THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT

Hazards of Hawking as a Marketing Strategy for Traders at Kasoa and Its Environs, Ghana

Faustina Yaa Amoako-Kwakye

Senior Lecturer, West End University College, Ghana Senior Lecturer, Department of Vocational and Technical Education, University of Cape Coast, Ghana **Doreen Mary Antwi Welbeck**

National Service Personnel, West End University College, Ghana

Abstract:

The purpose of the study was to investigate hazards traders who use hawking as the only marketing strategy experience at Kasoa and its environs. The study adopted the survey design. Data were gathered from a purposively selected sample of 70 traders from at their hawking sites using a structured interview guide and data analyses carried out using SPSS version 20. Among the findings were 20.0% of the traders were below 20 years; 71.4% hawked from 8 to 15 hours daily for six or seven days weekly. The most frequent health hazards reported were fatigue leading to stress; robbery attacks and occasional vehicle accidents. It is recommended that the metropolitan authorities build free vocational and technical training centers to train the youth in skill jobs. The National Health Insurance scheme should be better organized to take care of injured hawkers. The Metropolitan Assemblies must ensure that hawking by children is prevented through legislation.

Keywords: Small businesses, Hawking, Occupational hazard, Health hazard, Marketing strategy

1. Introduction

1.1. Background to the Study

In a keen competitive business environment, there are various marketing strategies that firms adopt to increase their sales and profitability. A marketing strategy, according to Mongay (2006) is the way in which the marketing function organises its activities to achieve a profitable growth in sales at a marketing mix level. There are many types of marketing strategies; some firms may use personal selling, online marketing, close range marketing, word of mouth marketing, mass marketing, email marketing among others. These strategies may be offensive or defensive. Most marketing strategies are very aggressive and have a lot of health and occupational hazards on the personnel who carry out these strategies. Hawking is one of such marketing strategies adopted by most firms worldwide (Mongay, 2006).

Hawking has been conceptualized by the 1960 Public Health and Urban Services Ordinance of Hong Kong as "any person who sells, or exposes for sale his wares or offers for hire his labour in a public place; or any person who itinerates for the purpose of selling or exposing for sale his wares, services or labour" (Yunusa, 1988). Hawking as a marketing strategy could pose a lot of occupational health hazards for personnel who use this strategy because of the nature of the activities involved in the process (such as a hawker being knocked down by a truck, hawkers inhaling of fumes from cars, a hawker falling in the process of running after vehicle to make a sale etc.). The health hazards involved in running after a moving vehicle in an attempt to sell goods to the buyers is risky in nature taking into consideration that they (the hawkers) have no control over the traffic.

Kasoa is a very fast-growing town at the eastern part of the Central Region. It shares a boundary with Greater Accra region and only a small stream separates it from Aman from in the Ga West District, which makes it seem as if it is part of greater Accra. Several traders from all walks of life can be found in Kasoa. The high rents in the capital city have driven many low-income earners from Accra to Kasoa. Again, it first started and it is still a large and popular market town in the Central Region. There are only few Government offices and without any factories and so several people find themselves in micro and small-scale enterprises, particularly in trading. A lot of them have resorted to hawking their goods to avoid competition from traders who sell similar wares and are most often concentrated at the town centre and the market places.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The ultimate aim of every business entity is to improve sales and profitability in order to increase shareholders' wealth. Tang, Wang and Zhang (2005) agree that the marketing strategy adopted affects the performance of a business entity. In the course of operating micro and small business ventures to earn some income to take care of households and families' economic and social problems, many traders have adopted strategies that make them market their products. Some of them also do not have enough money to rent permanent

shops or stores. As an answer to the problem, displaying the goods and services at vantage points is seen in several cities, causing a lot of overcrowding and traffic jams in the crowded city centres. Overcrowding in turn brings about very high competition and so the micro and small entrepreneurs resort to hawking as their marketing strategy to take advantage of the traffic jams on the roads. However, several occupational and health hazards have been known to be associated with hawking. There have been rumours of traders being knocked down by vehicles, attack by thieves and rapists, among others. Several studies have been conducted in several African and Indian cities and towns, some of which are: Bhowmik and Saha (2012), Agius (2010), CCOHS (2009), ILO (2009), and Asiedu and Agyei-Mensah (2008). Most of these authors confirm the problems hawkers go through in their work. Despite the frightening hazards, several traders are seen hawking varieties of product in Kasoa and its environs. One thus keeps wondering whether there are no such occupational and health hazards in these localities. If the traders in these localities experience these hazards, why are they still using hawking as their only market strategy? These and other problems are what the study seeks to find answers to.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the occupational and health hazards of hawking as a marketing strategy by traders in Kasoa and its environs.

