include rehabilitation and construction works on rural infrastructure, afforestation, among others.

<sup>134</sup> One exception is the Savannah Agriculture Development Authority (SADA), a government effort to tackle underdevelopment, poverty and vulnerability in deprived regions of the country. According to the 2014 national budget statement, about 5,000 youths were engaged in SADA's tree planning programme.

effectively “mainstream” vulnerable youth into public works programmes as part of broader strategy promoting youth employment. Experience from public works programmes targeting youth outside Ghana indicate that adding mandatory technical, behavioural skills, financial literacy, or job search training to the public works initiatives can further increase their impact in terms of improving youth employment outcomes.

### 9.3.4 Youth entrepreneurship

169. Promoting youth entrepreneurship represents another important demand-side strategy for expanding youth employment opportunities and improving employment outcomes for the large proportion of Ghanaian youth currently underemployed or outside of employment and education. A wide array of efforts promoting youth entrepreneurship is currently underway in the country, guided by the national Youth Enterprise Support (YES) Programme<sup>135</sup> and bolstered by the accompanying Youth Entrepreneurship Fund.<sup>136</sup> These include the Venture Capital Trust Fund (VCTF),<sup>137</sup> the Student Entrepreneurship Business Model,<sup>138</sup> the Graduate Entrepreneurial and Business Support Scheme (GEBSS),<sup>139</sup> the Rural Enterprises Programme (REP),<sup>140</sup> Microfinance and Small Loans Centre

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<sup>135</sup> The national Youth Enterprise Support (YES) Programme is a multi-sectoral Presidential Initiative involving other agencies such as the National Youth Authority, National Board for Small Scale Industries (NBSSI), Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Trade and Industry and Ministry of Youth and Sports.

<sup>136</sup> A GH¢10 million Youth Entrepreneurship Fund was launched to bolster national Youth Enterprise Support (YES) Programme. It targets 18 to 35 year olds with the aim to honing their entrepreneurial skills, providing mentorship and supporting them to develop their own start-ups or grow their existing business. Out of 107 participants that were selected and provided with training, 42 beneficiaries had received a total of GH¢1.2 million by the end of September 2015.

<sup>137</sup> The mission of the Venture Capital Trust Fund (VCTF) is to make available low cost financial support to Small and Medium scale Enterprises (SMEs) towards aiding their growth, creation of jobs and wealth. Financial support to SMEs is usually done through Venture Capital Financing Companies (VCFCs), who invest equity for a period not exceeding 10 years. Since its inception, the VCTF has mobilized in excess of GH¢100 million. It has created 5 VCFCs and over 46 investee companies. (Source: Annual Report of VCTF, 2012.)

<sup>138</sup> The student Entrepreneurship Business Mode, a component of the Development of Skills for Industry Project (DSIP), aims to assist students to begin and sustain start-ups as a way of developing their skills and competences.

<sup>139</sup> The Graduate Entrepreneurial and Business Support Scheme (GEBSS) is a public-private partnership between the then Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare and Graduate Business Support Scheme Limited with support from Management Development and Productivity Institute, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development and the Ministry of Youth and Sports. The scheme aims at developing young people with business-focused skills that enables them to begin and grow their own start-ups. The 2015 national budget targets 4,000 unemployed graduates. (Source. Official website of GEBSS, [http://www.gebssghana.org/cat\\_select.php?linkID=2](http://www.gebssghana.org/cat_select.php?linkID=2).)

<sup>140</sup> The Rural Enterprises Programme (REP) is a micro and small scale enterprise development collaboration involving the government of Ghana, International Fund for Agricultural Development and African Development Bank. The programme seeks to increase the number of rural micro and small scale enterprises (MSM) that generate growth, profit and employment opportunities. The current programme, REP III, is expected to run from 2012 to 2017 in at least 161 (i.e. including the 66 old districts) rural municipal and district assemblies in all regions across the country. The programme emphasizes on inclusive growth, youth employment and women empowerment and plans to create about 100,000 new jobs. (Sources: Ministry of Trade and Industry, 2012, Ghana Rural Enterprise Programme II, Executive Summary of Strategic Environmental and Social Assessment (SESA); and African Development Fund, 2012, Appraisal Report: Rural Enterprises Programme III, Ghana.)

