



Understanding Children's Work
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Understanding Children's Work in Nepal

Report on child labour

July 2003

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Country Report July 2003

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As part of broader efforts toward durable solutions to child labor, the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the World Bank initiated the interagency Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project in December 2000. The project is guided by the Oslo Agenda for Action, which laid out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labor. Through a variety of data collection, research, and assessment activities, the UCW project is broadly directed toward improving understanding of child labor, its causes and effects, how it can be measured, and effective policies for addressing it. For further information, see the project website at www.ucw-project.org.

This paper is part of the research carried out within UCW (Understanding Children's Work), a joint ILO, World Bank and UNICEF project. The views expressed here are those of the authors' and should not be attributed to the ILO, the World Bank, UNICEF or any of these agencies' member countries.

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ABSTRACT

The current report as part of UCW project activities in Nepal. It provides an overview of the child labour phenomenon in the Kingdom - its extent and nature, its determinants, its consequences on health and education, and national responses to it. The report serves two important UCW project objectives in the country. First, it helps provide a common analytical understanding of child labour, that can be used to inform the current activities of the three partner agencies and Government, and that can be used to develop joint interagency strategies for future cooperation with the Government in addressing child labour. Second, through close involvement of local counterparts in its development, the report contributes to a broader effort to build national capacity in analysing and using data on child labour for policy development. The paper is the product of a collaborative effort involving local researchers, the three implementing partner agencies and the UCW core team. The statistical information presented in the review is drawn primarily from the Nepal Labour Force Survey conducted in 1998/99 (NLFS 1998/99) and the Nepal Living Standards Monitoring Study conducted in 1995/96 (LSMS 1995/96). The first involved a stratified sample of 14,400 households and the second a stratified sample of 19,200 households. A series of five ILO-IPEC sponsored rapid assessments is the primary source of information on worst forms of child labour. The review also draws on a number of smaller-scale studies, qualitative as well as quantitative, Government and NGO reports, agency documents and other information sources.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

1. **The current report was developed under the aegis of UCW project activities in Nepal.** It provides an overview of work performed by children in the Kingdom – its extent and nature, its determinants, and its consequences on health and education. The report also looks at national responses to child *labour*, i.e., responses to negative or undesirable forms of work that should be eliminated. The report serves two important UCW project objectives in the country: first, it helps provide a common analytical understanding of children's work, upon which common strategies can be developed addressing child labour; and second, the report contributes to a broader effort to build counterpart capacity in analysing and using data on children's work for policy development.

Prevalence and characteristics of children's work

2. Children's work, defined for the purposes of this report as any form of economic activity performed by children, is widespread in Nepal. According to NLFS 1998/99, 42 percent of 6-14 year-olds – some 1.9 million children in absolute terms – are engaged in work, the highest rate in the South Asia region. Actual numbers of child workers are likely even higher, as household surveys such as NLFS 1998/99 are ill-suited to capturing so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour. The other children in the 7-14 years age group are either full-time students (47 percent) or are reportedly neither working nor attending school (12 percent).

3. The prevalence of children's work varies substantially by sex, age, and residence. Girls' involvement in work exceeds that of boys by about seven percentage points, with the gender gap growing with age. Work prevalence is highest among older children but the absolute number of very young Nepalese children engaged in work is nonetheless significant – almost 300,000 children aged 6-8 years are economically active. Children's work is overwhelmingly a rural phenomenon. The prevalence of children's work in rural areas (44 percent) is more than double that of urban areas (19 percent). Rural child workers account for 95 percent of total child workers.

4. The performance of household chores is also common among Nepalese children. Over one-third of 6-14 year-olds – 1.6 million in absolute terms – regularly perform household chores, though only four percent do so for more than four hours per day. Girls' involvement in household chores exceeds that of boys by a wide margin, 32 percentage points. Girls are also much more likely to work and perform household chores simultaneously, pointing to a very high total work burden among girls; 57 percent of girls performing household chores also work, against only 26 percent of boys performing household chores.

5. The overwhelming majority of Nepalese working children are found in the agricultural sector and working for their families. Ninety-three percent, or, in absolute terms, 1.70 million of 1.83 million total child workers, are involved in family-based farm work. This, however, is primarily a reflection of children's work in rural areas, where 94 percent of children are involved in agriculture. While children working in urban areas are also concentrated primarily in the agriculture sector (agriculture accounts for 75 percent of urban child workers), smaller but not insignificant groups of urban working children are also found in working in commerce (nine percent),

hotels and restaurants (six percent), private households (five percent) and in manufacturing (three percent).