1.4. Research Objectives

Specifically, the study seeks to:

- 1. find out the background characteristics of the selected entrepreneurs in Kasoa who use hawking as the only marketing strategy of their goods and services;
- 2. identify the reasons for choosing hawking as a marketing strategy;
- 3. identify changes such as economic, social and psychological, the traders have experienced as a result of using hawking as a marketing strategy; and
- 4. examine hazards respondents encounter as they hawk their goods in the selected locations in Kasoa.

1.5. Hypotheses

H₀: There will be no significant differences between the number of hours male and female traders spend daily in hawking activities.

 H_0 : There will be no significant differences between the incomes received from the hawking activities of the traders at different locations in Kasoa.

H₀: There will be no significant differences between the hazards faced by traders at different locations in Kasoa.

1.6. Significance of the Study

The outcome of this study, if adopted, will assist first the traders in diverse ways, including coming out with effective ways of hawking and reducing the occupational and health hazards of hawking. The study will also be beneficial to government, particularly the Municipal Chief Executives to look critically at the way these hazards occur or are likely to occur as a result of using hawking. This will help find better ways of handling the problems. To consumers, the findings will be able to help customers find a better way of patronizing the goods and services of traders so that the challenges will be minimized.

1.7. Delimitation of the Study

An investigation of hazards of hawking among all types of business organizations in Ghana can be quite involving and demanding. Therefore, this study was restricted to traders within the four locations listed in Kasoa and its environs, namely: i) Kasoa Central/Old Market; ii). New Market and the surrounding areas; iii). Amanfrom, Top/Official Town; iv). Galillea/Maheam/Brigade, Tollbooth/Tuba

1.8. Limitations of the Study

The researcher encountered some limitations in the research work and they are as follows. Firstly, the unwillingness of some respondents to give accurate information needed because they had the fear that any information they gave out may be used against them. Secondly, illiteracy on the part of the hawkers posed a challenge since the hawkers thought the information was for tax purposes. The respondents were therefore limited to those who were willing to participate in the study. The findings are generalized traders who use hawking as the only marketing strategy in the locations listed to market their goods.

2. Review of Related Literature

2.1. Nature of Street Hawking in Ghana

Street hawking on the streets of Accra, Ghana is characterized by traders selling various types of goods, which may consist of fruits and vegetables, newspapers, cosmetics, jewelry, watches, ladies' bags, wallets, second-hand clothes to shining of shoes on the streets, highways, sidewalks, avenues etc. Street hawkers are found virtually in all major cities of the developing world. Studies reveal that they are present in Nairobi in Kenya (Kamunyori, 2007), Zomba in Malawi (Kayuni&Tambulasi, 2009) and others. The competition among hawkers as well as the approach to attract customers create conflict with vehicles and sometimes make them vulnerable to vehicular collusion. City authorities classify these hawkers as violators of city rules and by-laws who deserve to be evicted and

punished. They violate land use codes by selling in open spaces not designated for that and above all, congest the city and impede traffic flow in the city (Owusu&Abrokwah, 2014).

2.2. Background Characteristics of Street Hawkers

In Bhowmik and Saha's (2012) study in 10 Indian cities, females were found to constitute around 30% in all the cities taken together. The sole exception was that of Imphal, where an overwhelming majority (88.5%) were females, while males constituted 11.5%. The data from the same study showed that most of the street vendors were married and in some cities more than 70% of the street vendors were married. An overwhelming majority, i.e., 89.5% were in the age groups of 24 and 45 years. Interestingly, the sample did not cover anyone above 45 years of age because there were just a handful of them but in Lucknow too, 24.5% were in the young age group of 17-26 years. By looking at the average age group, one can see that the bulk of the street vendors in all the ten cities were in the productive age group of 25 and 55 years. Thirty percent of the population in the study was found to be illiterates. What was interesting was that despite being illiterates they could conduct their business which included maintaining accounts, having an inventory of goods bought and sold.

2.3. Types of Street Hawkers (Vendors)

Bhowmik and Saha's (2012) found that in their most cities, stationary vendors outnumbered the mobile vendors. The items sold by vendors consist of a variety of goods. The non-perishable items include clothes, metal utensils, plastic goods, leather goods and electronics, etc. The perishable goods include vegetables, fruits, flowers, fish and cooked food. The preference of the vendors was for selling the perishable food items. They do so because the prices of these items are less compared to non-perishable items such as household and electronic goods and they also constitute mass consumption goods. Most of the vendors in Imphal were women who sell their goods in the local markets. As mentioned earlier, they come from poor backgrounds and hence, they sell these items as the capital required in this business is much less than that needed for non-perishable goods such as utensils and electronic goods.

