ISSN: 2320-2882

IJCRT.ORG



INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CREATIVE RESEARCH THOUGHTS (IJCRT)

An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

EXPLORING THE IMPACT OF HOUSEHOLD INCOME ON CHILD LABOUR AND TRAFFICKING IN SULEJA, NIGER STATE, NIGERIA.

Aikhenomian Praise Obehi¹, 2 Sule Magaji², 3 Abdullahi Idris Ahmad³
 1 Graduate¹, 2 Professor², 3 Graduate Assistant³
 1 Department of Economics, University of Abuja, Abuja, Nigeria¹,
 2 Department of Economics, University of Abuja, Abuja, Nigeria²,
 3 Department of Economics, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria³

2 ORCID: 0000-0001-9583-3993², 3 ORCID: 0009-0000-3149-8567³

ABSTRACT: This study investigates the correlation between household income and the occurrence of child labour and trafficking in Suleja, Niger State. A model was created using the analytical ideas proposed by Basu and Van (1988) and Fan (2011). The study used a multistage sampling strategy to get data from three specifically chosen rural districts in the Suleja Local Government Area of Niger State. The data was collected by distributing questionnaires to 367 families in the 3 chosen rural areas of Suleja Local Government Area. The study findings indicate a significant occurrence of child labour and trafficking in Suleja, Niger State, Nigeria. It is recommended that both individuals and the government pay attention to and actively participate in efforts to eliminate child labour and trafficking. This will help to limit the involvement of children in these harmful practices.

Index Terms: Child Labour, Trafficking, Household Income, Rural Districts, Elimination Efforts

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), around 218 million children globally are impacted by child labour, with 102 million of them engaged in employment at a young age. Rural households persist in this behaviour, which has a detrimental effect on their involvement and achievement in education. Africa has a total of 72.1 million child labourers, as reported by the United Nations. Out of them, 31.5 million children are engaged in hazardous working situations. Child labour is a significant problem in Sub-Saharan Africa, impacting approximately 48 million children.

Child labour in Nigeria is the practice of employing individuals who are under the age of 18 in a way that limits or obstructs their capacity to participate in early childhood development and education (Musa, et al., 2023). Child work is widespread in every state throughout the nation (Magaji, 2005). Children often endure hazardous working conditions, lack of safety measures, extended work hours, meagre remuneration, exposure to pesticides, and reliance on chemical fertilisers when they are used as forced labour. Furthermore, an increasing proportion of street youths engage in the activities of begging, as well as working as porters and scavengers (Magaji & Musa, 2015).

Child labour refers to any form of employment that causes harm to children or prevents them from attending school (Public Education Project, 2010). Child labour encompasses any type of labour that deprives children of their youth, potential, and dignity, while also impeding their physical and mental growth. Child trafficking is the action of taking children away from their secure environments and making use of their weaknesses to

exploit them, as defined by the International Labour Organisation in 2000. Child trafficking is the illegal movement of minors, with the main purpose of subjecting them to forced work or sexual exploitation.

According to the International Labour Organisation, there are around 160 million children between the ages of 5 and 7 who are engaged in child labour, and about 1.2 million of them are trafficked every year. 9% of children in Africa are involved in child labour, with a total of 72.1 million children engaging in such activities, and 31.5 million children exposed to hazardous jobs. According to UNICEF, 26% of children between the ages of 5 and 17 are engaged in child labour in Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern and Southern Africa. the least developed countries, and West Africa.

Recent estimates from the International Labour Organisation in 2022 reveal 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 rights and welfare, it was found that from 2015 to 2018, over 600,000 children in West Africa fell prey to cross-border trafficking.

Nigeria experiences both internal and external trafficking of children, with 43% trapped in child labor. Internal trafficking involves recruitment and transportation from rural areas to urban centers, while external trafficking involves crossing national borders for various labor forms. The average age of trafficked children is 15, and children make up 28% of victims.

UNICEF reported that 20% of the suicide attacks in Nigeria were committed by children. Northern Nigerian children are being forced by terrorist group boko haram to carry out suicide attacks, a form of exploitation. Child labor and child trafficking are common in developing countries, with 250 million children working between ages 5-14 in Nigeria. The Emirate of Suleja, known for agricultural activities, is one area where these activities are rampant. Poverty is a significant factor in perpetuating child labor in Nigeria, as many parents cannot afford education, leading to children working instead. This cycle of poverty and lack of access to education makes it difficult for children to escape its clutches.

Another study conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) found that child labor was more prevalent in rural areas like Suleja local government area due to limited job opportunities and low levels of education. The study also found that child labor was more common among children from poor households, highlighting the link between poverty and child labor.

Child trafficking in Nigeria is a significant issue due to household income, poverty, and lack of education and job opportunities. Traffickers often offer large sums of money in exchange for children, often forced into exploitative labor or sexual slavery. To address the issue of child labor and child trafficking in Suleja local government area, it is essential to address the underlying causes of poverty and lack of access to education and job opportunities. 10

1.1 Research Question

This question this research work aims to answer is.

What is the prevalence rate of child Labour and child trafficking in Suleja?

1.2 Objective of the Study

The specific objective of the study is to

Investigate the prevalence rate of child Labour and child trafficking in Suleja.

1.3 Statement of Hypothesis

The research is guided by the following null hypothesis.

There is no significant relationship between the prevalence rate of child Labour and child trafficking in Suleja.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Review

There are three key concepts to understand here, and they are child labour, child trafficking and household income. In subsequent sections these concepts will be dissected and the relationship between them made clear.

2.2 Concept of Child Labour

According to UNICEF (2022), child labour refers to work that is perilous, detrimental, and robs children of their potential and dignity. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) both prioritise the need of safeguarding children from violence, sexual exploitation, and dangerous employment. The categorization of labour is contingent upon variables such as the child's age, nature of employment, working conditions, and national goals.

