

# **International Journal of Research Publication and Reviews**

Journal homepage: www.ijrpr.com ISSN 2582-7421

# Influence of Household Income on Child Labour and Child Trafficking in Nigeria

# Ibrahim Musa<sup>\*1</sup>, Sule Magaji<sup>2</sup>, Jafaru Yakubu<sup>3</sup>

Economics Department, University of Abuja

Email: ibrahim.musa@uniabuja.edu.ng<sup>1</sup>, sule.magaji@uniabuja.edu.ng<sup>2</sup>, jafaru.yakubu@uniabuja.edu.ng<sup>3</sup>

#### ABSTRACT

This study investigates how household income influences child labor and trafficking in the Karu local government region. An analytical model was created using the theories proposed by Basu and Van (1988) and Fan (2011). The study employs a multistage sampling method to collect data from four selected districts (Mararaba, Massaka, Ado, and New Karu) in Karu Local Government Area, Nasarawa state, Nigeria. Questionnaires were sent to 379 families in the 4 chosen districts of Karu Local Government Area to collect the data. This study demonstrates that household income plays a significant role in influencing child labor and trafficking in Karu Local Government. There is a high prevalence of child labor and trafficking in the area. Additionally, an increase in household size is linked to higher rates of child labor and trafficking, while employment and skills are associated with lower rates of child labor and trafficking in Karu Local Government. Similarly, children from households with incomes below the subsistence level are often subjected to child labor and trafficking. It was recommended that both individualistic and governmental efforts be focused on curbing child labor and trafficking to limit children's involvement in these activities.

Keywords: Household Income, Child Labour and Child Trafficking.

# **1.0 Introduction**

According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 2017, over 218 million children globally are impacted by child labour. Based on the latest child labour estimate, around 102 million children globally, comprising 64 million girls and 88 million males, engage in work throughout their early years. This accounts for nearly one-tenth of all children. Rural households engaged in subsistence agriculture bear the primary responsibility for perpetuating child labour, which hampers children's involvement in educational activities and results in below-average performance (ILO, 2018). As per the United Nations (2020) report, Africa has 72.1 million juvenile labourers, of which 31.5 million are engaged in hazardous work. The prevalence of child labour is severe in sub-Saharan Africa, where over 40% of children between the ages of 5 and 14 engage in work for their bare existence. This corresponds to nearly 48 million children. Hence, a significant number of child labourers in sub-Saharan Africa face the potential of encountering various occupational health problems in the immediate future, which could ultimately jeopardise their scholastic prospects in the long term. Child labour in Nigeria pertains to the employment of individuals under 18 in a manner that restricts or hampers their ability to engage in early childhood development and education (Musa et al., 2023). Child labour is prevalent in every state nationwide (Magaji, 2005). Children often endure hazardous working conditions, lack of safety measures, extended working hours, meagre remuneration, exposure to pesticides, and reliance on chemical fertilisers as they are used as forced labour. Furthermore, an increasing proportion of marginalised youth solicited alms and laboured as carriers and collectors of discarded items (Magaji & Musa, 2015a, Shaba, Obansa, Magaji & Yelwa, 2018).

Child labour is any form of employment that harms or prevents children from accessing education (Public Education Project, 2010). Child labour refers to any form of work that denies children their youth, potential, and dignity while also impeding their physical and mental development. Child trafficking involves the act of removing children from their safe surroundings and exploiting their vulnerabilities for the goal of exploitation, as defined by the ILO in 2000. Child trafficking refers to the illicit transportation of children, primarily to subject them to forced labour or sexual exploitation. Obtaining precise statistics on the extent of child labour and child trafficking is challenging. However, the ILO has estimated that there are approximately 160 million children between the ages of 5 and 17 who are engaged in child labour, and around 1.2 million children engaged in child labour. The ILO estimates that there are around 72.1 million African children engaged in child labour, with 31.5 million of them involved in hazardous jobs (2016 Global estimates of child labour).

According to the UNICEF global databases for the year 2023, which include data from demographic and health surveys (DHS), Multiple indicator cluster surveys (MICS), surveys conducted by other countries, censuses, and vital registration systems from 2014 to 2022, the proportion of children between the ages of 5 and 17 who are currently involved in child labour in different regions is as follows: 26% in Sub Saharan Africa. The individuals affected are 26% in Eastern and Southern Africa, 22% in Least Developed Countries, and 26% in West Africa.

The ILO estimates that over 250 million children aged 5 to 14 work in underdeveloped countries such as Nigeria. Approximately 61% are in Asia, while around 32% are in Africa. Child labour and child trafficking are prevalent in developing nations and have become pervasive in various economic sectors in both urban and rural areas of Nigeria, including the Emirate of Nasarawa communities (Unajaka et al., 2010).

Recent estimates from the ILO in 2022 indicate that approximately 1.8 million children were trafficked from West Africa over the past five years. Based on the most recent mapping conducted by the African Committee of Experts on Children's Rights and Welfare, it was found that from 2015 to 2018, over 600,000 children in West Africa fell prey to cross-border trafficking. According to the ILO, a minimum of 43% of children in Nigeria are ensnared in child labour. Both domestic and international trafficking of children plague Nigeria. Child trafficking in Nigeria includes both internal and external operations, characterised by exploitative and enslaving circumstances. In 2016, Nigeria's governmental organisation responsible for addressing trafficking stated that 75% of minors who are trafficked within the country are transported across several states, while 23% are trafficked within the same state, and 2% are trafficking in Persons (NAPTIP) is an organisation in Nigeria dedicated to combating and preventing human trafficking. According to the NAPTIP report of 2014, children make up 28% of the identified victims of human trafficking in Nigeria. According to UNICEF, minors were responsible for 20% of the suicide attacks in Nigeria. Recent reports indicate that youngsters in Northern Nigeria are being coerced by the terrorist organisation Boko Haram to engage in suicide attacks, representing the most extreme form of exploitation.

The Karu local government area in Nasarawa State is notorious for its high prevalence of child labour and child trafficking. The region is renowned for its agricultural pursuits, encompassing crop cultivation and animal husbandry, generating employment prospects for numerous households. Nevertheless, these prospects frequently entail significant expenses, particularly for minors compelled to toil for extended periods in arduous circumstances with minimal or nonexistent remuneration. Researchers have extensively investigated the intricate relationship between household income, child labour, and child trafficking in Nigeria. Poverty played a crucial role in the continuation of child labour in Nigeria (Magaji & Musa, 2015b). The study unveiled that many parents lacked the financial means to educate their children, consequently compelling them to engage in labour instead (Magaji & Yahaya, 2012). The perpetuation of child labour and the limited access to education caused by the cycle of poverty create significant barriers for children to break free from their grip (Musa, Magaji, Abdulmaliq & Eke, 2022).