Hussein (2014) study on street Hawking and its Impacts on Nairobi Central Business District Urban Space observed that out of the 50 street hawkers to whom copies of the questionnaires were administered, 20 (40.0%) were males and 30 (60.0%) were females. Nine hawkers (18.0%) were below the age of 20, and 22 of them (44.0%) were between the ages 20-24; the number of hawkers who were between the ages of 25-29 years were 10 (20.0%) and nine of them (18.0%) were 30 years and above. Analysis of the marital status of the hawkers showed that (58.0%) of the hawkers were singles (not yet married), (30.0%) were married, 7.0% are divorced and (5.0%) of them have separated. 36.0% of the hawkers had received education at the basic level thus from nursery to primary level, the number of hawkers who had gone through secondary education were 24 representing 48.0%. Only 8 (16.0%) of the hawkers had no formal education.

2.4. Occupational and Health Hazards Associated with Street Hawking

Street hawking irrespective of who (age and sex) engages in it, is associated with major hazards (Lu, 2011; Lee, 2004). This includes sexual assault which increases the vulnerability of the hawkers to diseases such as HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections, increased risk of unwanted pregnancies and unsafe abortion (Lu, 2011; Kwankye, Nyarko&Tagoe,2007; Lee, 2004). Other hazards include physical assaults, mobbing, involvement in road traffic accidents, kidnapping and ritual killings. Street hawking leads to increased exposure to antisocial activities like smoking, drug and alcohol abuse, cultism and crime.

4. Methodology

4.1. Research Design

The study was a mixed methods approach, but specifically, a descriptive cross-sectional survey research, the data are collected at one point in time for a sample selected to represent a larger population was used for this study. According to Owens (2002), cross-sectional surveys make it possible for a group of respondents to be asked a set of questions at one point in time. In this study attempts were made to capture the attitudes of different groups of traders in the sample at specific time frames and this timeline made it vital in collecting bit by bit relevant data for the study as posited by Owens (2002).

4.2. Population

A population is any group of individuals that have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to a researcher (Best & Kahn, 2007). The targeted population of the study included all traders in Kasoa and its environs who adopted hawking solely as their only marketing strategy. There was no sample frame since the population of traders who used hawking as the only marketing strategy had not been registered and so information on them was not available. The study area was zoned into four, namely: i) Kasoa Central/Old Market; ii). New Market and the surrounding areas; iii). Amanfrom, Top/Official Town; iv). Galillea/Maheam/ Brigade, Tollbooth/Tuba. The first two locations were in Kasoa, while the other two locations are parts of Ga South in Greater Accra.

4.3. Sample Size and Sampling Technique

The purposive sampling technique was used in selecting small traders from the four locations in Kasoa and Ga South. The main goal of purposive sampling was to focus on particular characteristics of a population that were of interest, which would best enable one to answer the stated research questions (Lund Research, 2012). At the end of the exercise, 70 respondents who were willing to participate in the study were interviewed. Care was taken to ensure equal numbers of respondents from the four locations.

4.4. Instruments for Data Collection

Interview guide was used to collect the primary data for the study. The interview guide was based on the objectives set for the study. The interview guide consisted of five sections (A to E) and had both open- and close-ended items.

4.5. Data Collection Techniques

A week was devoted to each of the four area zones and on each day, several locations in the zone were visited. Attempts were made to interview the traders who were found at any particular time and at specified locations. The reasons for the interview were first explained to them and then their consent sought before any interview started. The interview lasted for four weeks duration. i.e., from January 4th and ended on the 6th of February 2017. It took 20 minutes to interview each respondent.

4.6. Data Analysis

All information received from the respondents via the data collection instrument was entered, coded and analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. Data were presented by tables of frequencies and percentages which were computed for each item. Independent Test and ANOVA were used to test for differences between variables.

4.7. Ethical Consideration

The respondents were not coerced into participating in the research but their sought their consent after explaining the issues involved to them and ensured their anonymity and confidentiality relative to the study. All the respondents approached were given the permission to deny their participation without any explanation. Hence, all those who took part in the study did so voluntarily.