Child labour is any employment undertaken by a person under the age of 18, in exchange for monetary compensation, which causes detrimental effects on their physical well-being, educational opportunities, and overall growth. It impacts a total of 215 million children globally and is distinguished by meagre salaries and extended periods of physically demanding labour. Although child labour is sometimes criticised for exploiting young individuals who lack maturity, it is regarded as a beneficial practice in Africa and Asia since it allows youngsters to acquire valuable skills. Some studies analyse it from a financial standpoint, as it produces immediate cash, while others contend that it involves sacrificing future income in return for extra income during crucial periods, which may adversely affect a child's capacity to attend school or balance school with excessive work hours.

2.3 Concept of Child Trafficking

Child trafficking is a widespread issue that occurs worldwide and is considered the third most significant form of criminal activity. It includes the process of recruiting, transporting, transferring, harbouring, or receiving minors with the intention of exploiting them, either within a country or beyond international borders. The issue is often linked to unemployment and illiteracy, as traffickers incorrectly feel that trafficking their children would lead to an improvement in their quality of life. Children are forcefully separated from their families, friends, communities, and support systems, putting their development and survival at risk. Child trafficking is a flagrant infringement of basic human rights and has a significant effect on countless children worldwide.

2.4 Concept of Household Income

In 2022, household disposable income, as defined by OECD countries, includes many elements such as consumer spending, savings, earnings, mixed income, property income, current transfers, social benefits, taxes, and social security contributions. It encompasses the amount of money that Non-profit Institutions Serving Households (NPISH) have available to spend or save. Household income is a vital metric for lenders and serves as an economic indicator of the quality of life in a certain location, considering all family members who are above a specified age.

2.5 Theoretical Review

The poverty hypothesis theory posits that child labour and child trafficking are inevitable consequences of poverty. It suggests that in many underdeveloped countries with limited technological advancements, increasing unemployment rates, and decreasing household incomes, children are compelled to participate in labour to alleviate economic strain and fulfil the consumption needs of their households. This theory is supported by studies conducted by Amin (1994), Khathar, Malik, and Malik (1998), and Verlet (1994). In this situation, child labour and/or child trafficking can become necessary for families to survive. During times of economic downturn, when parents lose their jobs, many children may be forced to work to support their family. Research conducted in underdeveloped areas of Africa has substantiated the poverty hypothesis by establishing a significant association between economic hardship and the prevalence of child labour and trafficking.

2.5 Empirical Review

2.6 Child Labour

In their study, Abdu, Rabiu, and Usman (2020) investigated the impact of child labour on the education of children in Northern Nigeria. Data analysis involved the utilisation of both descriptive and inferential statistics. The findings indicated a substantial association between the degree of engagement in child employment, the factors contributing to it, and the perceived impact on education. Furthermore, it demonstrates a noteworthy correlation between family wealth, a mother's work, and their impact.

Oli & Nweke (2021) investigate the factors that influence and the common types of child labour practices in eastern Nigeria. The study employed a research strategy that combined both qualitative and quantitative methods. The questionnaire was the main instrument used for data collection. The study's findings suggest that child labour practices are mostly influenced by factors such as inadequate household income, poverty, parents' level of education, family size, cultural attitudes, and living in a slum area. The findings also suggest that the predominant types of child employment practices include hawking, street begging, domestic labour, agriculture, and factory work.

Oladokun, Dada, Agulanna, and Adenegan (2020) examine the determinants of child work in agricultural households in Nigeria. Comprehensive research was undertaken to investigate the determinants of child labour. The study employed data from the General Household Survey (GHS 2015/2016), which consisted of information from 765 families living in rural Nigeria. The data was partitioned into the six Geo-Political Zones of Nigeria, specifically the North-Central, North-West, North-East, South-East, South-South, and South-West regions. The study gathered data on socio-economic attributes including age, family size, marital status, level of education, and membership in a cooperative organisation. The data was examined using

descriptive statistics and logit regression, with a significance threshold of $\alpha 0.05$. The study's findings suggest that child work has detrimental consequences on the welfare of children.

Olukunmi (2017) investigates the socio-economic determinants of child labour in Ilorin, Kwara state. Questionnaires were employed to acquire the data. A grand total of 400 questionnaires were disseminated across the five local government units of Ilorin city. The data was evaluated using descriptive statistical methods as well as inferential statistics, notably the chi-square test. The results suggest that a lower household income has a considerable impact on the prevalence of child labour in different homes. The size of a family and the educational background of parents have a significant influence on child labour.

Musa and Magaji (2023) examined the correlation between household income and child labour in Northeastern Nigeria. They utilised the logit regression methodology for their investigation. The results suggest that household income is the main predictor affecting child labour and trafficking, along with other socioeconomic factors. The report proposes that governments at all levels should prioritise the creation of employment opportunities and the augmentation of income levels.

Mackintosh and Wori (2021) examined the influence of parental socio-economic status on child labour in the Port Harcourt Metropolis. The study utilised a 14-item questionnaire known as "Parental Socio-economic Status on Child Labour" (PSSCL) as the main instrument for collecting data. The study encompassed a collective sample size of 126 participants, comprising 45 parents and 81 children. The study employed a descriptive survey research design to obtain reliable data. Analysed statistical measures, such as mean and standard deviation, were used to the data collected from primary and secondary sources. The study's results unveiled a significant association between the socio-economic status of parents and the occurrence of child labour.

The research carried out by Musa, et al., in North-Eastern Nigeria found that many socioeconomic factors such as age, gender, relationship with the family head, education, occupation, and poverty level of children played a significant role in influencing child labour. Furthermore, it was found that household income had a substantial impact on the determination of child labour and trafficking. Consequently, the government should prioritise the creation of work opportunities and the augmentation of income levels to address this issue.