A further investigation by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) revealed that child labour was more widespread in the rural regions of the Karu local government area due to restricted employment prospects and inadequate educational attainment. The study additionally revealed a higher prevalence of child labour among children hailing from impoverished households, hence emphasising the correlation between poverty and child labour.

The correlation between household income and child trafficking in Nigeria is equally alarming. The exploitation of children through trafficking is a very profitable enterprise that flourishes by taking advantage of the dire circumstances faced by impoverished families. Human traffickers frequently make enticing offers of substantial financial compensation to families to coerce them into surrendering their children, who are subsequently subjected to labour exploitation or sexual enslavement. Karu is plagued with a substantial issue of child trafficking, as numerous children are illicitly transported to different states within Nigeria or even overseas. The area's proximity to the capital city of Abuja and its well-connected road network makes it a highly appealing destination for traffickers. Moreover, the region's impoverished conditions and limited availability of education and employment prospects foster a favourable setting for child trafficking. In order to tackle the problem of child labour and child trafficking in the Karu local government area, it is crucial to address the root causes of poverty and the absence of educational and employment options.

The issues of child labour and child trafficking are pervasive on a global scale, affecting millions of children who are subjected to exploitation annually. In Nigeria, specifically in the Karu local government of Nasarawa State, these problems are widespread due to other causes, such as poverty and limited educational opportunities. This issue statement seeks to investigate the correlation between household income and the occurrence of child labour and child trafficking in the Karu local government area of Nasarawa State. Child labour, as defined by the ILO (ILO), refers to work that has detrimental effects on children's physical, mental, or educational growth. In countries that are living in poverty, like Nigeria, there is a prevalent problem where numerous children are compelled to engage in hazardous labour, such as mining, agriculture, and manufacturing, instead of receiving an education. The scenario in Karu local government is identical. Many youngsters are involved in diverse types of child labour, including street vending, household chores, and agricultural activities. These children frequently endure extended periods of labour, perhaps without receiving any compensation, and are subjected to physical and emotional mistreatment. The absence of educational and other options intensifies their susceptibility to exploitation (Magaji & Aliyu, 2007).

The primary factor underlying child labour in the Karu local government region is predominantly ascribed to poverty and economic adversity. Numerous households depend on their children to augment their earnings, and the absence of alternative income options compels them to send their children to work. As per a survey conducted by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the mean monthly earnings of households in the Karu local government area amount to approximately \$150, which falls below the poverty threshold. Consequently, numerous households face difficulties fulfilling their fundamental necessities, let alone catering to their children's education and welfare.

Additionally, the socio-cultural environment in the Karu local government area also plays a role in the high occurrence of child labour. Education may be undervalued in certain societies, leading parents to prioritise domestic tasks or farm work over sending their children to school. Moreover, the absence of consciousness of the adverse repercussions of child labour and the need for education can impede endeavours to tackle the problem. In order to tackle the issue of child labour and child trafficking in the Karu local government area, it is crucial to address the root causes, such as poverty and limited educational opportunities

#### 2.1 Conceptual Review

Three essential concepts to comprehend are child labour, child trafficking, and household income. The following sections will analyse these notions and elucidate their relationship.

# 2.1.1 Child Labour

Child Labour, defined by UNICEF (2022), refers to any form of work that poses physical, mental, social, or moral risks to children and hinders their access to educational and developmental possibilities. According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), a child is defined as an individual under eighteen. The Convention highlights the imperative of safeguarding children from violence, sexual exploitation, and abuse, as well as from labour exploitation and perilous occupations.

The ILO (ILO, 2022) defines "child labour" as work that denies children their youth, potential, and dignity while also posing risks to their bodily and mental development. Child labour encompasses tasks detrimental to children's mental and physical wellbeing. It also includes activities that hinder their education by preventing them from attending school, forcing them to drop out prematurely, or burdening them with balancing school with excessively demanding and time-consuming work. The classification of "child labour" for specific types of employment is contingent upon factors such as the child's age, the nature and duration of the work, the working conditions, and the goals set by different nations. The response differs among nations and even within states within those nations (ILO, 2022).

Child labour, as defined by the ILO (ILO, 2017), refers to any employment or activity performed by a child under the age of 18 in exchange for compensation in the form of money, goods, or any other form that hinders their physical wellbeing, access to school, and overall growth. The labour performed by children is classified as child labour due to their age falling below the legally mandated minimum working age of 18 years, as defined by the ILO (ILO) minimum age convention of 1973, precisely Number 138 (1). Suda (2001) and Edmond and Watson (2008) define child labour as the employment of children for economic purposes, which involves both dangerous conditions and a high likelihood of exploitation. Child labour is widely seen as the perilous engagement of children in work that poses harm to their wellbeing. Child labour is any form of work that hinders a child's physical and mental growth, as stated by the ILO (ILO) in 2012.

The ILO (ILO) (2012) reported that there are 215 million kids worldwide who are impacted by child labour. According to Moyi (2011), child labour is viewed as a form of exploitation due to its association with meagre wages and extended periods of strenuous labour. These types of labour are often exploitative because of their lack of maturity and fair treatment. However, Aqil (2012) argues that not all employment is inherently harmful or exploitative. The extent to which work can be considered exploitative relies on factors such as the specific work environment, the number of hours assigned, and the overall working conditions. As observed in various communities, age determines when individuals cease to be considered children. This phenomenon is evident in the absorption of this concept.

Child labour is often viewed as a beneficial practice in Africa and Asia due to the potential for youngsters to acquire valuable skills. In their study, Kielland and Tovo (2006) perceive child labour as incorporating children into various societal tasks, which helps them discover their future roles as they grow older. Phoumin (2008) argues that specific research analyses it based on its income-generating potential. According to Udry (2006), child labour is viewed as a trade-off where families forfeit potential future earnings to gain immediate, more significant cash during crucial periods. This financial factor typically hampers the child's academic potential at an early stage; some opt to juggle education with excessively lengthy periods of laborious job (Ruchi, 2012).