5. Results and Discussion

The results on the demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Tables 1

Characteristics	Frequency	%
Ages in Years (N= 70)		
14 - 20	20	28.2
21 – 27	10	14.3
28 – 34	18	25.7
35-41	12	17.1
42 and above	10	14.3
Gender (N= 70)		
Male	30	42.9
Female	40	57.1
Marital Status (N= 70)		
Single (Never married)	33	47.1
Married	29	41.4
Separated/Widowed/Cohabitating	8	11.5
Highest Level of Education (N= 70)	6	8.5
Primary/Junior High/Middle	41	58.6
Senior High/ Vocational/Technical	21	30.0
Tertiary(HND)	2	2.9

Tables 1: Background Characteristics of Respondents

It can be observed from Table 1 that the respondents 14(20.0%) were aged from 14 to 20years. Those aged between 21 and 34 years were 28(40.0%), with those aged from 35 and above years were also 28(40.0%). Data in Table 2 reveal that the majority of the respondents were females 40(57.1%) while the remaining 30(42.9%) were males. It can be deduced from the data presented in Table 3 that most of the respondents were single 33(47.1%), 29(41.4%) were married and the separated, widowed, and co-habiting were only eight (11. 5%). The data in Table 1 indicate that the majority of the respondents had Basic education. A high majority, being 47 out of the 70 respondents (67.1%) had basic with 21(30.0%) having the second cycle education. Only two (2.9%) had received Higher National Diploma education.

It can be deduced from the results that the traders in the sample were within the productive ages. These results agree with Bhowmik and Saha's (2012) empirical findings that average age group of street vendors in all the ten cities to be in the productive age group of 25 and 55 years. A finding of concern is the fact that 14 of the 70 respondents, forming 20.0% were aged from 14 to 20years. These were also observed during the data collection. The concern is that children who were supposed to be in school were among the hawkers to make ends meet. This is an indication that some children were being denied of their basic rights to education and instead they were engaged in child labour.

Data in Table 1 again reveal that the majority of the respondents were females 40(57.1%) while the remaining 30(42.9%) were males. The finding is not surprising as Bhowmikand Saha's (2012) study on street vending activities in 10 cities of India found average female in hawking as formed about 30.0% but in Imphal city in India females were found to comprise of an overwhelming majority of

88.5%. In addition, Hussein (2014) also found from his study in that females engaged in hawking among his respondents formed 60.0%.

This finding of this study is consistent with Bosompem's (2013) study on street hawking in Ghana that revealed that the majority of hawkers were females. The finding is again not surprising given that females are more than males according to the 2010 Ghana population census and also hawking is known to be more traditionally associated with females compared with males.

Hussein (2014) found similar results in Nairobi Central Business District, where that most of the hawkers (58.0%) in his sample were single. Most of the respondents in this study were also single and from an interview with one of the single ladies, she said she wanted to sell and gather money to further her education before getting married.

The results clearly indicate that a high proportion of the respondents had low educational level. Hussein (2014) also similarly found the majority of the hawkers in his sample to have had had some form of formal education with only 16% who being illiterate. It could be deduced from the responses and open confirmation by the respondents that they were trading because they could not further their education owing to lack of funds.

It was also surprising that two Higher National Certificate holders were found hawking. It is a reflection of events in this country that graduates are unemployed and so some do try to find a means to live. It is good that they are selling for themselves.

The responses from the respondents indicate that most of them 26(37.1%), had no dependents, 18(25.7%) had two, five (7.1%) had three and six (5.6%) had more than four people depending on them for their livelihood. These stresses the need to work since their families rely on their incomes for survival.

The respondents were asked how long they had been hawking and it was revealed that 57.1% had been hawking goods for periods between worked one and four years, while 38.6% had been hawking for periods between five and seven years. Only three of the respondents had been in hawking for less than a year.

It is clear from the results that although the respondents had no permanent locations for selling their goods such as stores or kiosks, they had been in the business for over three years. In an interview with five respondents who had had been hawking for periods beyond two years, they expressed the views that they were not willing to stop hawking because it had been a source of livelihood activity for them for ages.

5.1. Hawking Practices of Respondents

The respondents were asked series of questions bordering on the starting and closing time, kinds of goods sold and structures used in hawking.

Number of hours	Male	Female	Total
	No (%)	No (%)	No (%)
4 to 7	5 (16.7)	8(20.0)	13 (18.6)
8 to 11	13(43.3)	20(50.0)	33 (47.1)
12 to 15	12(40.0)	12(30.0)	24 (34.3)
Total	30(100)	40(100)	70 (100)