Shehu, et al (2015) examine the influence of household poverty on child labour in Nigeria. The study used nationally representative household-level data from Nigeria to examine the effect of poverty on the likelihood of impoverished households, including their children, engaging in labour activities. The analysis employed a univariate probit model, which demonstrated that per adult consumer spending, used as a measure of household welfare, has a substantial and adverse effect on households' decision to involve children in labour. The expected outcome also suggests that the characteristics of the child, parent, home, and community significantly influence the decision to involve children in domestic labour.

A research investigation was conducted by Amao and Akinlade (2015) focusing on child labour in homes engaged in horticulture in Bauchi State, Nigeria. The study specifically aimed to analyse and understand the differences in treatment and opportunities based on gender. The study gathered data on the characteristics of children, households, and communities. The data was examined using descriptive statistics and the multinomial logit regression model, with a significance level established at p=0.05. According to the data, the percentage of female youths who only go to school was 29.30%, while for boys it was 18.85%. Boys demonstrated a greater degree of involvement in work outside of their residence, particularly in activities associated with the family agricultural enterprise, with a participation percentage of 74.62%. In contrast, females were predominantly engaged in domestic responsibilities, with a participation percentage of 56.69%. In addition, females devoted a greater amount of time to these activities in comparison to attending school. The likelihood of adolescents participating in child labour increases as they age, irrespective of their gender. The presence of farmland ownership in a household increases the likelihood of male children engaging in all possible activities. There is a direct relationship between having more preschool-aged children (0-4 years) in the household and the increased probability of female offspring working full time.

Agu (2015) examines the correlation between child work and economic progress in Nigeria, with a particular emphasis on a case study conducted in Ekiti State, Nigeria. A stratified random sample method was utilised to choose 535 participants who were recognised as actively involved in child work. The identifying process involved conducting interviews, distributing questionnaires, and organising concentrated group discussions. The data gathered from the field were evaluated utilising regression analysis and chi-square (X2) tests, performed on SPSS, to ascertain the degree of significant disparity. The results demonstrate a clear correlation between poverty, unemployment, school dropout, and child labour.

2.7 Child Trafficking

Abdul Rashed and Oladipo (2013) and Ezeh and Oli (2021) performed comparative surveys to examine the relationship between unemployment and human trafficking. A study found that there is a negative relationship between food security and youth unemployment in Gambia. In contrast, the unemployment rate in Nigeria is strongly influenced by purchasing power parity. The report suggests that the governments of Nigeria and the Gambia should adopt measures to decrease young unemployment and prevent human trafficking. Ezeh and Oli's research found that avarice and deprivation are crucial factors that contribute to the vulnerability of children to trafficking.

In a study conducted by Nwokeoma (2010), attitudes and beliefs regarding the factors that influence human trafficking were compared between Imo and Edo States in Nigeria. The study applied a cross-sectional survey approach and implemented a multi-stage sampling procedure to achieve a required sample size of 1200. The study incorporated a blend of primary and secondary sources of data. The study uncovered a substantial occurrence of human trafficking in both states. Edo State had a higher occurrence of women trafficking, whereas Imo State demonstrated a greater prevalence of child trafficking, as recorded by the researcher. The poll indicated that most traffickers were largely close relatives and parents. The age groups most vulnerable to being trafficked include women aged 15-24 and children aged 6-15. The poll also found that those who were unemployed and not enrolled in school were primarily the victims of trafficking. Another important factor that had a notable link with human trafficking was households typified by many children. Ndiora, (2011) conducted a study that investigated the perception of Onitsha citizens on female trafficking and organised crime in Nigeria. The study applied a cross-sectional survey approach and employed cluster and systematic sampling procedures to determine a sample size of 636 respondents. The data gathering procedure utilised a questionnaire schedule and a comprehensive guide to acquire both quantitative and qualitative data. The study uncovered a notable lack of consciousness among a substantial portion of Onitsha inhabitants on the prevalence of female trafficking. Moreover, it has demonstrated a clear and direct link between poverty and the widespread occurrence of female trafficking.

The study additionally discovered a noteworthy correlation between level of education and trafficking, with the primary driving element for traffickers being the desire to generate income.

Dada (2013) conducted a study to investigate the factors influencing juvenile street hawking and its consequences in Agege, Lagos State, Nigeria. A purposive selection strategy was used to choose a sample of 100 persons from Agege Local Government Area in Lagos State. Data analysis approaches such as basic percentages and frequency distribution tables were utilised. The study uncovered a low degree of comprehension among the affected youngsters regarding the inherent hazards linked to child hawking. The study also discovered a significant association between the issue of child labour and parameters such as the educational level of parents, the occupation of parents, and the size of the household. Financial destitution forces impoverished families to include their children in employment to provide and supply monetary support to their households.

In a study conducted by Oluseye and Christianah in 2014 about trafficking of women and children, it was discovered that 16.8% of the women who were interviewed had reported experiencing trafficking. The predominant kind of labour was commercial sex, with child labour being the subsequent most prevalent. The biggest culprits were persons who had received a formal education. Contributing factors to trafficking including poverty, parental discrimination, little awareness, family breakdown, inadequate government oversight, and unfavourable socio-economic circumstances. The study suggests the implementation of comprehensive legislation to address the issue of trafficking.

Adesina (2014) examines the correlation between child trafficking and poverty in the country. This study specifically examines child trafficking and poverty in Nigeria as instances of modern-day slavery. The author argues that the problem of human trafficking in Nigeria, namely concerning children, has reached a critical degree of concern. The study especially focused on the issue of domestic child trafficking to address a gap in the existing research. It utilises notions that pertain to restricted opportunities. The study's findings suggest that there is a strong correlation between extreme poverty, which is strongly linked to unemployment, and the prevalence of child trafficking in Nigeria. Additional concerns encompass the absence of dependable institutions and pervasive lack of knowledge.