#### 2.1.2 Child trafficking

Child trafficking is a widespread occurrence that is observed globally. Tola (2008) ranks it as the third most significant criminal activity globally. Child trafficking, as defined by the United Nations Human Rights (2018), encompasses the act of recruiting, transporting, transferring, harbouring, or receiving minors to exploit them. This exploitation can occur in domestic and foreign contexts and is not restricted to using illicit methods. Child trafficking is a societal problem that is occasionally linked to the unemployment experienced by confident parents (Magaji & Musa, 2015a). Traffickers deceive these parents into believing that their living conditions will improve, along with the wellbeing of their children (Ayua, 1999). Children are being forcibly taken away from their families, friends, communities, and support networks, which significantly endangers their growth and survival. They are compelled to live in dire conditions and deprived of economic autonomy. Child trafficking, as defined by specific sources such as Dottridge (2008) and Staiger (2005), includes the movement of all individuals under the age of 18 who have been relocated from one location to another. Child trafficking is a type of human trafficking that encompasses the actions of recruiting, transporting, transferring, harbouring, or receiving a child to exploit them. This practice constitutes a grave infringement against human rights and has a profound impact on millions of youngsters across the globe—the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2018).

#### 2.1.3 Household Income

According to the definition provided by OECD countries in 2022, household disposable income refers to the total amount of money available to households after deducting their spending on goods and services and savings while excluding any changes in the net value of households' investments in pension funds. It is also equivalent to the total of earnings and salaries, combined income, net property income, net current transfers, and social benefits

excluding non-monetary transfers, minus income and wealth taxes, as well as social security contributions made by employees, self-employed individuals, and the jobless. The household sector indicator encompasses the disposable income of Non-profit Institutions Serving Households (NPISH). The price deflator utilised to derive absolute values is congruent with the one employed to adjust the final consumption expenditure of families and NPISH. Household income often denotes the total gross income of all individuals in a household who have reached a certain age threshold. Household income includes all individuals residing in a family unit, such as spouses and their dependents, who share the same residence. All incomes, regardless of their allocation towards household expenses, are considered. Household income is a significant risk metric employed by lenders to assess loans and serves as a valuable economic indication of the standard of living in a particular area.

# 2.2 Theoretical Review

#### 2.2.1 Theory of Child Labour and Trafficking

This section examines the theoretical aspects of how households make decisions regarding the employment of children. The focus will be mainly on recent literature that examines the impact of money, precisely household income, on child labour and child trafficking. The primary goal of the review is to identify the household characteristics that should appear as statistically significant factors in the empirical analysis of child labour/trafficking.

#### 2.2.2 Becker's New Household Economic Theory

The conventional consumer theory, despite its limitations, needs to provide an adequate understanding of consumer behaviour, especially regarding households. The alternative model, sometimes called a neoclassical representation of consumer behaviour, has integrated specific components absent in the old theory.

In his work from 1962, Gary Becker emphasises the family as the primary and essential institution in society. His theory, known as the new household economic theory, was initially developed to explain how households in the United States, Japan, and Israel allocate resources, make decisions, and maximise utility. Subsequently, the theory was also extended to emerging nations, namely for the examination of agricultural households. Becker's method offers significant novel perspectives to the conventional consumer theory. One notable example is his recognition of the family as a dual entity, serving as a consumer and a producer. Nevertheless, a significant portion of Becker's concepts regarding household economic behaviours have been previously introduced and cannot be considered novel.

However, his presentation was more formalised than any of the previous ones. Neoclassical models frequently used to study child labour are often based on Becker's work.

Household bargaining models can be classified into two main categories: those assuming children do not influence decision-making and those acknowledging children as having inherent worth within the family. In scenarios where children lack bargaining power, parental decisions are taken unilaterally, prioritising the parents' interests while disregarding the potential consequences for the child. This provides analytical backing for public policies that restrict the options available to parents in making decisions for their children, such as mandatory education, minimum working age, and prohibition of child employment under bonded conditions.

# 2.3 Empirical Review

Oladokun, Dada, Agulanna, & Adenegan (2020) investigate the factors that influence child labour in agricultural households in Nigeria. An analysis was conducted to examine the factors influencing child labour. The study utilised data from the General Household Survey (GHS 2015/2016), including information on 765 homes in rural Nigeria. The data was divided into the six Geo-Political Zones in Nigeria: North-Central, North-West, North-East, Southeast, South-South, and South-West. Data regarding socioeconomic attributes such as age, household size, marital status, years of education, and membership in a cooperative society were collected for analysis. Descriptive statistics and logit regression were employed at a significance level of  $\alpha 0.05$ . The study's findings indicate that child labour has detrimental effects on children's wellbeing.

Olukunmi (2017) examines the socioeconomic factors influencing child labour in Ilorin, Kwara state. The data was gathered through the administration of questionnaires. Four hundred questionnaires were distributed in the five local government areas of Ilorin city. The data was analysed using both descriptive statistical methods and inferential statistics, specifically the chi-square test. The findings indicate that a low level of home income is a significant factor in determining child labour across various households. The family size and parents' educational status have a respective impact on child labour

Musa & Magaji (2023) conducted a study analysing the relationship between household income and child labour in Northeastern Nigeria. They utilised the logit regression methodology for their analysis. The findings indicate that home income is the primary factor influencing child labour and trafficking, among various socioeconomic determinants. The study suggests that governments should focus on creating work possibilities and increasing income levels.

Furthermore, Mackintosh & Wori (2021) investigate the impact of Parental socioeconomic status on Child Labour in Port Harcourt Metropolis. The study employed a 14-item questionnaire called "Parental Socioeconomic Status on Child Labour" (PSSCL) as the primary data collection tool. The study included a total sample size of 126 respondents, consisting of 45 parents and 81 children. The study employed a descriptive survey research design to

collect dependable data. The data obtained from primary and secondary sources were analysed using statistical measures such as mean and standard deviation. The study's results indicated a substantial correlation between parents' socioeconomic position and the occurrence of child labour.

The study was done exclusively inside the geographical boundaries of Awka South Local Government Area in Anambra State. Musa, Magaji, & Tsauni (2022) analyse the socioeconomic factors that influence child labour in Northeastern Nigeria. Their research utilises multistage sampling strategies to collect necessary data from specific local government areas in three Northeastern Nigeria states: Adamawa, Bauchi, and Yobe States. Their investigation employed structured questionnaires. The acquired data were examined via the Tobit Model. Their research indicates that the factors influencing child labour include the age and gender of the children, their relationship with the head of the household, the household head's education level, the household's occupation, and poverty. Poverty is measured by the household head's income, the family's size, access to clean piped water, and the distance from school. Nevertheless, specific findings were determined to have statistical significance at different degrees.

Shehu, Kangiwa, & Umar (2015) investigate the impact of home poverty on child labour in Nigeria. The study utilised nationally representative household-level data from Nigeria to empirically investigate the impact of poverty on the probability of impoverished households including their children in work activities. The analysis utilised a univariate probit model, which revealed that the per adult consumption expenditure, serving as a measure of household wellbeing, substantially adversely impacts the households' decision to engage in child work. The projected outcome also indicates that the attributes of the kid, parent, home, and community substantially impact the decision to engage in child work within the household.