(MASLOC),<sup>141</sup> Youth in Agriculture Project (YIAP),<sup>142</sup> University of Ghana's Creative Enterprise Training Programme, the Junior Achievers' Trust International Training Programme and the training and mentoring programme run by the Meltwater Entrepreneurial School of Technology (MEST) and the MEST incubator.

170. These efforts notwithstanding, there remains a number of outstanding priorities for expanding youth entrepreneurship opportunities, particularly for vulnerable youth. Priorities in this context include supporting an entrepreneurial culture by including entrepreneurship education and training in school. Converting the Rural Enterprise Program into a national policy could contribute to targeting specific regions where the youth employment situation is worse. Easing access to finance, including by guaranteeing loans and supporting micro-credit initiatives, is also critical, as a major stumbling block for young entrepreneurs is the lack of access to credit and seed funding. Expanding access to effective business advisory and support services, and the capacity to deliver them, is another key element in promoting youth entrepreneurship, as isolation and lack of support prevent many potential young entrepreneurs experience from gaining a foothold in the business world. The formation of self-help groups, including cooperatives, by young people would also allow for better access to supplies, credit and market information.

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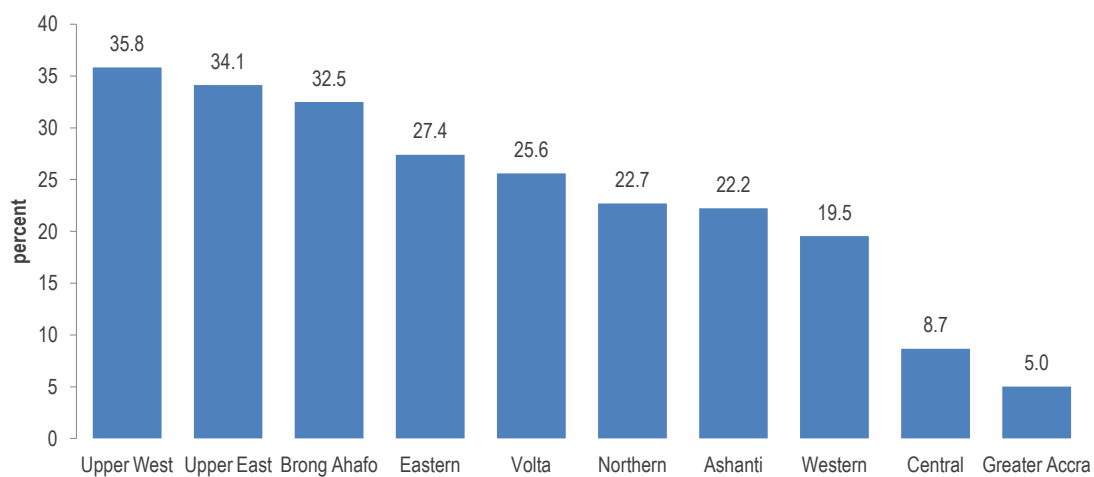
<sup>141</sup> Microfinance and Small Loans Centre (MASLOC) is an initiative of government that seeks to build partnership among the youth towards mobilizing resources for the development of business enterprises and the creation of jobs. According to the 2014 national budget statement, MASLOC imported and distributed 1,000 outboard motors and 6,450 bundles of fishing nets to fishing communities in the country as part of its collaboration with the Ministry of Fisheries and Aquaculture. The distribution of the outboard motors was expected to generate 13,000 direct jobs and 20,000 indirect jobs. Other MASLOC interventions include a Vehicle Hire Purchase Scheme for taxi drivers, Poultry Finance Scheme for poultry farmers, and other input supply schemes for hairdressers, food crop farmers, among others.

<sup>142</sup> Youth in Agriculture Project (YIAP) is a Ministry of Food and Agriculture entrepreneurial development initiative started as a pilot in 1999 and then extended nationwide in 2009. The objectives of the project include helping youths identify and accept farming as a viable commercial business venture, improving their incomes and therefore their livelihood as well as providing motivation for youth to stay in rural areas for agriculture. The components of the project include block farming, livestock and poultry, fisheries and aquaculture and agribusiness. Depending on the component, beneficiaries are weaned off support after one to three years. The project has had about 300,000 beneficiaries since its inception.