Ezeh and Oli (2021) investigate the socio-economic factors that contribute to the vulnerability of children to trafficking in the Awka South Local Government Area, located in the southeastern part of Anambra State, Nigeria. The study utilises a research methodology that combines qualitative and quantitative methods and includes a multi-step sampling approach for participant selection. The sample size of 384 was calculated using Cochran's procedure for determining sample size. Employed descriptive statistics to analyse the data. Their discovery demonstrates that avarice and destitution are significant catalysts that render young

individuals more susceptible to trafficking. The study was exclusively done inside the confines of the Awka South Local Government Area of Anambra State.

Musa and Magaji (2023) investigate the relationship between household income and child labour in Northeastern Nigeria using the logit regression methodology. The findings indicate that household income is the primary determinant influencing child labour and trafficking, along with other socioeconomic characteristics. The research suggests that governments at all levels should give priority to the development of job possibilities and the increase of income levels.

III. **METHODOLOGY**

3.1 The Study Area

The study focuses on Niger state, Nigeria's North-Central geopolitical zone, with Minna as its capital. Established in 1976, it has a population of 3,934,772 and a land mass of 76,363 km². Suleja, a major city, serves as the case study, with a population of 261,000 and 2980 sq km of land.

3.2 Population of the Study

The population of the study comprises residents of the suleja local government area of Niger state is 261,000. **3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Technique**

This study utilises random sampling to examine the variables. The study's sample size would be established using the Taro Yamani Formula. The sample size for this investigation was established using the Yamani (1968) formula for calculating sample size.

n = N

 $1+n(e)^{2}$

Where: n= sample size

N= 261,000 (population size)

e= 0.05(sample error level of significance)

1 = constant

261,000 n =

 $1+261,000 (0.05)^2$

The sample size is 400 respondents

3.4 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 information on the socio-economic gender. characteristics of the respondents. such age and among others. as The second segment aims to gather the opinions of the participants regarding the influence of household income on child labour and child trafficking in Suleja, Niger State.

n = 400

3.5 Nature and Source of Data

To generate data to address the objectives of the research, primary and secondary source were used. Sources of primary data were basically from field survey done in the study area. Secondary data was collected from publication like books, journals, seminar papers and written report considered relevant to the subject of study. **3.6 Method of Data Collection**

Two methods of primary data collection were used to collect information from the field in addition to the secondary sources of data. The two method of primary data collection employed are questionnaires and personal interview methods. An oral interview would be administered to the individual as well as questionnaires with both close-to-close ended and open-ended questions relating to the target of the study would be well structured. The secondary sources of data involve already documented information in books, journals, seminars, and written reports considered relevant to the subject of study.

3.7 Method of Data Analysis

Data gathered through the questionnaire was analyzed using frequency counts, simple percentages, and correlation analysis.

3.8 Theoretical Framework

3.8.1 Theory of Child Labour and 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 labor/trafficking.

JCR

3.8.2 Becker's New Household Economic Theory

The conventional consumer theory, notwithstanding its limitations, provides an inadequate understanding of consumer behaviour, especially within the context of a home. The alternative model, sometimes referred to as a neoclassical model of consumer behaviour, has integrated certain components that were absent in the old theory.

In his 1962 work, 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 idea was also utilised in the context of emerging nations, specifically for examining agricultural households. Becker's method offers significant and valuable fresh perspectives to the conventional consumer theory. One notable example is his recognition of the home as a unit that engages in both consuming and production activities. Nevertheless, a significant number of Becker's concepts regarding household economic behaviours have been previously introduced, and hence cannot be considered as novel. However, his presentation was more formalised than any of the previous ones. Neoclassical models of household decision making, which are often used to study child labour, are mostly based on the work of Becker.

Household bargaining models can be classified into two main categories: those where children lack bargaining power and those where children possess inherent worth within the family. In scenarios where children lack influence in decision-making, parents typically make choices that prioritise their own interests, often disregarding the potential consequences for the child. This provides analytical support 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.

3.9 Model Specification

The analytical model adopted for this study was based on Basu and Van (1998), Fan (2011), and Zapata et al. (2011). The implicit form of the logit model is specified as:

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:

 $1 - Pi = \beta 0 + \beta 1 x 1 + \beta 2 x 2 + \beta 3 x 3 + ui.....(3)$

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

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

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 model is specified below:

3.9.1 Model

Child Labour and Trafficking = f(E)

Where, E= Employment

The binary logistic model was chosen due to its capacity for a logically significant interpretation and its ability to incorporate many variables. In addition to its basic computational simplicity, the research aimed to uncover the major variables that influence a decision with a binary conclusion, while also being highly adaptable and user-friendly. Due to the binary nature of the dependent variable, the ordinary least square (OLS) technique was unsuitable for estimating the model.

3.9.2 Estimation and Evaluation Techniques and Procedures.

Ominivous Test: This is a test that will determine whether the entire model is deemed acceptable or not. We are currently analysing the P-value. If the P-value is less than 0.05, it indicates that the model fits the data well. Here, the null hypothesis is that the model does not have a satisfactory fit. We shall thereafter deduce if the overall model is acceptable or not.

Goodness of fit: This value has been precisely forecasted. This statistic will quantify the extent to which

the independent factors can account for differences in the dependent variables, demonstrating if all the independent variables are important in explaining these changes.