The study by Musa & Magaji (2023) investigates the influence of home income on child labour in the Bauchi Local Government Area of Bauchi State. They utilised the survey research design by administering questionnaires. Information was collected from a sample of 50 individuals who live in the Bauchi Local Government Area of Bauchi State. The study employed percentage analysis and chi-square and utilised tables for data display. The study reveals that an overwhelming majority of participants (80%) do not receive any form of financial assistance or backing from the Government. Hence, the study proposes implementing policies that will enhance the availability of job possibilities and establish income schemes for households.

Okoronkwo & Ophra (2024) investigated the socioeconomic determinants that impact child labour in Nigeria. The tools employed for data gathering consisted of a questionnaire and in-depth interview schedules. The study utilised a sample size of 621 participants, with 615 participants for the quantitative distribution and 6 participants for the IDIs. The quantitative data were examined using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, using percentages (%) and Chi-square ( $\chi 2$ ) statistics to test the three hypotheses. The qualitative data, on the other hand, were analysed thematically to supplement the quantitative findings. The study determined that marital status was the sole factor with a significant favourable impact on child labour practices. Child employment practices also have detrimental effects on children. The report proposes that individuals who persist in using children in child labour despite undergoing these awareness and education initiatives should face stringent legal penalties as a means of discouraging others from partaking in similar actions. The eradication of child labour practices in Nigeria requires the active participation of the Government, youth corps members, community leaders, and the public. They all have a crucial role in addressing the socioeconomic elements contributing to this issue.

In their study, Shailong et al. (2011) examined the causes behind sending youngsters to work as hawks in Lafia City, Nasarawa state. They also explored the socioeconomic elements that influence this phenomenon. The sample comprised 100 youngsters aged below 15 years. The tool utilised for data collecting was an interview schedule. The data were examined utilising percentages. The study revealed that having many family members is the main contributing factor to children becoming engaged in hawking. The study suggests that parents should prioritise their children's survival and development. Additionally, it proposes that NGOs and women's organisations should educate urban and rural women on more effective ways to generate income and implement family planning measures to decrease the number of children they can financially sustain.

Oli & Nweke (2021) examine the phenomenon of child labour in the Awka South Local Government Area of Anambra State, Nigeria. The study included a mixed-methods research design and a multistage sampling approach, comprising 200 persons aged 18 and above. The primary tools employed for data gathering were the questionnaire schedule, a quantitative method, and the in-depth interview guide, a qualitative method. The findings indicate that child labour is influenced by factors such as poor household income, poverty, parental education, family size, cultural beliefs, and living in slums. Common manifestations of child labour encompass activities such as peddling, soliciting on the streets, household chores, agricultural labour, and employment in industrial facilities.

Based on the literature reviewed, numerous studies have been carried out on the factors that contribute to child labour and child trafficking in Nigeria. These studies have focused on the influence of social, parental, and socioeconomic status on child labour and trafficking, as well as the consequences associated with these issues. By utilising up-to-date data, this study aims to address the existing knowledge gap.

# 3.0 Methodology

# 3.1 Research Design

Consistent with prior work, this study employed a survey research approach. Survey research is gathering information from a selected group of persons by asking them questions, as defined by Check and Schutt (2012). This form of research enables the utilisation of several techniques to recruit individuals, gather data, and employ various instruments. Survey research can employ quantitative research methodologies, which involve using questionnaires including items that are scored numerically. Alternatively, it can utilise qualitative research methodologies, which involve open-ended questions. Survey research can also employ a combination of both methodologies, known as a mixed method approach. Surveys are commonly employed in social and psychological research to describe and investigate human behaviour (Singleton & Straits, 2009). The selection of the survey research design was based

on the nature of the study, which involved a social survey with managerial factors. The design proved critical in addressing the research inquiries. An advantage of this strategy is its extensive reach, enabling the collection of abundant information from a geographically diverse population (Ndiyo, 2016).

#### 3.2 The Study Area

Nasarawa State is in the North Central area of Nigeria. It shares borders with Taraba and Plateau states to the east, Kaduna State to the north, Benue and Kogi states to the south, and the Federal Capital Territory to the west. The state of Nasarawa was established on 1 October 1996, encompassing the western region of Plateau State. It was named after the Nasarawa Emirate, which holds historical significance. The state has thirteen local government areas, with its headquarters at Lafia, located in the eastern part.

Additionally, the Karu Urban Area, a significant economic hub of the state, is situated along the western border with the Federal Headquarters Territory (FCT) and is considered a suburb of Abuja. The land area measures 26,256 square kilometres (10,137 square miles) and is predicted to have a population of 2,886,000 in 2022. The population of Karu LGA is predicted to be 103,748 residents (Wikipedia in 2022).

#### 3.3 Population of the Study

The study population consists of individuals residing in the Karu local government area of Nasarawa State, with an approximate population of 103,748 inhabitants within the region (Wikipedia, 2022).

#### 3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Technique

This study will mostly utilise random sampling to examine the variables. The study's sample size will be determined using the Taro Yamani Formula. The sample size for this study was established using the Yamani (1968) formula for estimating sample size, as follows:

n = N
1+n(e) <sup>2</sup>
Where: n= sample size
N= 103,748 (population size)
e= 0.05(sample error level of significance)
1 = constant
n = 103,748
1+103,748 (0.05) <sup>2</sup>

The sample size is 400 respondents

#### 3.5 Instrument of Data Collection

The primary method of data gathering would be administering questionnaires to the respondents. The questionnaire will be divided into two sections: Section one will gather data on the socio-economic characteristics of the respondents, such as age and gender, among others. The second segment aims to gather the perspectives of the participants regarding the influence of household income on child labour and child trafficking in the Karu local government area of Nasarawa State.

n = 400

# 3.6 Nature and Source of Data

Both primary and secondary data sources were utilised to address the research objectives. The primary data sources consisted of field surveys conducted in the research area while secondary data was obtained from various sources such as books, journals, seminar papers, and pertinent written reports.

#### 3.6.1 Method of Data Collection

In addition to secondary sources, two primary data collection approaches were employed to gather information from the field. The two primary methods of data collection utilised are questionnaires and personal interviews. An oral interview will be conducted with the subject, along with questionnaires including closed-ended and open-ended questions that are well-organised and pertain to the study's objective. Secondary sources of data refer to preexisting documented information found in books, journals, seminars, and written reports that are deemed necessary to the subject of study.