Table 2: Number of Hours Spent on Hawking Daily Source: Field Data, 2017

The respondents were asked to indicate the times they usually commenced and ended their hawking daily respondents' time for hawking usually commenced from 5.30 am and ended at 10.00 pm. Specifically, 51(72.9%) started between 5:30 am and 7:30am, 18(25.7%) between 7:031and 9:30am and only one (1.4%) starting any time between 11:31am and 1:30pm respectively. Apart from 12 traders (17.1%) whose closing times ranged between 12:00-4:00pm, the rest 58(82.9%), closed at periods between 4:01 to 10:00pm. From the responses given, the number of hours spent hawking by each of them was computed. A critical examination of the responses presented in Table 8 reveals that 57 out of the 70 traders spent 8 to 15 hours hawking daily. The mean hours spent hawking were 10.7 hours, with a standard deviation of 2.34 for the males and for females the mean was 9.8 hours, and a standard deviation of 2.6. An independent 1.52 at 1.52 at 1.52 at 1.52 at 1.52 at 1.52 at 1.52 and 1.52 and 1.52 and 1.52 and 1.52 and 1.52 are 1.52 at 1.52 and 1.5

These results reveal that the majority of the traders closed from their hawking activities at 8.00pm with a few hawkers extending their activities between 8.00pm to 10.00pm. If it is considered that the normal working hours for workers are from 7.30/8.00am to 4.30/5.00pm, being eight hours, then most of these workers were working more than the stipulated maximum time. Reasons attributed to the times for hawking and the long hours were that the peak periods were from morning 7.30 am to 9.00am and then from 2.00 to 4.00 pm when children closed from school and the evening after workers had closed from work. These findings collaborate with the study conducted in Ghana by Owusu and Abrokwah (2014), where it came out that the evening rush hour for hawkers was between 5pm and 8.00pm.

Further probing into those who closed early indicated that some of them did so in order to pick their children from school respondents they close earlier because they had to pick their children from school. Those who continued hawking till 10.00pm were mostly those without spouses and the males. These results reveal that some of these hawkers worked for over 12 hours.

5.2. Reasons for Choosing Hawking as a Marketing Strategy

The respondents were asked to indicate, at most, two reasons for choosing hawking as the only marketing strategy and their responses are illustrated Table 5.

Reasons	Frequency	%
To sell more compared to being at one place	24	21.8
To beat competitors/overcome competition	20	18.3
It makes goods available to more customers	16	14.5
Goods are bought early	16	14.5
No money to build kiosk/rent a shop or store	12	10.9
To meet people who normally will be difficult to reach	11	10.0
To meet sales target set for the week	11	10.0
Total	110*	100

Table 3: Reasons for Choosing Hawking as a Marketing Strategy

* Multiple responses Source: Field Data, 2017

The respondents gave their reasons for choosing hawking as the only marketing strategy. The results of the analysis show that the majority chose hawking to increase their sales. Reasons such as: to sell more compared to being at one place (21.8%); to beat competitors/overcome competition (18.3%); it makes goods available to more customers (14.5%), goods are bought early (14.5%), to meet people who normally will be difficult to reach (10.0%) and to meet sales target (10.0%), are all in connection with their plans to increase their market share. The only reason that was different was the fact that they had no money to rent or build shops or kiosks which was given by 10.9% of the people.

Based on the responses of the respondents, it can be said that the hawking strategy seems to work for most of them and hence, the desire to continue. The respondents were asked to indicate two methods they used to attract customers' attention the responses depicted that 51(49.0%) of the respondents attracted their customers to the products by shouting the name of the item. Twenty-eight (26.9%), also did so by ringing of bells, knocking on people's doors (13.5%) and talking to people they met on the street and walkways (10.6%).

From the results of this study, it can be concluded that poverty was a major factor for engaging hawking so as to obtain some family income, just as Onuzulike (2007) and Nduka and Duru (2014).

5.3. Hazards Faced in Hawking

The main focus of the study was based on hazards the traders frequently used to encounter. Table 6 has the data.

Hazard	Frequency	%
Fatigue/Tiredness	70	50.0
Havoc caused by rainfall	30	21.4
Involvement in accidents	20	28.6
Robbery attacks	12	17.4
Attacks by dog	6	8.6
Malaria	2	2.9
Total	70	100

Table 4: Hazards Faced in Hawking Source: Field Data, 2017

Hazards in this study cover both occupational as well as health hazards that have a way of causing harm to the traders, their business operations and performance. Five major occupational and health hazards the respondents reported by all the 70(50.0%) respondents were fatigue/tiredness followed by havoc by rains reported by 30(21.4%); then involvement in accidents by 20(14.3%), robbery attacks by 12(8.6%) and malaria reported by eight (5.7%) of the respondents.

- > The five hazards in the process of carrying out her duties were explained by the traders as follows: Fatigue and/or tiredness as a result of long trekking, carrying heavy loads, and in some cases with children carried at the backs of the women.
- The second hazard focused on havoc by rains. The rains spoilt their goods, caused the road to be slippery and some of them had to look for money to pay for damaged goods. The rains also contributed to the accidents such as slips and falls, which also made them lose their wares as they fell in gutters and roads.