6. Work appears to interfere with children's ability to attend school, though to a lesser degree than in other countries examined as part of the UCW project. About two-thirds (63 percent) of working children attend school, compared to 79 percent of non-working children, and 73 percent of all 6-14 year-olds. The specific nature of the interplay between work and schooling, however, is an area requiring further investigation in Nepal.

7. Seven worst forms of child labour – bonded labour, domestic child labour, ragpicking, mining, carpet weaving, portering and trafficking – have been identified as immediate priorities in Nepal. It is estimated that there are at least 127,000 children aged 5-18 years involved in these seven priority worst forms. Children involved domestic work, portering and bonded labour account for 94 percent of this total. But these figures constitute only very rough, preliminary estimates, as they are not based on nationally representative sample surveys but rather extrapolated from rapid assessments using a number of simplifying assumptions.

8. Rapid assessments underscore the severe rights violations faced by children involved in the seven priority worst forms. These children are subjected to deprivation of schooling, sexual and physical abuse, excessive working hours, injuries and work hazards, and restrictions on movement. The overwhelming majority – an estimated 80 percent – have migrated for work, primarily from rural to urban areas, and are therefore outside the protection of their families:

Determinants of children's work and school attendance

9. Regression analysis looked at the role of the following variables as determinants of children's work and schooling:

- *Gender.* Girls are more likely than boys to work by about 14.4 percentage points, and to neither attend school nor work by about 10.4 percentage points. As a consequence, girls' probability of attending school is 24.8 percentage points lower than that for boys.
- *Household composition.* The presence of an additional small child (below 6 years) increases the probability that their older siblings work by 3.9 percentage points and decreases the probability that they study full-time by 5.6 percentage points.
- *Parents' education.* Increasing the level of a father's education from no schooling to primary level schooling decreases a child's probability of working by about six percentage points and increases a child's probability of studying full-time by about seven percentage points. An increase in a mother's education level has a similar effect.
- *Household income.* The effect of income variation on children's involvement in work and schooling is relatively weak. A 10 percent increase in income, for example, decreases the probability of working full-time and the probability of doing nothing by only about 0.3 and 0.2 percentage points, respectively.
- *Land.* Land ownership increases the probability of a child working and studying by 11.5 percentage points and decreases the probability that he or she is idle by 10.2 percentage points.

- *School expenditure.* School expenditure is positively related to school attendance (see discussion in main text). An increase in exogenous school expenditures increases the probability of children studying full-time (by 9.1 percentage points), and decreases the probability of children working full-time, of children working and studying and of children doing nothing.
- *Water availability.* An increase of 10 minutes in the time necessary to collect water has a small but significant positive effect on the probability of working full-time and a small but significant negative effect on the probability of studying full-time.
- *School availability.* Long travel times to school (more than 30 minutes) increase the probability of working by 4.1 percentage points and decrease the probability of studying full-time by 6.3 percentage points.
- *Residence.* Children belonging to households located in urban and rural hill areas are almost 21 percentage points less likely to work compared to children living in mountain areas.

National response to child labour

10. Nepal has made a number of important legal commitments to the protection and advancement of the interests of child workers. Nonetheless significant inconsistencies and gaps in legislation relating to child labour remain. Of most concern, the Child Labour Act (2000) does not cover family-based work, or, *inter alia*, work in private homes, in agriculture and on tea estates. Children's work in these sectors – which together account for the overwhelming majority of Nepalese child workers – is therefore not illegal, even if the children in question are below the legal minimum working age of 14.

11. The Ministry of Labour and Transport Management (MOLT) is coordinating and finalising a Master Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour. The Master Plan commits Nepal to improving existing rules and regulations on child labour, and aims at eliminating worst forms of child labour by 2005 and all forms by 2010. The issue of child labour also features in national development plans. The Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) proposes measures to protect children from illegal recruitment and to strengthen inspection mechanisms. The tenth five-year national development plan (2003-2007) and also addresses the elimination of the worst forms of child labour.