#### 3.6.2 Method of Data Analysis

The data collected from the questionnaire was analysed using methods such as frequency counts, simple percentage calculations, and correlation analysis.

#### 3.7 Model Specification

The analytical model utilised in this investigation was derived from the works of Basu and Van (1998), Fan (2011), and Zapata et al. (2011). The logit model is defined in its implicit form as:

 $Zi = \beta o + \beta 1 xik + ui \dots (1)$ 

Where:

Zi = Financial Inclusion (dummy, 1= = Child Labour and trafficking and 0, otherwise).

Bo = constant

B1 = coefficient

Xik = set of explanatory variables (i=1,2,..k)

Ui = random error disturbance term.

The explicit form of the model is specified as:

Where: Zi = Child Labour (dummy, 1= Child Labour and 0, otherwise).

 $\beta o = constant term \beta n = parameters to be estimated.$ 

X1= household income (1=household income, 0, otherwise). X2=poverty (1=poverty, 0, otherwise). X3 = Unemployment

(1 = Unemployment, 0, otherwise).

Ui = random disturbance term.

The models are specified as follows;

#### Model one

Y = f(A,G, Hs,E)

Where;

 $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{Income}$  of the household

A= Age

G= Gender

Hs= Household size

E= Employment

#### 3.8 Estimation and Evaluation Techniques and Procedures

This study uses the following estimation techniques and procedures.

Omnibus Test: This diagnostic test will determine the acceptance or rejection of the entire model.

We are analysing the P-value. The model fits the data well if the P-value is less than 0.05. Here, the null hypothesis is that the model lacks a satisfactory fit. We shall, after that, deduce if the entire model is accepted or rejected.

The goodness of fit refers to the accuracy of the predicted value. This statistic will demonstrate how the independent factors can explain variations in the dependent variables, indicating whether all the independent variables are significant in explaining these changes.

Odds Ratio: This represents the probability of an event happening. It denotes predictor X's consistent impact on a particular outcome's probability.

The term "relative risk" is also used to refer to a logit model. The measure quantifies the likelihood of y being equal to 1 compared to y being equal to 0. A ratio of 2 indicates that the probability of the outcome y=1 is twice as high as the probability of the outcome y=0. An odds ratio of 1 indicates equal likelihood, while a more excellent than 1 suggests that y=1 is more probable, and a value less than 1 indicates that y=0 is more probable.

The Nagelkerke R-Squared is a revised version of the Cox and Snell R-Squared. It is considered the most appropriate Pseudo R-squared measure because it has a minimum value of zero (0) and a maximum value of one (1). This statement elucidates the extent to which the predictors in a model contribute to the variability observed in the dependent variable.

**Predictive chance:** Once the models have been estimated, we calculate the chance of y=1 for each observation based on their functional form. This guarantees accurate forecasting of the model.

 $P= pr [y=1/x] =F(x'\beta)$ 

The predicted probability is limited between 0 and 1.

The predicted probability indicates the likelihood of y=1.

Hypothesis Test: H0:  $\beta 0 = 0$  (the parameter estimate is statistically significant)

H1:  $\beta 0 \neq 0$  (the parameter estimate is not statistically significant)

Decision Rule: For p values >0.05, reject H0

The determination of whether to accept or reject any hypothesis mentioned above will depend on the probability of the parameter's predictive ability and the statistical significance of each parameter. When using the two-tail test, we reject the null hypothesis if the p-value exceeds 0.05; otherwise, we accept the null hypothesis. If the p-value is less than 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis if the computed value is smaller than the tabular value in the normal distribution table; otherwise, we accept the null hypothesis. If the anticipated probability suggests the probability of y=1, and if the predicted probability is below 0.05, we can confidently predict that y=1; otherwise, we predict y=0.

#### 4.0 Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Results

# 4.1 Data Presented

400 titled "Questionnaire on the impact of household income on child labour and trafficking in Karu local questionnaires government area, Nasarawa State" were distributed to adult members of multiple homes in Karu local government area, Nasarawa State. Most of these questionnaires were collected and filled out. The success of this project can be attributed to the data collectors' utilisation of comprehensive methods, which involved distributing questionnaires to respondents, conducting individual interviews to clarify and address each question in the questionnaire, and providing guidance on how to record the answers accurately. Of the 400 questionnaires given as part of the sample size, 379 were collected, and all 379 were analysed. The results are presented below.

#### 4.1.1 Response rate

The results of the questionnaire conducted for the study are presented in Table 4.1. A total of 400 questionnaires were sent for completion and return. Of these, 379 questionnaires were completed and returned, resulting in a response rate of 95% across the four locations included in the study. All 379 questionnaires that were received were selected for analysis by the determined sample size. Brooks (2008) states that a response rate of 60% or more is deemed satisfactory for academic research. Based on this criterion, a 95% response rate can be judged sufficient for this current academic study.

	Table	4.1:	Distribu	tion of	Adı	minister	ed (	Juesti	onnaire	Res	ponse	Rare
--	-------	------	----------	---------	-----	----------	------	--------	---------	-----	-------	------

Location	Number distributed	Number returned	Percentage returned	Selected questionnaire
Mararaba	120	114	95	114
Massaka	101	98	97	98
Ado	90	87	96	87
New Karu	89	80	90	80
Total	400	379	95	379

Source: Field Survey, 2024

#### 4.2 Descriptive Analysis

Table 4.2.1: Distribution of Responses Based on Age of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18-30	41	10.82
31-40	206	54.35
41-50	103	27.18
50 & Above	29	7.65
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

The table above displays the distribution of respondents according to age groups. There are 41 respondents (10.82%) aged between 18-30, 206 respondents (54.35%) aged between 31-40, 103 respondents (27.18%) aged between 41-50, and 29 respondents (7.65%) aged over 50. This indicates that a significant proportion of the participants fall within the middle age range.

	<b>Table4.2.2:</b>	Distribution	of Responses	Based on	Gender
--	--------------------	--------------	--------------	----------	--------

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	203	53.56
Male	176	46.44
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

According to the data in the table above, 203 respondents, or 53.56%, identified as female, whereas 176 respondents, or 46.44%, identified as male. This indicates that most of the participants are female.

# Table4.2.3: Distribution of Responses Based on Family Income

Income	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 5,000	164	43.27
5,000 - 50,000	178	47
50,000 - 100,000	30	7.92
100,000 & Above	7	1.81
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

The table above displays the distribution of respondents based on their family income. Out of the total respondents, 164 individuals (43.27%) reported a family income of less than 5,000. Additionally, 178 respondents (47%) had a family income between 5,000 and 50,000. Furthermore, 30 respondents (7.92%) reported a family income between 50,000 and 100,000. Lastly, 7 respondents (1.81%) reported a family income of 100,000 and above. This indicates that most of the respondents' household income falls between 5,000 to 50,000.