The odds ratio is a measure that quantifies the likelihood of an event occurring relative to the likelihood of it not occurring. It represents the ongoing influence of a predictor X on the likelihood of a specific result. The term "relative risk" is also employed to denote a logit model. It measures the probability of y being equal to 1 relative to the probability of y being equal to 0. An odds ratio of 2 signifies that the likelihood of the outcome y=1 is twice as great as the likelihood of the outcome y=0. An odds ratio of 1 show that the probability of y=1 is the same as the probability of y=0. A odds ratio above 1 indicates a higher likelihood of y=1, whereas an odds ratio below 1 indicates a greater probability of y=0.

The Nagelkerke R-Squared is an improved iteration of the Cox and Snell R-Squared. The Pseudo R-Squared measure is deemed the most appropriate because it ranges from zero (0) to one (1), with zero being the least value and one being the maximum value. The term "quantifies" refers to the process of measuring or determining the amount of change. In this context, it is used to describe the measurement of the amount of change in the dependent variable that can be assigned to the predictors in a model.

Probability forecast: After estimating the models, we determine the probability of y=1 for each observation using their functional form. This ensures precise prediction of the model.

The probability P of y being equal to 1 given x is represented by the function $F(x'\beta)$.

The projected probability is constrained within the range of 0 to 1.

The anticipated probability represents the probability of y=1 occurring.

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

H1: β 0 is statistically insignificant (the parameter estimate is not statistically significant)

Decision Rule: Reject the null hypothesis (H0) for p-values greater than 0.05.

The acceptance or rejection of each hypothesis mentioned above will depend on the likelihood of the parameter's ability to make predictions and the statistical significance of each parameter. If the p-value exceeds 0.05 in a two-tail test, the null hypothesis is rejected. If the p-value is less than or equal to 0.05, we can infer that there is enough evidence to substantiate the null hypothesis. When 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 denotes the probability of y=1, and the approximated probability is below 0.05, we can confidently forecast that y=1. On the other hand, our forecast indicates that the value of y will be zero.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Data Presented

An Adult member of several households in Suleja, Niger state was given a total of 400 questionnaires, and most were retrieved and completed. The methods employed by the data collectors who not only gave out questionnaires to the respondents but interviewed them individually about each question in the questionnaire and guided them to understand and answer the questions in the questionnaire and instructed them on how the proper answers could be recorded, can be credited to the overall success of this. Out of the 400 copies of questionnaires distributed following the sample size, 369 were retrieved and all 369 were analyzed, and the findings are displayed below.

4.2 Response Rate

Displayed in Table 4.1 are the results of the questionnaire administered for the study. A total number of 400 questionnaires were distributed to be completed and returned, and 369 were completed and returned corresponding to a 92% response rate across the four locations of interest included in the study. Of the 369 returned questionnaires, all 369 were chosen for analysis, following the calculated sample size. According to Brooks (2008), a response rate of 60% or higher is considered sufficient for academic research. Based on this criterion, a 92% response rate can be considered adequate for this current academic study.

Table 4.1: Distribution of administered questionnaire response rare				
Location	Number	Number	Percentage	Selected
	distributed	returned	returned	questionnaire
Unhuwan	140	127	90	127
Tudu				
Madallah	129	119	92	119
Maje	130	122	93	122
Social welfare office, church	1	1	100	1
road				
Total	400	369	92	369

Source: Field Survey, 2023

4.3 Descriptive Analysis

Table 4.2.1: Distribution of responses based on age of Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18-30	39	10.57
31-40	156	42.28
41-50	149	40.38
50 & Above	25	6.78
Total	369	100
G EL 11G	0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the Table above, the respondents age between18-30 are 39 representing 10.57%, those between31-40 are 156 representing 42.28%, also, those with ages 41-50 are 149 representing 40.38%, and those above 50 years of age are 25 representing 6.78%. This shows that a majority of the respondents are within the middle age.

Table4.2.2: Distribution of responses based on Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	223	60.43
Male	146	39.57
Total	369	100
C	2022	

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, the respondents' gender identified as Female are 223 representing 60.43%, and the respondents identifying as Male are 146 representing 39.57%. This shows that most of the respondents are Female.

Table4.2.3: Distribution of responses based on family Income

Income	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 10,000	150	40.65
10,000 - 50,000	163	44.17
50,000 - 100,000	43	11.65
100,000 & Above	13	3.52
Total	369	100

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, the respondents with a family income of Less than 10,000 are 150 representing 40.65% those with a family income between 10, 000-50,000 are 163 representing 44.17%, those with a family income between 50,000-100,000 are 43 representing 11.65%, those with a family income of 100,000 and above are 13 representing 3.52%. This shows that most of the respondents' family incomes are between 10,000-50,000.

Table4.2.4:]	Distribution	of response	es based on	child Help
			_	

Child Help	Frequency	Percentage	
No	109	29.54	
Yes	260	70.46	
Total	369	100	
Sources Field Summer 2022			

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, 260 respondents have children who help in businesses or farms representing 70.46% and 109 respondents representing 29.54% do not. This shows that most of the respondents have child help in their household.

Table4.2.5: Distribution of responses based on household Size of Respondents

Household Size	Frequency	Percentage	
2 - 3	3	0.81	
4 - 8	88	23.85	
9-14	166	44.99	
15 & Above	112	30.35	
Total	369	100	

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, the respondents with a household size of 2-3 are 3 representing 0.81%, those with a household size between 4-8 are 88 representing 23.85%, those with household size between 9-14 are 166 representing 44.99%, those with household size from 15 and above are 112 representing 30.35%. This shows that most of the respondents have a household size ranging from 9-14.

Table4.2.6: Distribution of respondents based on child Labour

Child Labour	Frequency	Percentage
No	101	27.37
Yes	268	72.63
Total	369	100
C D: 11C	2022	

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, the respondents with child labourers are 268 representing 72.63%, and those without child labourers are 101 representing 27.37%. This shows that a majority of the respondents have child labourers in their household.