## APPENDIX 1. ADDITIONAL STATISTICS

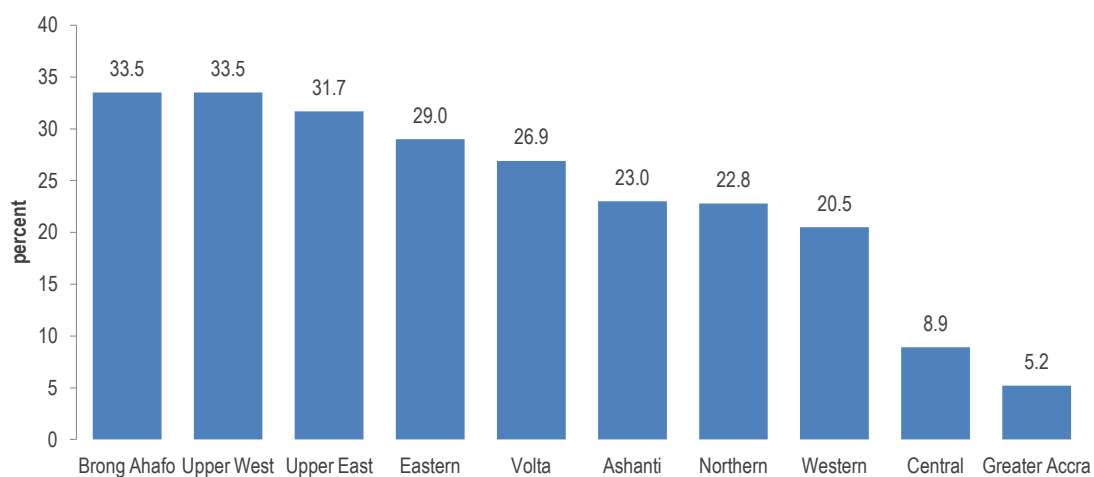
### Children aged 5-14 years

Figure A1. Child labour, children aged 5-14, by region



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

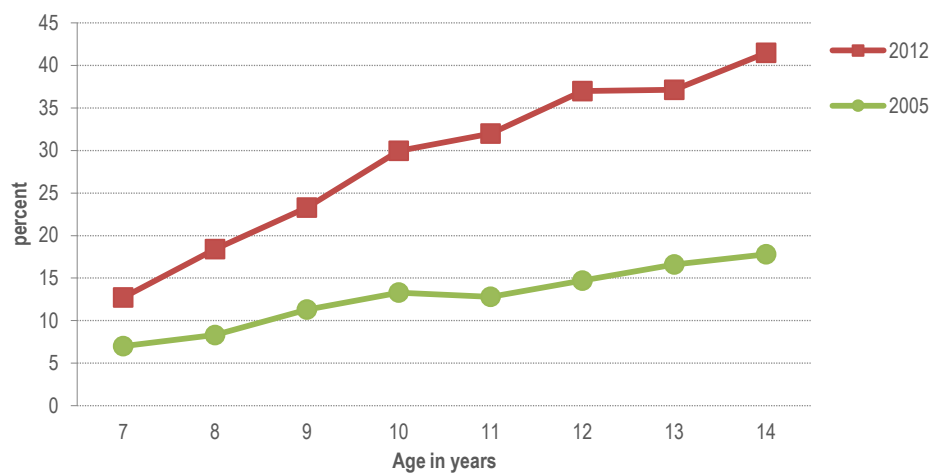
Figure A2. Child labour, children aged 5-17, by region



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service



Figure A3. Employment by age and survey round (GLSS 6, GLSS 5)



Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

Table A1. Children in employment, children aged 7-14 years, by sex, 2005 and 2012

Age group	GLSS 6 (2012)			GLSS 5 (2005)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
7-14	28.8	28.7	28.8	13.9	11.8	12.9

Source: UCW calculations based on the fifth and sixth rounds of the Ghana Living Standards Survey, 2005 and 2012/13.

Table A2. Summary descriptive statistics (unweighted averages)