12. There are a wide range of outside groups involved in efforts against child labour. According to the first comprehensive analysis of child labour related programmes in Nepal, each year a total of US\$62.6 million are allocated to the implementation of 29 international donor programmes directly or indirectly relate to the issue of child labour. Assistance programmes, however, are concentrated in districts with road access rather than where need is greatest. Improving coordination also remains a major challenge; programme staff interviewed as part of the comprehensive analysis identified lack of coordination as one of the largest day-to-day constraints they face in their work.

Strategic options for addressing child labour

13. General policy considerations:

- *Promoting education reform:* There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school age children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so. The Nepalese Government has made major progress in expanding access to education. Through its Basic and Primary Education Programmes (BPEP I and II), the Government is also taking steps to address school quality, including curriculum and textbook reforms, introduction of cluster-based in-service teacher training, and management decentralisation. But the challenges remain huge. Average educational attainment remains very low, and there are still many children who never enter school. Of those that do enrol, too many leave prematurely, and those persisting generally perform poorly academically.
- *Reducing household vulnerability:* Children's work frequently forms part of a household's strategy for dealing with risk, making them less vulnerable to losses of income arising from individual or collective shocks. Reducing household vulnerability by expanding social protection is a critical priority in the Kingdom. While introducing and extending social protection coverage at the national level should be the long-term objective, developing and strengthening community-based social safety mechanisms is likely to yield greater benefits to vulnerable households in the short-term. Community-based measures such as micro health insurance plans, community savings groups, and micro-finance initiatives need to be promoted and expanded, with a particular emphasis on reaching the poorest of the poor.
- *Improving access to basic services:* Improving access to basic services is important because it helps reduce the time children, and especially girls, must spend performing household chores, making it more likely that they attend school. Although water coverage has risen substantially in recent years, 62 percent of rural households must still collect water from a common source, a task frequently falling on children and requiring an average of over two hours per day. Accelerated efforts are therefore needed to extend water coverage to underserved regions and marginalised communities not only for the well-known public health benefits of improved water access, but also as a strategy for addressing child labour.
- *Promoting women's literacy:* The empirical evidence from Nepal indicates that providing mothers with basic literacy skills has a very important role in raising rates of school enrolment and reducing rates of children's work, particularly among girls. This points to the importance of targeted women's literacy and education programmes, particularly for the 15-35 age group, as a strategy for increasing school participation and reducing child labour rates.
- *Social mobilisation and awareness-raising:* Perceptions of child labour as either beneficial or, at worst, a necessary evil, remain deeply entrenched in many segments of Nepalese society, underscoring the importance of social mobilisation and awareness-raising as part of an overall strategy against child labour. There is a need for accelerated communication efforts on the negative effects of child labour and the benefits of schooling, and an equally important need to mobilise key national and local stakeholders to act against child labour.

- *Strengthening legislative and monitoring measures.* Nepal has ratified ILO Convention No. 182 (worst forms), ILO Convention No. 138 (minimum age) and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), but inconsistencies remain between national legislation and these international child labour norms. There is a need to identify and redress these legal gaps/inconsistencies, as well as to strengthen the Government's ability to enforce and monitor child labour legislation.
- *Filling information gaps.* Despite a comparatively rich research base on child labour, important information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Little is known, for example, about trends in children's work rates across time, specific work hazards faced by children (particularly in the agricultural sector), numbers of children involved in worst forms of work, or about the labour market mechanisms that fuel or constrain child labour demand. There is a need for further targeted research designed to fill these and other key information gaps.

14. Priority target groups

- *Children in worst forms of child labour.* Available information, though frequently sketchy, indicates that numerous worst forms of child labour (as defined by ILO Convention No. 182) are found in Nepal. Although children involved in worst forms of labour appear to represent only a small proportion of total child workers, their numbers are by no means negligible, and they suffer the most serious rights violations and face the most serious health and developmental threats. Eliminating worst forms of work, therefore, should be an immediate strategic objective. While the general policy measures discussed above will contribute to reducing these forms of work, additional, more targeted, actions are also needed.
- *Children working in the agricultural sector:* Child agricultural workers constitute a second priority target group by weight of their sheer numbers. Indeed, working children in Nepal are, overwhelming, farm workers, accounting for than nine out of 10 total child workers, and a total of 1.8 million children in absolute terms. The large numbers of children in agriculture mean that eliminating child labour in this sector is not a feasible near-term policy objective. Of most immediate policy concern is not children's work in general in the agricultural sector, but rather the small proportion of female children in agriculture attending school and the subgroup of child agricultural workers that face serious work hazards. A more realistic initial strategy would instead focus on these immediate concerns.