Table4.2.7: Distribution of responses based on child trafficking

Child Trafficking	Frequency	Percentage
No	192	52.03
Yes	177	47.97
Total	369	100
a = 11a		

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, the respondents with trafficked children are 177 representing 47.97%, and those without trafficked children are 192 representing 52.03%. This shows that a majority of the respondents do not have trafficked children in their household.

Table4.2. 8: Distribution of responses based on gender of the child/children affected by child labour and trafficking

Gender affected	Frequency	Percentage
Female	54	14.63
Male	27	7.32
None	102	27.64
Both	186	50.41
Total	369	100

Source: Field Survey, 2023

© 2024 IJCRT | Volume 12, Issue 4 April 2024 | ISSN: 2320-2882

www.ijcrt.org

From the result in the table above, the gender of the child affected identified as female is 54 representing 14.63%, the gender of the child affected identified as male is 27 representing 7.32%, 102 representing 27.64% of the respondents do not have any child/children affected by child labour and trafficking, and 186 representing 50.41% of the respondents identified both male and female as the gender of the child/children affected. This shows that a majority of the respondents identified both male and female as the gender of the child/children affected by child labour and trafficking in suleja.

Frequency	Percentage
137	37.13
6	1.63
70	18.97
5	1.36
42	11.38
3	0.81
106	28.73
369	100
	137 6 70 5 42 3 106

Table4.2.9: Distribution of responses based on the causes of child labour and trafficking

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above,137 representing 37.13% of the respondents selected poverty as the cause of child labour and trafficking,6 representing 1.63% of the respondents selected low level of employment as the cause of child labour and trafficking,70 representing 18.97% of the respondents selected unemployment as the cause of child labour and trafficking,5 representing 1.36% of the respondents selected large family size as the cause of child labour and trafficking,3 representing 0.81% selected school dropout as the cause of child labour and trafficking,3 representing 0.81% selected school dropout as the cause of child labour and trafficking, and 106 representing 28.73% selected all of the above options as the cause of child labour and trafficking. This shows that most of the respondents selected poverty as the cause of child labour and trafficking.

Table 4.3: Distribution of respondents based on Parents level of employment

Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage
Unemployed	135	36.53
Employed	36	9.76
Underemployed	198	53.66
Total	369	100

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, 135 representing 36.53% of the respondents selected unemployed as the parents level of employment that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked, 36 representing 9.76% of the respondents selected employed as the parents level of employment that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked, 198 representing 53.66% selected underemployed as the parents level of employment that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked, 198 representing 53.66% selected underemployed as the parents level of employment that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked. This shows that most of the respondents selected underemployed as the Parents level of employment that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked in suleja.

Table 4.3.1: Distribution of responses based on Parents Level of Skill

Skill	Frequency	Percentage
Skilled	48	13.04
Unskilled	225	61.14
Semi-skilled	95	25.82
Total	369	100

Source: Field Survey, 2023

From the result in the table above, 48 representing 13.04% of the respondents selected skilled as the parents level of skill that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked, 225 representing 61.14% of the respondents selected unskilled as the parents level of skill that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked, 95 representing 25.82% of respondents selected semi-skilled as the parents level of skill that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked. This shows that most of the respondents selected underemp as the Parents level of skill that their children are likely to be labourers and trafficked.

4.4 Presentation and Analysis of Regression Results

The regression analysis results of the study's objective are presented in table 12. It shows the inferential statistics and the justifications for testing the study's hypothesis.

Test of Hypothesis

This study examined the hypothesis using the logit regression technique. The tested null hypothesis is that:

H0: There is no significant relationship between the prevalence rate of child labour and child trafficking in Suleja.

	Child labour	Child Trafficking
	At 50% Response	At 50% Response
Mean	0.7262	0.4796
Standard Error	0.0232	0.0260
Z Value	8.6937***	-0.7809
P-Value	0.0000	0.4349
Ν	369	369

Table 4.4: Proportional test of at least 50% prevalence of child labour and employment

*Note: *** is Significant at 1% Source: Authors Computation*

The result in Table 12 shows the regression results of the equation for the objective of the study, which investigates the response of the respondents in terms of the rate of prevalence of child labour and child trafficking, given the proportion view of 50% from the 369 respondents. For child labour, the prevalence is high with the mean value of 0.73 and standard error of 0.02. The Z-value is 8.69 which is positive and significant at 1% level of significance, indicating that the prevalence of child labour is above the average value.

For child trafficking, the prevalence is low with the mean value of 0.48 and standard error of 0.03. The Z-value is -0.78 though not significant at any significance level, and this shows that the prevalence of child trafficking is below the average value i.e, low prevalence when compared to child labour.

4.5 Implication of Findings

In this study, the objective aims to investigate the response of the respondents in terms of the rate of prevalence of child labour and child trafficking in Suleja. The results show that given the proportion view of 50% from the 369 respondents. For child labour, the prevalence is high with the mean value of 0.73 and standard error of 0.02. The Z-value is 8.69 which is positive and significant at 1% level of significance, indicating that the prevalence of child labour is above the average value.

For child trafficking, the prevalence is low with the mean value of 0.48 and standard error of 0.03. The Z-value is -0.78 though not significant at any significance level, and this shows that the prevalence of child trafficking is below the average value.

This shows that the rate of child labour is higher than the rate of child trafficking in Suleja.

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Summary

The study examined in prevalence rate of child labour and trafficking in Suleja, Niger state. Primary data was collected by conducting a survey in which returned questionnaires were used to conduct a cross-sectional survey of sampled houses and offices which were delivered through a face-to-face interview. In the analysis, a descriptive and inferential statistics were employed. In the case of the inferential statistics, logit regression was adopted for the objective of this study.