Variable	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Employment	0.278	0.448	0.278	0.448
Schooling	0.894	0.308	0.894	0.308
Age	9.405	2.847	9.405	2.847
Age <sup>2</sup>	96.564	54.326	96.564	54.326
Female	0.489	0.500	0.489	0.500
Male sex of household head	0.773	0.419	0	1
Education of household head: no education	(base)			
Education of household head: Primary	0.131	0.338	0	1
Education of household head: jss/shs	0.370	0.483	0	1
Education of household head: SSS/SHS	0.150	0.357	0	1
Education of household head: Vocational training	0.026	0.159	0	1
Education of household head: Higher education	0.068	0.253	0	1
Household size	6.948	3.240	2	29
Number of children aged 0-4	0.874	0.967	0	7
Number of adults aged 18-34+	2.601	1.459	0	19
Number of adults aged 65+	0.225	0.498	0	5
Income quintile - bottom	(base)			
Income quintile 2	0.226	0.418	0	1
Income quintile 3	0.186	0.389	0	1
Income quintile 4	0.148	0.355	0	1
Income quintile - top	0.096	0.294	0	1
water	0.116	0.320	0	1
electricity	0.518	0.500	0	1
urban	0.344	0.475	0	1
Western	(base)			
Central	0.085	0.278	0	1
Greater Accra	0.075	0.264	0	1
Volta	0.092	0.289	0	1
Eastern	0.096	0.294	0	1
Ashanti	0.101	0.301	0	1
Brong Ahafo	0.102	0.302	0	1
Northern	0.141	0.348	0	1
Upper East	0.095	0.294	0	1
Upper West	0.120	0.324	0	1

Obs.: 19522

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

Table A3. Determinants of children's employment and schooling, marginal effect after biprobit estimations, children aged 5-14 years

Explanatory variables		Only employment		Only schooling		Both activities		Neither activity	
		dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
Child characteristics	Age	-0.012***	-5.549	-0.048***	-5.923	0.117***	15.848	-0.057***	-16.051
	Age <sup>2</sup>	0.001***	7.623	0.001	1.216	-0.004***	-10.561	0.003***	14.095
	Female	0.0001	0.267	0.007	1.191	-0.012**	-2.306	0.005*	1.765
Sex and education of household head	Male sex of household head	0.005**	2.365	-0.025***	-3.256	0.018***	2.607	0.002	0.462
	Primary	-0.033***	-9.833	0.070***	6.742	0.009	1.022	-0.046***	-9.063
	JSS/SHS	-0.049***	-16.755	0.122***	14.254	-0.009	-1.141	-0.065***	-14.808
	SSS/SHS	-0.057***	-18.344	0.169***	15.512	-0.036***	-3.726	-0.075***	-14.900
	Voc training	-0.062***	-15.670	0.226***	11.030	-0.085***	-4.623	-0.079***	-8.678
	Higher	-0.060***	-17.557	0.226***	15.720	-0.096***	-7.740	-0.070***	-9.498
Household characteristics	Household size	0.003***	6.048	-0.014***	-8.528	0.011***	7.350	0.000	0.413
	Number of children aged 0-4	-0.001	-0.512	0.016***	4.105	-0.022***	-6.262	0.007***	3.940
	Number of adults aged 18-64	0.000	0.373	0.005	1.404	-0.008***	-2.767	0.003**	2.228
	Number of adults aged 65+	0.004**	2.135	0.001	0.091	-0.014**	-2.571	0.010***	3.676
	Expenditure 2	-0.012***	-5.189	0.028***	3.425	0.003	0.351	-0.018***	-4.834
	Expenditure 3	-0.017***	-6.870	0.031***	3.330	0.017**	2.018	-0.031***	-7.411
	Expenditure 4	-0.015***	-5.262	0.027**	2.533	0.016*	1.712	-0.028***	-5.747
Expenditure 5	-0.021***	-6.175	0.043***	3.217	0.014	1.170	-0.036***	-6.178	
Access to basic services	Piped water	-0.015***	-4.116	0.080***	6.685	-0.066***	-6.201	0.002	0.283
	Electricity	-0.026***	-11.941	0.067***	9.544	-0.006	-0.964	-0.035***	-10.340
Residence	Urban	-0.018***	-9.606	0.124***	15.132	-0.116***	-17.005	0.010**	2.231
Regions	Central	-0.009***	-2.921	0.090***	6.630	-0.099***	-8.750	0.017**	2.306
	Greater Accra	0.003	0.864	0.035**	2.141	-0.090***	-6.993	0.051***	4.974
	Volta	0.025***	6.253	-0.067***	-4.761	0.002	0.132	0.040***	5.655
	Eastern	0.013***	3.323	-0.112***	-7.957	0.105***	8.072	-0.006	-1.004
	Ashanti	0.009**	2.274	-0.067***	-4.721	0.059***	4.633	-0.001	-0.230
	Brong Ahafo	0.008**	2.186	-0.116***	-8.324	0.122***	9.470	-0.014**	-2.558
	Northern	0.029***	8.123	-0.064***	-4.850	-0.033***	-2.986	0.068***	9.791
	Upper East	0.009**	2.466	-0.117***	-8.154	0.122***	9.141	-0.013**	-2.444
Upper West	0.018***	4.950	-0.101***	-7.299	0.080***	6.301	0.004	0.664	