#### Table4.2.4: Distribution of Responses Based on Child Help

Child Help	Frequency	Percentage
No	97	25.59
Yes	282	74.41
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

According to the data in the table, 282 participants have children who assist in their enterprises or farms, accounting for 74.41% of the total. On the other hand, 97 participants, or 25.59%, do not have children who help them. This indicates that a significant proportion of the participants have assistance from a youngster in their household.

#### Table4.2.5: Distribution of Responses Based on Household Size of Respondents

Household Size	Frequency	Percentage
2-3	19	5.01
4-8	82	21.64
9 – 14	186	49.08
15 & Above	92	24.27
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

According to the data presented in the table, 19 respondents, accounting for 5.01%, have a household size of 2-3. Additionally, 82 respondents, representing 21.64%, have a household size between 4-8. Furthermore, 186 respondents, making up 49.08%, have a household size between 9-14. Lastly, 92 respondents, comprising 24.27%, have a household size of 15 or more. These findings indicate that most of the participants had a household size that falls within the range of 9-14.

#### Table4.2.6: Distribution of Respondents Based on Child Labour

Child Labour	Frequency	Percentage
No	96	25.33
Yes	283	74.67
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

Based on the data in the table, 283 respondents, or 74.67%, reported having child labourers, whereas 96 respondents, or 25.33%, reported not having child labourers. These findings indicate that most participants have child labourers residing in their homes.

Table4.2.7: Distribution of Responses Based on Child Trafficking

Child Trafficking	Frequency	Percentage
No	213	56.20
Yes	166	43.80
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

According to the data in the table, 213 respondents, or 56.20%, reported having trafficked children, whereas 166 respondents, or 43.80%, did not have trafficked children. These findings indicate that most of the participants do not have any children who have been trafficked living in their homes.

#### Table4.2. 8: Distribution of Responses Based on Gender of the Child/Children affected by Child Labour and Trafficking

Gender affected	Frequency	Percentage
Female	72	19
Male	36	9.50
None	114	30.08
Both	157	41.42
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

The table above shows that 72 respondents, or 19%, identified the Gender of the affected child as female. 36 respondents, or 9.50%, identified the Gender as male. 114 respondents, or 30.08%, reported that they do not have any child affected by child labour and trafficking. Lastly, 157 respondents, or 41.42%, identified male and female as the Gender of the affected child/children. The data indicates that most participants recognised both males and females as the Gender of the kids/children impacted by child labour and trafficking in Karu Local Government.

#### Table4.2.9: Distribution of Responses Based on the Causes of Child Labour and Trafficking

Causes	Frequency	Percentage
Poverty	147	38.79
Low level of Education	5	1.32
Unemployment	83	21.90
Greed	3	0.79
Large family size	27	7.12
School dropout	18	4.75
All of the above	96	25.33
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

The table above shows the distribution of respondents' opinions on the causes of child labour and trafficking. Out of the total respondents, 147 (38.79%) identified poverty as the cause, 5 (1.32%) identified low level of employment, 83 (21.90%) identified unemployment, 3 (0.79%) identified greed, 27 (7.12%) identified large family size, 18 (4.75%) identified school dropout, and 96 (25.33%) selected all the above options as the causes. The data indicates that a significant proportion of the participants identified poverty as the primary factor contributing to child labour and trafficking in Karu Local Government.

#### Table 10: Distribution of Respondents Based on Parents' Level of Employment

Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage	
Unemployed	142	37.47	
Employed	44	11.61	
Underemployed	193	50.92	
Total	379	100	

#### Source: Field Survey, 2024

According to the table, 142 respondents (37.47%) chose "unemployed" as the parent's employment status that would likely lead their children to become labourers and victims of trafficking. 44 respondents (11.61%) selected "employed" as the parent's employment status with the same outcome. Additionally, 193 respondents (50.92%) chose "underemployed" as the parent's employment status associated with their children becoming labourers and victims of trafficking. This data indicates that a significant proportion of the participants chose "underemployed" as the job status of parents, which would likely result in their children being labourers and victims of trafficking in Karu Local Government.

Table 11: Distribution of Responses Based on Parents Level of Skill

Skill	Frequency	Percentage
Skilled	62	16.36
Unskilled	208	54.88
Semi-skilled	109	28.76
Total	379	100

Source: Field Survey, 2024

The table above shows that 62 respondents, accounting for 16.36% of the total, selected skilled as the parents' level of skill that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked. Additionally, 208 respondents, representing 54.88% of the total, chose unskilled as the parents' skill level. Furthermore, 109 respondents, making up 28.76% of the total, selected semi-skilled as the parents' skill level. The data indicates that most of the participants chose "unskilled" as the skill level of parents that their children are likely to become labourers and are trafficked in Karu Local Government.

#### 4.3: Presentation and Analysis of Regression Results

The regression analysis findings for each study's objective are displayed in Tables 12, 13, and 14. The inferential statistics and the rationale for testing the study's hypothesis are presented.

# 4.3.1: Test of Hypothesis One

This study investigated the first hypothesis by employing the logit regression technique. The null hypothesis being tested is that:

H0: Household income does not influence child labour or trafficking in Karu Local Government.

Table 12: Regression Result of Household Income on Child Labour and Child Trafficking

	Child Labour	Child Labour with other Variables	Child Trafficking	Child Trafficking with other Variables
	1	2	3	4
Independent Variable				
Income	-0.4183**	-0.2675	-0.3291**	-0.189
	(0.1564)	(0.4632)	(0.1462)	(0.1963)
Age		-1.0972**		0.0047
		(0.4704)		(0.1632)
Gender		-0.1129		-0.3271
		(0.6252)		(0.2951)
Household Size		8.3121***		4.1273***
		(1.3106)		(0.2911)
Employment		0.4631		0.1321
		(0.3417)		(0.1638)
N	379	379	379	379

Note: Standard error in parenthesis, \*\*\* is Significant at 1%, \*\* is Significant at 5%

Source: Authors Computation, 2024

The regression results in Table 12 indicate that an increase in household income is expected to have a significant adverse effect on child labour and trafficking. Specifically, for objective one of the study, it is found that a 1 unit increase in household income leads to a decrease in child labour by 0.41 units. This relationship is statistically significant at the 5% level of significance. This demonstrates that parents' economic level directly impacts the extent to which their children engage in labour activities. Column 2 contains the income variable and additional factors related to child labour.