The traders were often knocked down by vehicles such as cars, motor cycles, bicycles and tricycles. The issue of accidents was not just from the vehicles. There were also slipping on the roads, missing a step when crossing the gutters and falling into them resulting in cuts and bruises. Some of these female traders carried their children on their backs so the babies also got hurt. One hawker said this in the process of carrying out her duties:

"I slipped and fell in the middle of the street which caused huge Traffic jam because the vehicles had to stop for a good Samaritan to lift me from the ground and collect my items from the ground for me. I sustained minor injuries but I did not go hospital due to inadequate funds".

The next important hazard was robbery attacks, which the traders described as worrisome. The traders described cases where robbers attacked them at gun point and asked them to surrender the money they had had from their hawking. In cases where a female trader walked alone a male attacker could drag her to a dark place and molest her. To overcome this, they often had to close early or wait for their friends so that they walk home in a group.

Although the respondents did mention smoke and dust as hazards, during further discussions with them, they all agreed that smoke and dust gave them headaches, cold and catarrh. Malaria was one of the hazards because the traders were often bitten by mosquitoes as they stayed out late waiting for their friends so that they could walk home, particularly dark and the swampy locations.

The hazards listed were tested to find out if the hazards mentioned by the traders located at the four locations were significant, using the independent *t-test*.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	158.299	3	52.766	.709	.550
Within Groups	4913.987	66	74.454		
Totals	5072.286	69			

Table 5 p = 0.05

The ANOVA test gave an F value of .709 and p was .550 at 0.05 significance level so the null hypothesis, H_0 was accepted because no significant difference existed between the hazards faced by the traders at different locations in Kasoa. This finding is contrary to expectation because it was assumed that the hazards would be higher for those at the town centre where a lot of vehicular activities were high. The fact that no significant differences were found indicates that those outside the town centre were equally at risk, but the nature of hazards are different.

5.4. Frequency Traders Faced the Listed Hazards

The breakdown of frequency of these listed hazards faced by the traders revealed that 40.7% experienced one of the listed hazards once their working lives; 27.2% said they had experienced the hazards twice and the remaining 32.1% said they had experienced the listed hazards thrice in their working lives.

When the respondents were asked if they reported the robbers to police when they were attacked, they responded that they did not have any money to pursue any case at the police station. They claimed the police would demand money before they report are taken so they didn't report any case at all.

5.5. Frequency of Visits to Hospital in a Month

There was the need to find out how often they visited the clinics or hospital and the reason for the visit. The responses are tabulated in Table 7.

Monthly visit to hospital	Frequency	%
Not at all (Self-medication)	56	80.0
Once in a while	6	8.6
Once	5	7.1
Twice or more	3	4.3
Total	70	100

Table 6: Frequency of Visits to Hospital in a Month Source: Field Data, 2017

The respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of visits to hospital as a result of the hazards they faced. From Table 7and the majority 56(80.0%) asserted it they never visited the hospital at all in a month, six (8.6%) visited the hospital once in a while and five (7.1%) visited the hospital once a month. Three of the traders visited the hospital twice or more (4.3%).

Further discussions revealed that the all the 56 traders did not visit the hospital because they practiced self-medication. They indicated that even though they fell sick they relied on pain relievers and local herbs because they couldn't afford the cost of treatment. Ten (17.9%) of these added that they had no money to pay for such services and the National Health Insurance Scheme, which could have helped them did not work. This finding is of much concern because these traders can die as a result of minor infections after some time since they report at the hospital only when the cases are serious.

5.6. Income from Hawking

Since poverty was found to be a driving force in hawking, making people defy all odds to get into it. This raised an enquiry into the income the traders got from their hawking activities, which is presented in Table 8.

Income in Cedis	Frequency	%
10-50	35	50.0
51-100	20	28.6
101-150	6	8.6
151-200	6	8.6
201-250	3	4.2
Total	70	100

Table 7: Weekly Income from Hawking Source: Field Data, 2017

It can be vividly seen from Table 7 that half of the traders 35(50.0%) received a weekly income of GH¢10-50 from hawking; 20(28.6%) had GH¢51-100 a week, and three (4.3%) received GH¢201-250 a week.

The seemingly low incomes earned by a large number of respondents is based on the small start-up capital that most hawkers start business with and thus, account for these incomes that is even lower than the accumulated daily minimum wage (GHS¢264.0), which that is, GHS¢8.80 per day for 30 days). It was observed that a lot of them did not disclose the correct minimum incomes.