Notes: Regions - reference category Western region; Household income quintile - reference category bottom income quintile; Education of household head: reference category - less than primary/no schooling.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

Table A4. Average weekly working hours, children aged 5-14 years, by sex , residence and schooling status

		Schooling status		Total <sup>(a)</sup>
		Employment exclusively	Employment and schooling	
Sex	Male	33.1	15.0	17.5
	Female	35.9	15.4	17.9
Residence	Urban	35.7	14.1	16.1
	Rural	34.1	15.7	18.3
<b>Total</b>		34.4	15.2	17.7

Notes: (a) Refers to all those in employment, regardless of schooling status.

Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13)Ghana Statistical Service

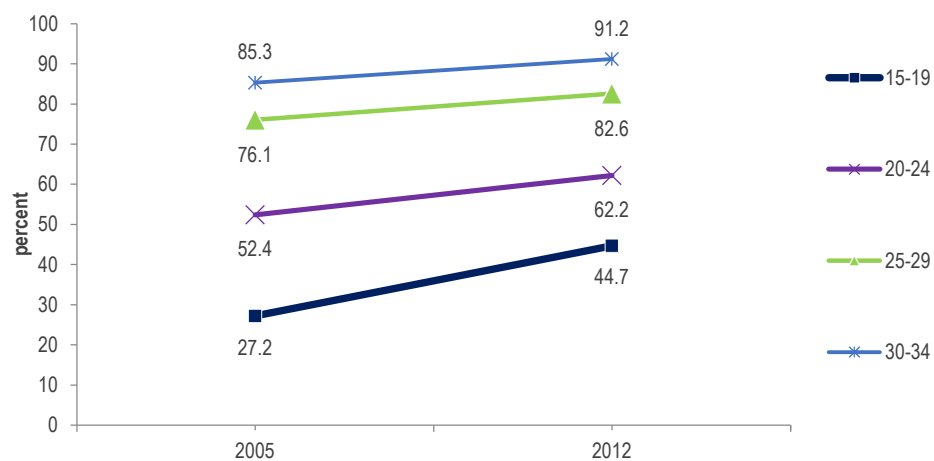
## Young persons aged 15-24 years

Table A5. Decomposition of population, persons aged 15-34 years, by residence, sex, age range and region

Population category		Inactive		Active			Total
				Employed		Unemployed	
		Student	Other inactive	Student	Not student		
Area	Urban	23.5	11.8	7.7	51.5	5.5	100
	Rural	13.8	7.3	16.2	59.4	3.3	100
Sex	Male	20.5	6.5	14.8	54.3	3.9	100
	Female	17.8	12.7	8.7	55.9	4.9	100
Age	15-19	41.9	10.8	26.1	18.6	2.6	100
	20-24	17.3	13.1	7.4	54.9	7.3	100
	25-39	3.6	8.2	3.3	79.3	5.6	100
	30-34	0.6	5.5	2.1	89.2	2.8	100
Region	Western	18.5	5.6	12.5	58.4	5.0	100
	Central	25.4	16.2	6.3	48.0	4.1	100
	Greater Accra	23.9	13.7	3.5	52.6	6.3	100
	Volta	20.5	7.7	15.0	54.1	2.8	100
	Eastern	17.9	8.5	15.1	54.2	4.4	100
	Ashanti	16.9	11.4	12.1	56.3	3.4	100
	Brong Ahafo	15.9	6.4	18.6	55.4	3.7	100
	Northern	15.7	7.8	10.0	63.4	3.1	100
	Upper East	14.3	4.2	17.5	56.0	8.0	100
	Upper West	15.6	3.8	24.6	49.5	6.5	100
<b>Total</b>		<b>19.1</b>	<b>9.8</b>	<b>11.6</b>	<b>55.1</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>100</b>