1. INTRODUCTION

15. The Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project is guided by the Oslo Agenda for Action, unanimously adopted at the 1997 International Conference on Child Labour, which laid out the priorities for the International community to address child labour. The Agenda specifically identified the crucial need to address the lack of data on child labourers, and called for stronger co-operation amongst international agencies involved in addressing child labour. Through a variety of data collection, research and assessment activities, the UCW project is broadly directed towards increasing global- and local-level understanding of children's work, its causes and effects, how it can be measured, and what works in addressing it. The project is also directed towards improving synergies between the three implementing partners – ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank – in order to increase the effectiveness of their cooperation in the child labour field.¹

16. The current report as part of UCW project activities in Nepal. It provides an overview of the children's work phenomenon in the Kingdom – its extent and nature, its determinants, its consequences on health and education, and national responses to it. The report serves two important UCW project objectives in the country. First, it helps provide a *common analytical understanding* of children's work, that can be used to inform the current activities of the three partner agencies and Government, and that can be used to develop joint interagency strategies for future cooperation with the Government in addressing child labour.² Second, through close involvement of local counterparts in its development, the report contributes to a broader effort to *build national capacity* in analysing and using data on children's work for policy development.

17. The report is the product of a collaborative effort involving local and international researchers, the three implementing partner agencies and the UCW core team. The report builds on original research and analysis commissioned by the UCW Project.³ The statistical information presented in the report is drawn primarily from the Nepal Labour Force Survey conducted in 1998/99 (NLFS 1998/99) and the Nepal Living Standards Monitoring Study conducted in 1995/96 (LSMS 1995/96). The first involved a stratified sample of 14,400 households and the second a stratified sample of 19,200 households. A series of five ILO-IPEC sponsored rapid assessments is the primary source of information on worst forms of child labour. The report also draws on a number of smaller-scale studies, qualitative as well as quantitative, Government and NGO reports, agency documents and other information sources (see annotated bibliography in Annex C).

18. Following this introduction, Section 2 briefly reviews the national context, i.e., the socio-economic trends and major human development challenges that underlie the children's work phenomenon. Section 3 looks at data on the extent of children's work, broken down by age, sex, residence and region. Section 4 examines key characteristics of children's work, including the sectors where child workers are concentrated, the modality of work, and work intensity. Section 5 provides an

¹ For further information, see the project website at www.ucw-project.org.

² For an explanation of the usage of the terms "child work" and "child labour", see Section 3.1.

³ Specifically, the report builds on research by: Gilligan B., *Child Labour in Nepal: Understanding and Confronting its Determinants: An Analysis of the Determinants of Child Labour in Nepal*, The Policy, Environment and Response, report prepared for the UCW Project, Florence, Italy, 2002; and Sharma B., *Establishing a Knowledge Base on Existing Research on Child Labour, Education, Health and Nutrition and Poverty in Nepal An Annotated Bibliography*, report prepared for the UCW Project, Kathmandu, Nepal, January, 2003.

overview of worst forms of child labour, for which large scale household surveys are ill-suited to measure. Section 6 looks at major determinants of decisions relating to work and schooling, using the results of a regression analysis. Section 7 outlines the national response to child labour, on the levels of both legislation and policy. Finally, Section 8 looks at strategic options for accelerating and strengthening national action against child labour.

2. THE NATIONAL CONTEXT⁴

19. With a per capita income of US\$220 per annum, Nepal is the 12th poorest country in world and the poorest in South Asia.⁵ Despite per capita growth rates averaging 2.2 percent per annum in the last two decades, poverty reduction in Nepal has been slow. The 1995/96 Household Survey found that about 42 percent of the population lived below the poverty line, approximately the same poverty rate as found in the 1984/85 Multi-Purpose Household Budget survey. Poverty reduction has been slow in Nepal for two reasons. First, per capita income growth rate has been low (at this 2.2 percent growth rate, it will take Nepal around 31 years to double its per-capita income level). Second, growth has been concentrated primarily in the urban areas and particularly in Kathmandu valley, largely excluding 86 percent of the population who live in rural areas, where per capita agricultural production has grown minimally and the overall level of economic activity has been sluggish. Compounding the situation is the virtual absence of a poverty monitoring system, hampering policy formulation and evaluation of outcomes.