Based on the outcome, the income is negative but not statistically significant. This implies that an increase in income is likely to decrease child labour. As individuals grow older, there is a higher probability of a decrease in child labour. This relationship is statistically significant at a 5% level of significance. This indicates that as households age, adults are more likely to take on the complete duty of managing the family rather than relying on children for labour. The Gender of a child has a negligible but non-significant impact. An increase in household size is likely to result in an 8.31 unit increase in child labour, as indicated by the positive and statistically significant coefficient at the 1% significance level. This indicates that a significant proportion of children involved in child labour typically come from families with a high number of members.

An increase in income is expected to decrease child trafficking by 0.33, with statistical significance at the 5% level. This demonstrates that child trafficking is correlated with household poverty, hence perceiving it as a chance to generate income. When regressing child trafficking with other variables in the 4th column, the analysis shows that income and Gender tend to decrease child trafficking, but their impact is not statistically significant. Although age and work are factors that may contribute to an increase in child trafficking, their impact is not considered significant. Nevertheless, the analysis reveals that household size has a statistically significant positive effect at a 1% significance level. This suggests that an increase in household size is likely to lead to a 4.12-unit increase in child trafficking. These findings disclosed the prevalence of child trafficking among individuals from larger households.

# 4.4: Findings of the Study

The primary objective of this study is to examine the influences of household income on child labour and child trafficking in the Karu Local Government area. The data suggests that an increase in household income is likely to lower child labour by 0.41, which is significant at a 5% significance level. This demonstrates that parents' economic level significantly impacts the extent to which their children engage in labour activities. When income is paired with other variables, it has a negative but not statistically significant effect. This means that an increase in income is likely to decrease child labour. As individuals grow older, the likelihood of child labour decreases. This relationship is statistically significant at a 5% level of significance. This suggests that as households age, adults are more likely to take on the complete duty of managing the family rather than relying on children for labour. The Gender

of a child has a negligible but non-significant impact. An increase in household size is likely to result in an 8.31 unit increase in child labour, as indicated by the positive and statistically significant coefficient at the 1% significance level. This indicates that many children involved in child work typically come from families with many members.

An increase in income is expected to decrease child trafficking by 0.33, which is statistically significant at a 5% significance level. This demonstrates that child trafficking is linked to a household's low income, leading individuals to view it as a means of generating money.

The presence of income and Gender may potentially decrease child trafficking; however, the impact is not statistically significant. Although age and work may contribute to an increase in child trafficking, the impact is not considered significant. Nevertheless, the analysis reveals that household size has a statistically significant positive effect at a 1% significance level. This suggests that an increase in household size is likely to lead to a 4.13 unit rise in child trafficking. Thus, it can be inferred that child trafficking is more widespread among households with larger sizes.

This study demonstrates that a significant proportion of children involved in child labour and child trafficking typically originate from homes of considerable size.

Hypothesis III aims to discover the fundamental characteristics that connect household income with child labour and trafficking. The findings indicate that home size, employment, and skill are probable factors contributing to the rise in child labour. However, only household size demonstrates a statistically significant impact. However, when household income is considered, the analysis reveals that an increase in household size is strongly associated with an increased likelihood of child labour. On the other hand, employment and skill levels are strongly associated with a decreased likelihood of child labour. On the other hand, employment and skill levels are strongly associated with a decreased likelihood of child labour.

When analysing child trafficking, it is evident that characteristics such as household income, household size, and employment have a direct impact. Specifically, household income and household size have a positive correlation with child trafficking, whereas employment does not show a significant relationship. However, when the determinants of home income are examined, it is evident that an increase in household size has a considerable positive effect on child trafficking, with a coefficient of 0.71. When employment and skills are associated with household income, there is a notable and statistically significant reduction in child trafficking. The coefficient values for employment and skills are 0.22 and 0.52, respectively.

This study demonstrates that, when considering household income, an increase in household size is positively associated with child labour and child trafficking. Conversely, employment and the acquisition of skills are negatively correlated with child labour and child trafficking.

In summary, the findings of this study suggest that a combination of low household income and a large household size contributes to an increase in child labour and child trafficking in Karu Local Government. Conversely, employment and the acquisition of skills are associated with a decrease in child labour and child trafficking. Additionally, it is worth noting that the prevalence of child labour is higher than that of child trafficking in the Karu Local Government.

# **5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations**

The research investigated the influence of household income on child labour and trafficking in the Karu local government area of Nasarawa State. Primary data collection involved administering a survey, where questionnaires were distributed to selected households and offices. The survey was conducted through face-to-face interviews. The analysis utilised both descriptive and inferential statistics. This study used logit regression to address the three objectives of inferential statistics.

The study found that age and household size significantly impact the relationship between household income and child labour in the Karu local government area. Additionally, household size has a significant impact on the relationship between household income and child trafficking in the same area. However, it is essential to note that these significant findings are limited to certain factors and categories within the variables analysed in the model. Similarly, hypothesis II, which examines the rate of prevalence of child labour and trafficking, yielded regression findings indicating a significant Z-value at the 1% level of significance. This suggests that the prevalence of child labour in the Karu local government area exceeds the average value.

This study explores the impact of household income on child labour and trafficking in Karu Local Government. The study accomplished its objective by using inferential statistics and the logit model regression technique. The results obtained for the specific objectives indicate that an increase in household income and age significantly and negatively impacts child labour. Additionally, an increase in household income is likely to reduce child trafficking. An escalation in the number of people living in a family is likely to result in a rise in child labour and trafficking.

However, when the parameters are combined with household income, it is evident that an increase in home size concerning income has a considerable impact on the occurrence of child trafficking. However, jobs and skills, when related to household income, reveal a negative and considerable decrease in child trafficking. This demonstrates that an increase in home size, in the context of a given household income, is positively correlated with child trafficking. Conversely, employment and the possession of skills are negatively correlated with child trafficking. These data indicate that enhancing household income and addressing parental employment and skill levels may contribute to the reduction of child labour and trafficking in Karu Local Government. Moreover, the findings also suggested that the size of the household has a substantial influence on the relationship between household income and child labour and trafficking in Karu Local Government. The diagnostic test indicate that the model was statistically significant.