5.7. Hypothesis

Incomes received from hawking of traders at the four locations where the traders worked were compared, using the independent t-test and One-way ANOVA. The males had a mean income of 58.2 Ghana Cedis women had a mean income of 59.3 Ghana Cedis for a week. The ANOVA output is presented as follows:

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	23.739	3	7.913	7.756	.000*
Within Groups	67.346	66	1.020		
Totals	91.085	69			

Table 8 p = 0.05

The null hypothesis H_0 was rejected because a significant difference existed between the incomes received from the hawking activities of the traders at different locations in Kasoa. The ANOVA test gave an F = 7.756 and p was .000 at 0.05 significance level. The post-hoc test indicated that what contributed to the significant difference among the locations was from that: The differences between Location 1 (Kasoa Central/Old Market) and all the other three locations [ii. New Market and the surrounding areas; iii. Aman from, Top/Official Town; and iv. Galillea/Maheam/Brigade/Tollbooth/Tuba] were significant with p values of .024, .000 and .000 respectively. The conclusion that may be drawn is that the traders at Location 1 (Kasoa Central/Old Market) had better incomes than the other three locations.

The responses prompted a further question on economic and social changes that the respondents had experienced as a result of hawking and so the respondents were asked if there had been any significant economic (business growth, capital) social (feeding, clothing, housing and children's education) and psychological (satisfaction with status) changes as a result of hawking. The data have been presented in Table 9.

Changes	Frequency	%
Increased trading capital	49	29.7
Increase in goods for sale	31	18.8
Ability to feed family	29	17.6
Ability to clothe family	21	12.7
Better education for children	14	8.5
Ability to provide/rent housing for family	11	6.7
Satisfaction with improvement in life	10	6.0
Total	165*	100

Table 9: Changes in Life Status Resulting from Hawking

* Multiple responses

Source: Field Data, 2017

The responses of 49(29.7%) indicated that trading capital had increased trading capital and 31(18.8%) showed that some had also added more goods to their stock. Seven-five (45.5%) of the responses again revealed that respondents' family life style in terms of feeding, clothing, shelter, education and health had improved, while 6.0% gave psychological satisfaction on their status of lives. A casual conversation with one of the women revealed that in spite of the hazards she was facing, there have been a lot of improvement in the lives of her family both economically and socially and those things have been a source of psychological

satisfaction. She said she was able to care for her four children through hawking and now the first child was in the final year at the University of Ghana.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1. Conclusions

- 1. From the results of the study, it can be concluded that the traders in the sample were within the productive ages of 21 and 44 years but the concern is that children who were supposed to be in school were among the hawkers to make ends meet. This is an indication that some children were being denied of their basic rights to education and instead they were engaged in child labour.
- About two-thirds of the respondents were females while the remaining were males. The results clearly indicate that a high
 proportion of the respondents had low educational levels. Two Higher National Certificate holders were found among the
 hawkers.
- 3. These results reveal that some of these hawkers worked for over 12 hours and this revelation of closing from work as late as 8.00 to 10.00pm is of serious concern about the health of the traders.
- 4. Bread, pastries and ice cream; second hand clothing, toiletries and provisions, foodstuffs and fruits; fish, meat, plastics; TV parts and phones; footwear traders respectively and chilled water were the goods which were hawked by the traders. The structures the majority of the respondents used in selling their products by were basins, trays and bowls made from stainless steel or plastics, wheelbarrows, wooden trucks, cars, trucks and bicycles and baskets and glass showcases.
- 5. Two-thirds of the respondents worked between 8 and 15 hours daily throughout the week.
- 6. The results of the analysis showed that the major reason the traders preferred hawking, apart from lack of money to rent or build shops or kiosks, was to increase their market share and sales.
- 7. The data show that about half of them hawked predominantly at Kasoa Central/Old Market and New market area. Kasoa Central/Old Market area is by the major highway in Kasoa, hence, the hawkers chose those places because of ease with which hawking activities can be carried out when there are traffic jams.
- 8. The major occupational and health hazards the respondents faced while hawking was fatigue/tiredness, rain falls that beat them, made them fall and destroy their wares; involvement in accidents, robbery attacks and malaria arising out of mosquito bites. Almost all the respondents had experienced one of the hazards in the course of the work, with some as many as three times.
- 9. The responses revealed that their family life style in terms of feeding, clothing, shelter, education and health had improved, while a few felt psychologically satisfied with their status of lives.

6.2. Recommendations

- 1. The traders should be educated to be aware of the dangers of allowing their children to hawk.
- 2. The Ministry of Employment should collaborate with the Technical Institutions to train the youth in employable skills which will help keep them off the streets;
- 3. Awareness must be created to help the traders recognize the dangers of children being allowed to hawk and also the need for them to close early so that they can rest.
- 4. Satellite markets must be provided in the various settlements to help keep most of them in the shops and off the streets.
- 5. National Health Insurance Scheme should be properly organized for people to have trust that they will be properly cared for if they join.