For the hypothesis, which focuses on the rate of prevalence of child labour and trafficking, the regression results showed that the Z-value is significant at 1% level of significance, indicating that the prevalence of child labour in suleja is above the average value.

For child trafficking, the Z-value not significant at any significance level, and this shows that the prevalence of child trafficking is below the average value i.e, low prevalence when compared to child labour. The diagnostic results of the regression output showed that the model is statistically significant.

5.2 Conclusion

This study examines prevalence rate of child labour and trafficking in suleja. The objective of this study was achieved through the inferential statistics of logit model regression technique employed revealing results for the specific objectives which shows that, child labour has a higher prevalence rate than child trafficking in suleja. The diagnostic test showed that the model was overall significant.

5.3 Recommendations

To combat child labour and trafficking in Suleja, Niger State, we recommend strengthening legal frameworks, conducting awareness campaigns, engaging local communities, improving access to education, and promoting economic empowerment. By enforcing existing laws, educating communities, involving local leaders, ensuring education access, and empowering families economically, we can work towards eliminating harmful practices and safeguarding children's rights.

5.4 Contribution to knowledge

The contribution of this analysis to comprehending the impact of household income on child labour and trafficking is substantial. Through a meticulous exploration employing regression modelling, relationship checks, and questionnaire administration, the study unearthed pivotal insights into the drivers and implications of those drivers on child labour and trafficking in suleja.

By Pinpointing the importance of proper education, empowerment schemes and efficiency of the social welfare officers and policymakers, this analysis furnishes policymakers with solid directions for formulating strategies targeted to reducing or putting an end to child labour and child trafficking.

REFERENCES

[1] Abdu, A., Rabiu, I. & Usman A.L. (2020). Effect of Child Labour on Children's Education in Katsina State, Nigeria: *Mediterranean*

Journal of Social Sciences. 2(6), 70-92.

- [2] Abdulrasheed, S. & Oladipo, A. R. (2018). Trafficking in Women and Children: A Hidden Health and Social Problem in Nigeria, 2(3), 16.
- [3] Adesina, O. S. (2014). Modern day slavery: Poverty and child trafficking in Nigeria. African Identities, 12 (2), 165-179.
- African Committee of Experts on Children Rights and Welfare. (2022). Mapping children on the move within Africa,

https://reporting.acerwc.africa/en/resources/publications/mapping-children-move-within-africa

- [4] Agu, C.O. (2015). Child Labour and Economic Development in Nigeria: A Case Study of Ekiti State, Nigeria. *International Journal of*
- Economic Perspectives, 2015, Volume 9, Issue 4, 27-36.
- [5] Aluko, O. O & Magaji, S (2020). Stagflation and poverty incidence in West Africa Sub-Region: A perspective. *International Journal of*

Advanced Research in Social Sciences, Environmental Studies, and Technology, 5(1), 38-59.

- [6] Amao, I. & Akinlade, R (2015). Child Labour among Horticultural Households in Bauchi State, Nigeria: A gender perspective.
- [7] 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.
- [8] Ayua, I.A. (1999). The Rights of Children in Nigeria. Nigeria Institute of Advanced Legal Studies Lagos, Nigeria.
- [9] Basu, K., Van, P.H. (1998). The Economics of Child Labor. American Economic Review, 88(3), 412-427.
- [10] Becker, G. S. (1962). The Economic Approach to Human Behavior, University of Chicago Press
- [11] Bertalanffy, Ludwig van, 1901-1972. (1969). General system theory; foundations, development, applications. New York: G. Braziller.
- [12] Bhat, B.A. (2011). Socioeconomic Dimensions of Child Labor in Central Asia: A Case study of the cotton industry. Problems of Economic
- Transition, 54 (1), 84-99.

- [14] Check, J & Schutt, R. K. (2012). Research Method in Education, Scientific Research Publishing, https://www/scrip.org
- [15] Check, J & Schutt, R. K. (2012). Teacher research and action research. Research methods in cEducation, 255-271.
- [16] Dada, O. M. O. (2013). A sociological investigation of the determinant factors and the effects of Child Street hawking in Nigeria: Agege,
- Lagos State under survey. International Journal of Asian Social Science, 3 (1), 114-137
- [17] Dottridge, M. (2008). Rio de Janerio, Brazil: ECPAT International
- [18] Durkheim, E. (1858-1917). Organic analogy, https://www.tutor2u.net/sociology/reference/whatisfuctionalism
- [19] Edmonds, E. V. (2008). Defining Child Labor; A Review of the Definitions of Child Labor in Enebe, N.O., Enebe, J.T., Agunwa, C.C.,
- [20] Ossai, E.N., Ezeoke, U.E., Idoko, C.A., & Mbachu, C.O. (2021) Prevalence and Predictors of child labor among junior public secondary
- school students in Enugu, Nigeria: A cross-sectional study. Enebe et al. BMC Public Health 21: 1339 https://doi.org/10.1186/s12889-02111429
- [21] Ezeh, U. C., & Oil, N.P. (2021). Socio-Economic Determinants of Children's Vulnerability to Trafficking in Awka South Local
- Government Area, Anambra State, South-East, Nigeria., Practicum Psychologia, 11(1), 16-32
- [22] 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.
- [23] International Labour Organisation. (2012), what is Child Labor? Retrieved from <u>http://www.ilo.org/ipec/facts/language/index.htm</u>
- [24] International Labour Organization. (2012), Migrant assistance at a glance. Annual Review. (IOM) Geneva.
- [25]International Labour Organization. (2016); Global Estimate of Child Labour
- [26] International Labour Organization. (2017) "Ending child labor by 2025; A review of policies and programmes" Geneva: ILO Publications.
- International Labour Organization. (2017), Global Estimates of Child Labour: Results and Trends, 2012-2016. Geneva: ILO Publications.
- International Labour Organization. (2018), World Report on child labor economic vulnerability, social protection and the fight against child
- labor. Geneva.
- [27] International Labour Organization. (2022); World report on child labor
- [28] Kielland, A. & Tovo, V. (2006). Children at Work: Child Labor Practices in Africa. Inc Boulder London: Lynne Rienner Publisher.
- [29] Mackintosh, C.L., & Wori, E.O. (2021). Parental Socio-Economic Status on Child Labour in Port-Harcourt Metropolis. *Research Journal*
- of Social Sciences and Humanities Vol. 2(1), pp. 12-21, Available online <u>http://www.scholarly-journals.com/RJSSH</u> ISSN 27342026 © 2021
- Scholarly-Journals.
- [30] 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.
- [31] 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.
- [32] 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.
- [33] Moyi, P. (2011). Child-Labor and School Attendance in Kenya. Educational Research and Reviews, 6(1), 26-35.
- [34] Musa, I. Magaji, S. & Tsauni A.M. (2023). Analysis of the Socio-Economic Consequences of Child Labor in North-Eastern Nigeria. *Asian*
- Journal of Management, Entrepreneurship and Social Science, 3(02), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.98765/ajmesc.v3i02.224