20. Agriculture employs 83 percent of the labour force and provides two-thirds of all household income, with poorer households most dependant on agriculture for income. Data on major food crops production from 1985/86 to 1998/99 indicates that agricultural production and productivity are stagnating or only marginally increasing. Agricultural and rural economic growth generally is constrained by inadequate infrastructure, weak irrigation and inadequate other complementary inputs. Nepal's poor road infrastructure – one of the least developed in the world – prevents the development of markets and hence, the growth of both farm and non-farm incomes. Only 15 percent of Nepal's cultivable land is under year-round irrigation and some estimates suggest that the total irrigated area may have fallen in the 1990s. Poor cost recovery for operations and maintenance in surface irrigation (less than two percent) and the slow rate of rehabilitation of privately-owned, farmer-managed irrigation systems have prevented an expansion of irrigation. Despite its recent growth, fertiliser application per hectare in Nepal is still significantly below that of neighbouring countries. A critical input - land - is highly fragmented and informal/ non-transparent tenancy arrangements deter investment in land. Only one-fourth of the very poor have *khet* (rice) growing land.

⁴ This section is drawn primarily from World Bank, *Memorandum of the President of the International Development Association to the Executive Directors on a Country Assistance Strategy Progress Report for the Kingdom of Nepal*, Rpt. no. 25205-NEP, January 6, 2003; World Bank, *Nepal Economic Forum Economic Update 2002*, Rpt. no. 23978, 20 January 2002; and World Bank, *Priorities and Strategies for Education Reform*, Rpt. no. 22065-NEP, Human Development Unit, South Asia Region, 18 July 2001.

⁵ These are based on nominal per capita incomes in US dollars. In purchasing power parity terms, Nepal's per capita income makes it the 30th poorest country in the world. It is worth noting that National Income Accounts are weak in Nepal, especially in the non-agricultural sector.

Table 1. - Achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)-Nepal's Progress in the 1990s

Key Targets	Current Levels and Recent Trends
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than US\$1/day.	It is estimated that 42% of the Nepali population are below the poverty line. As comparable estimates are lacking—until finalization of the soon to be initiated NLSS II—it is impossible to know the trend, but given recent low levels of economic growth it is unlikely that there have been noticeable improvements.
Enroll all children in primary school by 2015.	There is evidence that the enrolment rate of primary-aged children rose in the 1990s reportedly to 80%. Nevertheless, if recent improvement rates are not accelerated, it will be difficult to meet the goal.
Make progress towards gender equity & empowering women by eliminating gender disparities in primary/secondary education by 2005 and all levels by 2015.	1999 ratios for different levels show significant improvements in the relative access of girls to school education. While it is unlikely that the targets will be reached by 2005, the girls to boys gross enrolment ratios for both primary and lower secondary should reach close to 90%.
Reduce infant and child mortality rates by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015.	There have been considerable reductions in infant and under-5 mortality within the last decades, with the former declining to 64 (per 1,000 live births) and the latter to 91. Nevertheless, there are large regional variations, with rates higher in rural areas.
Reduce maternal mortality ratios by three-quarters between 1990 and 2015.	Maternal mortality was estimated at 539 (per 100,000 live births) in 1996, however, previous estimates are not comparable. There has been a slight improvement in deliveries attended by health care providers, but it will be difficult to meet the goal.
Have halted by 2015 & begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDs, incidence of malaria & other major diseases.	Due to a lack of updated, reliable data, it is impossible to obtain an accurate assessment of the HIV/AIDs situation; however, it has been suggested that the HIV rate is rising rapidly.
Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources.	There are issues—i.e., depletion of soil nutrients and arsenic contamination in the Tera—that show environmental sustainability remains a problem. However, other initiatives—in drinking water and forestry—indicate that problems associated with sustainable development can be solved. A national strategy for sustainable development will be formulated by 2005.
Halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water.	Access to drinking water has increased rapidly and data (although with problems) suggest that Nepal will reach near-universal access to drinking water by 2015. Nevertheless, while there is access, the safety of drinking water is a concern.