To mitigate child labour and trafficking, policymakers should prioritise households with bigger sizes, as they are more inclined to engage their children in labour and exploit them to generate cash to support their extensive families, policymakers should establish additional welfare officers and wellequipped offices to aid children who are victims of labour and trafficking, implementing interventions targeted at enhancing welfare and raising the standard of living in the remote areas of Karu Local Government could potentially be beneficial in mitigating child labour and trafficking. Public and private financial institutions should consider the feasibility of offering loan facilities to households facing difficulties in Karu Local Government to eliminate or minimise the prevalence of child labour and trafficking, furthermore, the analysis reveals that a significant proportion of child labour and trafficking instances arise from households with a high number of members. To address this issue, policymakers in Karu Local Government should provide access to comprehensive education and information on family planning, savings, and investment, it is recommended to deploy officials at critical sites in Karu Local Government to combat child labour and trafficking. This measure aims to prevent the practice of sending children to work and to closely monitor the prevalence of child labour in the area, with the ultimate goal of minimising its occurrence and it is imperative for the authorities in the social welfare office in Karu Local Government to maintain and routinely monitor a comprehensive record of children. This would enable them to effectively monitor and assess the extent of child work and trafficking in the area. Additionally, it is imperative to implement regular monitoring and supervision of social welfare officers in Karu Local Government by external supervisors to ensure their accountability and maintain their diligence.

#### References

Aqil, Z. (2012). Nexus between Poverty and Child-Labor: Measuring the impact of Poverty Alleviation on Child-Labor. Good Thinkers Organization for Human Development, Kasur.

Ayua, I.A. (1999). The Rights of Children in Nigeria. Nigeria Institute of Advanced Legal Studies Lagos, Nigeria.

Becker, G. S. (1962). The Economic Approach to Human Behavior, University of Chicago Press

Dottridge, M. (2008). Rio de Janerio, Brazil: ECPAT International Durkheim, E. (1858-1917). Organic analogy, https://www.tutor2u.net/sociology/reference/whatisfuctionalism

ILO – IPEC (2000); Combating Trafficking in Children for Labour Exploitation in West and Central Africa, Report On Sub-Regional Workshop, Cotonou, Benin 18-20 July.

International Labour Organization (2012), Migrant assistance at a glance. Annual Review. (IOM) Geneva.

International Labour Organization (2022); World report on child labour

Kielland, A. & Tovo, V. (2006). Children at Work: Child Labor Practices in Africa. Inc Boulder London: Lynne Rienner Publisher.

Mackintosh, C.L., & Wori, E.O. (2021). Parental Socioeconomic Status on Child Labour in Port-Harcourt Metropolis. *Research Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities* Vol. 2(1), 12–21, Available online <a href="http://www.scholarly-journals.com/RJSSH">http://www.scholarly-journals.com/RJSSH</a> ISSN 27342026 © 2021 Scholarly-Journals.

Magaji, S. & Musa, I. (2015). Effect of household income on Child Labor in Nigeria" *Lapai International Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 8(1) 32-56.

Magaji, S. (2005). "Legislative Challenges in Strengthening Policies Against Child Labor", in Lilman AN, Dauda S (eds) Issues in Nigeria's Political Development, Zumanta Publication Pp 176–190.

Magaji, S., Musa, I. & Salisu, A. (2022). Impact of Insecurity on Youth Unemployment in Nigeria; Ordinal Least Square estimation technique (OLS). *Indiana Journal of Economics and Business Management* 2(1), 4-9.

Musa, I. & Magaji, S., (2023). Analysis of the Impact of Household Income on Child Labour in Bauchi State, Nigeria. Journal of Arid Zone Economy 1(1): (2023) 130 – 141

Musa, I. Magaji, S. & Tsauni A.M. (2023). Analysis of the Socioeconomic Consequences of Child Labor in Northeastern Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Management, Entrepreneurship and Social Science*, 3(02), 1-14. <u>https://doi.org/10.98765/ajmesc.v3i02.224</u>

Musa, I., Magaji, S., & Tsunami, A.M. (2022). Analysis of the Socioeconomic Determinant of Child Labor in Northeastern Nigeria, Inclusive Society and Sustainability Studies (ISSUES) 2(1) 46-58

Musa, I., Magaji. S. (2023). Nexus between Household Income and Child Labor in Northeastern Nigeria, African Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research, 6(3), 57-70

OECD (2022), "Together, we Create Better Policies for Better Lives" 2022

Okoronkwo, I.N. & Oprah, N.A., (2024). Ocio-Economic Factors That Influence Child Labour in Nigeria. British Journal of Multidisciplinary and Advanced Studies: Business and Management Sciences 5(1),1-15, 2024

Oladokun, Y. O. M., Dada,G.E., Agulanna, F.T., & Adenegan, K.O. (2020). Determinants of Child Labour in Farming Households in Nigeria, International Journal of Innovative Development and Policy Studies 8(4), 83-94

Oli, N. P. & Nweke, C. K. (2021). Determinants and Prevalent Forms of Child Labour Practices

Phoumin, H. (2008). Human capital and hours worked of children in Cambodia: Empirical evidence for policy implications. *Asian Economic Journal*, 22(1), 25

Ruchi, T. (2012). Sustaining by working at the bottom of the pyramid: A case of Indian rugs manufacturing company. Societal Studies, 4(2), 427–442.

Salami, M.A., (2020). Role of Nigerian Labor Force Demand in Domestic Child Trafficking.

 Shailong, C. N., Onuk, E. G. & Beshi, B. A (2011). Socioeconomic Factors Affecting
 Children Hawkers In Lafia Local Government Area, Nasarawa

 State, Nigeria.
 Nasarawa State University, Keffi; 7 (1): 64-73 2011, www.patnsukjournal.net/currentissue

Shehu, A., Kangiwa, I. M. & Umar, N. S (2015). The Effect of Household Poverty on Child Labour in Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development* 6(7), 12-18.

Singleton, D. & Straits, R. (2009). Understudying and Evaluating Survey Research, <u>www.researchgate.net</u>.

Staiger, I. (2005). Trafficking in Children for Sexual Exploitation in the EU. European Journal of Crime, Criminal Law and Criminal Justice, pp. 13, 603–624.

Suda, A. (2001). The Invisible Child Worker in Kenya: The Intersection of Poverty, Legislation and Culture. Nordic Journal of Economics and Sustainable Development 6(7), 12-18

Tola, A. O. (2008). Child Trafficking in Nigeria: Causes, Effects and Remedies. Ego Booster Books, Ogun State, Nigeria.

Udry. C. (2006). "Gender, Agriculture Production and the Theory of Household" Journal of Political Economy 104(5), 1010–1047.

UNICEF (2022); The State of the World Children 2022: Focus on Child Labor. Oxford University Press, Oxford.

United Nations Children Fund (1991). The United Nations Convention and the OAU Charter on Rights of the Child.