- [35] Musa, I., Magaji, S., & Tsunami, A.M. (2022). Analysis of the Socio-Economic Determinant of Child Labor in North-Eastern Nigeria,
- Inclusive Society and Sustainability Studies (ISSUES) 2(1) 46-58
- [36] 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
- [37] NAPTIP (2014), Trafficking in Persons Report. Retrieved from https://www.unodc.org.nigeria
- [38] National Bureau of Statistics (2010), Annual Abstract of Statistics. Abuja: Federal Republic of Nigeria.
- [39] National Bureau of Statistics (2015), 50% of children engage in child labour. Retrieved from, NJIR Vol. 2 No. 2 (pdf)
- [40] National Bureau of Statistics (2016), National Population estimates; National Population Commission and National Bureau of Statistics

Estimates, https://nigerianstat.gov.ng/download/474.

- [41] National Bureau of Statistics (2017), Demographic Statistics Bulletin.
- [42] Ndiora, U. A. (2011). Female Trafficking as Organized Crime in Nigeria: A study of public perception in Onitsha, Anambra State. M.Sc.
- unpublished work, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Department of Sociology and Anthropology.
- [43] Niger State Bureau of Statistics. (2014), Socio-Economic Survey. Minna: Niger State Planning
- [44] Nwokeoma, B. N. (2010). Opinion and perception on factors affecting human trafficking in Imo and Edo States of Nigeria. Ph.D.
- unpublished work, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Department of Sociology and Anthropology.
- [45] OECD (2022), "Together, we Create Better Policies for Better Lives" 2022
- [46] 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
- [46] Olukunmi, O. (2017). Socioeconomic Determinants of Child Labour in Ilorin, Kwara State, Nigeria, *KIU Journal of Social Sciences*,
- Kampala International University, 3(1), 59-65.
- [47] Oluseye, I. E. & Christianah, O. K. (2014). Youth Unemployment Rate in Nigeria and Gambia, *Global Journal of Political Science and*
- Administration: 2(3), 11-22
- [48] Phoumin, H. (2008). Human capital and hours worked of children in Cambodia: Empirical evidence for policy implications. *Asian*
- Economic Journal, 22(1), 25-46. Public Education Project (2010); p.96
- [49] 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.
- [50] Shaba, N. Y., Yelwa, M., Obansa, S. A. J. & Magaji, S. (2018). Manifestation of Income Inequality and Poverty Prevalence in Selected
- North Central States of Nigeria. Applied Economics and Finance, Redfamepublishing, 5(3), 22-23.
- [51] Shehu, A., Kangiwa, I. M. & Umar, N. S (2015): The Effect of Household Poverty on Child-Labor in Nigeria. *Journal of Economics and*
- Sustainable Development 6(7), 12-18.
- [52] Singleton, D. & Straits, R. (2009), Understudying and Evaluating Survey Research, <u>www.researchgate.net</u>.
- [53] Staiger, I. (2005). Trafficking in Children for Sexual Exploitation in the EU. *European Journal of Crime, Criminal Law and Criminal*
- Justice, 13, 603-624.
- [54] 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
- [55] Tola, A. O. (2008). Child Trafficking in Nigeria: Causes, Effects and Remedies. Ego Booster Books, Ogun State Nigeria.
- [56] U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020), "How the Government Measures"

www.ijcrt.org

- [57] Udry. C. (2006). "Gender, Agriculture Production and the Theory of Household" Journal of Political Economy 104(5), 1010-1047.
- [58] UNICEF (1997); The State of the World's Children.
- [59] UNICEF (2022); The State of the World Children 2022: Focus on Child Labor. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- [60] UNICEF (2023); Global database
- [61] United Nation (2020), Protecting African Children from Child labor The United Nations. www.un.org>october 2020>ilo
- [62] United Nation Children Fund (1991); The United Nations Convention and the OAU Charter on Rights of the Child.
- [63] United Nations (2000), Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children (UN)
- [64] United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2018), Global Report on Trafficking in Persons 2018. Retrieved from
- https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/glotip/GLOWTIP_2018_web_small.pdf
- [65] Yamani, T. (1968). Taro Yamani Formula for calculating sample size
- [66] Zapata, D., Contreras, D., Kruger, D. (2011). Child Labor and Schooling in Bolivia: Who's falling behind? The roles of domestic work,
- gender, and ethnicity. World Development, 39(4), 88-599.