6.3. Areas for Future Research

- 1. Future studies should be carried to find out the future aspirations of adolescent hawkers.
- 2. Occupational and health hazards of males and female hawkers.

7. References

- i. Agius, R. (2010). What is occupational health? Health, environment and work. December. Accessed from http://www.agius.com/hew/inde x.htmlon 14th September, 2016
- ii. Asiedu, A. B., & Agyei-Mensah, S. (2008). Traders on the run: Activities of street vendors in the Accra metropolitan area, Ghana. Norwegian Journal of Geography, Vol. 62, 191-202.
- iii. .on 14th September, 2016
- iv. Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (2007). Research in education. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India Private
- v. Bhowmik, S. K., &Saha, D. (2012). Street vending in ten cities in India. School of Management and Labour Studies Tata Institute of Social Sciences Deonar, Mumbai 400 088, National Association of Street Vendors of India, Delhi.
- vi. Bosompem, L. B. (2013). The hazards of street hawking: A case study of the bread and turkey tail business in the NsawamAdoagyiri municipality. Unpublished master's dissertation, Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research, University of Ghana, Legon. Accessed from http://ugspace.ug.edu.gh/bitstream/handle/ on October 20th 2016
- vii. Canadian Centre for Occupational Health and Safety (2009). Hazard and risk. Canadian centre for occupational health and safety, Accessed from http://www.ccohs.ca/oshanswers/hsprograms/hazard_risk.html on 20th September, 2016

- viii. Hussein, O. M. (2014). Street hawking and its impacts on Nairobi central business district urban space. Unpublished Bachelor Dissertation, Department of environmental planning and management, Kenyatta University.
- ix. International Labour Office (2009). ILO standards on occupational safety and health. Promoting a safe and healthy working environment. First edition 2009. International Labour Office, Geneva. P1-171. ISBN 978-92-2-120634-7, ISSN 0074-6681.
- x. Kamunyori, S. W. (2007). A growing space for dialogue: The case of street vending in Nairobi's central business district. MA (City Planning) Thesis, Department of Urban Studies and Planning, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- xi. Kayuni, M. H., &Tambulasi, R. (2009). Political transitions and vulnerability of street vending in Malawi. Theoretical and Empirical Researches in Urban Management Number 3(12), Political and Administrative Studies Department, University of Malawi.
- xii. Kwankye, S. O., Nyarko, P. E., &Tagoe, C. A. (2007). Reproductive health implications of street hawking in Accra. Paper presented at the Fifth African Population Studies, Arusha Tanzania, 10-14 Dec.
- xiii. Lee, S. (2004). Assessing the vulnerability of women street traders to HIV/AIDS: A comparative Analysis of Uganda and South Africa. HEARD, July. 26.
- xiv. Lu, J. L. (2011). Occupational health and safety of women workers: viewed in the light of labor regulations. Journal of International Women's Studies, 12(1), 68.
- xv. Lund Research (2012). Purposive sampling. Accessed from http://dissertation.laerd.com/purposive-sampling.php on 20th September, 2016
- xvi. Mongay, (2006). Strategic marketing: A literature review of definitions, concepts and boundarie. s
- xvii. Nduka, I., &Duru, C. O. (2014). The menace of street hawking in Aba metropolis, South-East Nigeria. Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences, Vol. 5(6) pp. 133-140.DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.14303/jmms.2014.088 Available online Accessed on 20th September, 2016http://www.interesjournals.org/JMMS
- xviii. Onuzulike, N. M. (2007). Gender differences in knowledge and attitudes towards child street hawking among rural resident parents In Yakubu, J. A. Morohunkola, O. A; &Sokoya, G. O. (Eds). The abused and the society: Royal people. Nigeria Ltd, Ibadan Nigeria. p. 136 147.
- xix. Owens, L. K. (2002). Introduction to survey research design. In SRL.2002 seminar series (p.
- xx. Owusu, A.B., & Abrokwah, S. (2014). Efforts at evicting street hawkers from the streets of Accra: the good and bad.
- xxi. Tang, Y., Wang, P., &Zhang, Y. (2005). Marketing strategy and business performance: The case of small firms in China. ANZMAC 2005 conference: Marketing issues in Asia. Accessed from http://www.anzmac.org/conference_archive/2005/cd-site/pdfs/21-Mktg-Asia/21-Tang.pdf on 20th September, 2016
- xxii. Yunusa, M. B. (1988). Reconnaissance study of socio-economic base of street trading in Samuru.Socio-Economic Planning Science. vol. 22(No.2): 103-108.