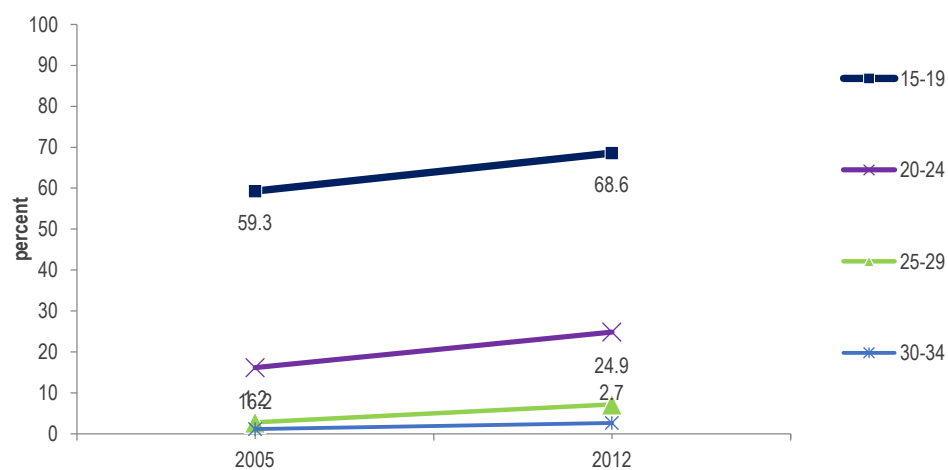
Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

Figure A4. Employment ratio, by age group and year



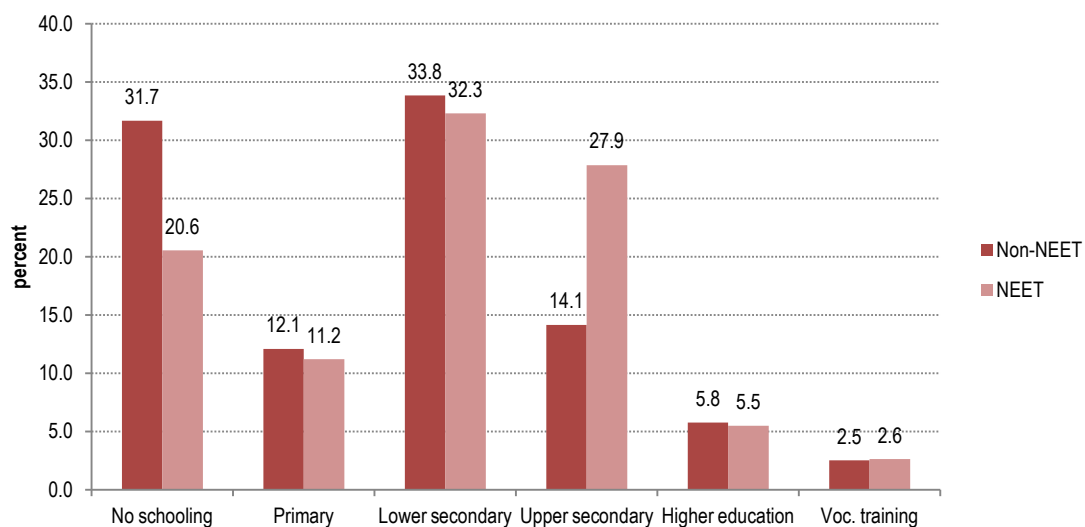
Source: UCW calculations based on Ghana, GLSS 6 and GLSS 5

Figure A5. School attendance, by age group and year



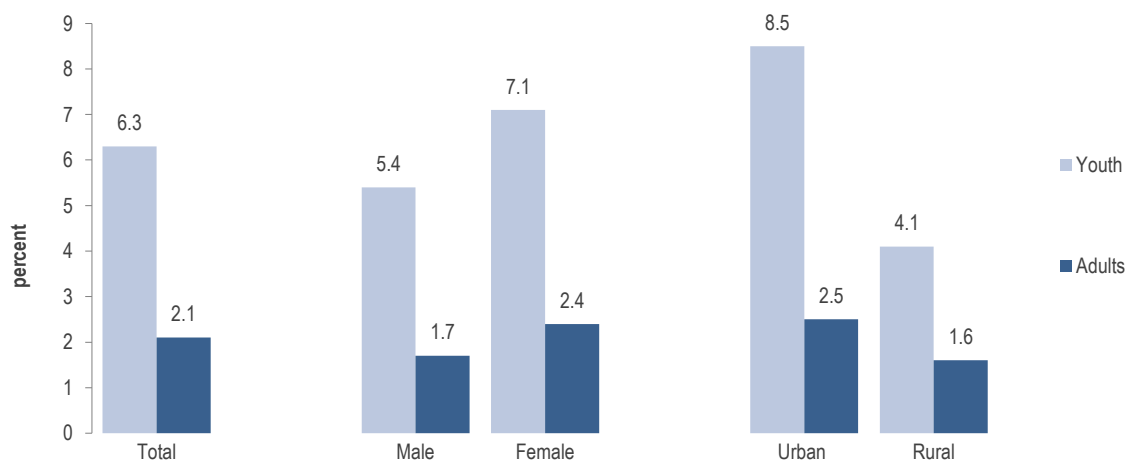
Source: UCW calculations based on Ghana, GLSS 6 and GLSS 5

Figure A6. Percentage distribution of youth not currently in education by education level and NEET status



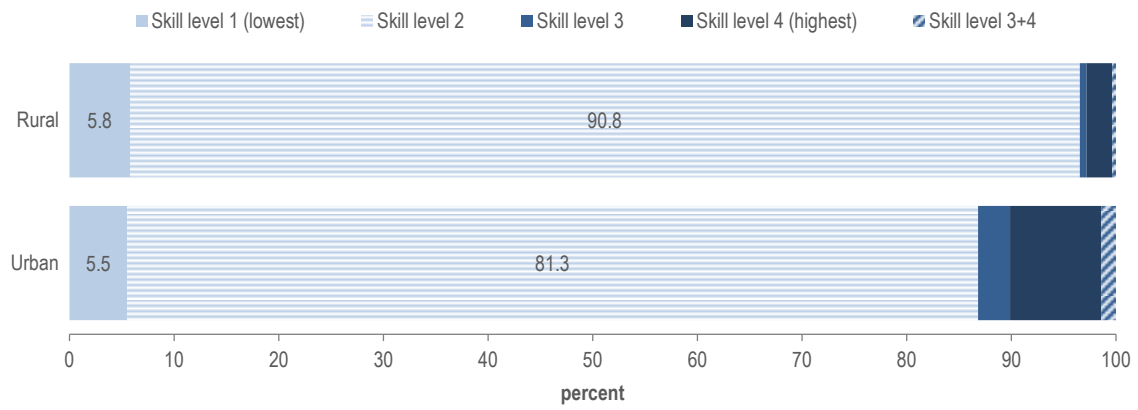
Source: UCW calculations based on Ghana, GLSS 6

Figure A7. Unemployment rate, youth and adult workers



Source: UCW calculations based on the sixth round of the Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012/13 (GLSS 6, 2012/13) Ghana Statistical Service

Figure A8. Skill level classification of youth jobs (% distribution of employed youth), by area of residence



Source: UCW calculations based on Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012 (GLSS 6, 2012)



Table A6. Determinants of earnings<sup>(a)</sup>, results of OLS estimation with robust standard errors, paid working pop. aged 15-34 years

Variables		Logarithm of earnings	
		Coef.	s.e.
Age, gender and level of education attained	Age in years	0.016	0.061
	Age squared	0.0001	0.001
	Male	0.537***	0.117
	Primary school	0.090	0.107
	Lower secondary school	0.044	0.105
	Upper secondary school	0.447***	0.105
	Higher education	1.365***	0.101
	Male-primary	0.111	0.158
	Male-lower sec.	0.077	0.148
	Male-upper sec	-0.267*	0.150
	Male-Higher educ.	-0.467***	0.143
Household characteristics	Household size	-0.018**	0.009
Sector of employment	Manufacturing	0.061	0.120
	Service	0.161	0.112
	Other	0.656***	0.121
Residence	urban	-0.099*	0.055
Regions	Central	-0.299***	0.113
	Greater Accra	-0.240***	0.070
	Volta	-0.377***	0.106
	Eastern	-0.240***	0.081
	Ashanti	0.005	0.073
	Brong Ahafo	-0.541***	0.097
	Northern	-0.417***	0.127
	Upper East	0.118	0.134
	Upper West	-0.444***	0.113
	_cons	-1.492*	0.827

Notes: (a) Dependent variable is logarithm of earnings (hourly wage); (b) significance level \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$ ; (c) Reference category: Education - no school; Sector of employment - agriculture; Region - Western  
Source: UCW calculations based on Ghana Living Standards Survey 2012 (GLSS 6, 2012)