Sources: Nepal Country MDG Progress Report, UN Country Team, February 2002; and World Bank staff estimates, as cited in World Bank, *Memorandum of the President of the International Development Association to the Executive Directors on a Country Assistance Strategy Progress Report for the Kingdom of Nepal*, Report No. 25205-NEP, January 6, 2003.

21. Despite continued high levels of “consumption/income” poverty, good progress was made in some aspects of human development in the 1990s. Reduced infant and maternal mortality, increased primary school enrolment, reduced gender gap in education and increased access to drinking water, were some of the key areas of social progress during this period. But Nepal's human development remains low compared to other South Asian countries, and the country faces many challenges in meeting the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Table 1). There is also wide variation in human development within Nepal, across income/consumption groups, between urban and rural areas and within jurisdictions, and across different socio-ethnic groups. Low incomes, lack of employment opportunities especially in rural areas, a delayed start in development, poor public services, and inefficient use of public resources have all contributed to this low and unequal human development. These same factors have also contributed to creating social unrest and political instability.

22. Exclusionary cultural traditions, principally those based on gender and caste, and, to a certain extent, ethnic identities, have come under considerable challenge within the last decade. Nonetheless, these traditions remain widespread and deeply entrenched, and are a major factor hampering the social progress of “low caste” groups and certain ethnic minorities.⁶ These groups rank lower in almost every social

⁶ HMG/N and UN Country Team, *Progress Report 2002: Millennium Development Goals: 2002*, Kathmandu, 2002.

indicator; children belonging to these groups face the greatest risk of involvement in work. Women in general, and those belonging to “low caste” groups and certain ethnic minorities in particular, are especially challenged. More than eighty percent of all women, and 95 percent of poor women, cannot read or write. The gender related development index stands at only 0.452 and the gender empowerment measure at only 0.385, lowest in South Asia.⁷ Behind these figures loom such discriminatory practices as early child marriage, restricted mobility, lack of control over income and a culture that celebrate boys at the cost of girls. In the rural areas of Nepal women often bear the brunt of manual chores, including farm work, fetching water and fuel-wood collection. While efforts are being made to improve the status of women, the Constitution of Nepal and related legislation do not treat women equally.

23. The on-going Maoist insurgency continues to hamper economic growth and slow overall development. Following the breakdown in peace talks in November 2001, the Maoists have resumed and escalated their attacks, resulting in the declaration of a state of emergency. Maoist attacks on economic targets have worsened the investment climate, and have directly affected sales in the tourism, hotels and restaurants sectors. The political violence and state of emergency have also slowed the introduction of political and economic reforms seen as critical to the country’s long-term development prospects.

24. Health indicators are poor in Nepal, even for the region. In 1997, 475 out of every 100,000 women died from pregnancy related causes, and 105 out of 1,000 children died before the age of five.⁸ High under-five mortality and morbidity are a result of inadequate health care system, inadequate home childcare practices and of the aggravating affects of high child malnutrition. Nearly two-thirds of all Nepalese children suffer from malnutrition, almost 49 percent are underweight and 50 percent are stunted in their growth.⁹ Currently, the primary health care system is under-utilised and under-valued by the public it is meant to serve. This is due to the fact that health facilities are poorly accessible and unreliable, and to the lack of adequate personnel and reliable supplies of affordable essential drugs. Under the Second Long Term Health Plan, efforts have begun aimed at addressing these issues. More than 30,000 sub-health posts (SHP) have been established, maternal child health workers have been trained and posted in most SHPs, and primary health care programmes involving traditional birth attendants and female community volunteers have been established.

25. More than 90 percent of the working population is excluded from social protection systems. There are some forms of social security in place, where the employer and State contribute, but these systems are established primarily to serve those engaged in the formal sector. The army, police and teachers benefit from a pension fund (for up to 20 years’ service) and paid maternity leave. The Government also collects money from all permanent public governmental officials through the Provident Fund to provide for emergency needs. The problem is worst in the rural areas, as the population there is totally excluded from any form of social protection, including community safety nets and health insurance schemes. By not having access

⁷ The gender-related development index (GDI) is a composite index measuring average achievement in the three basic dimensions captured in the human development index: a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living-adjusted to account for inequalities between men and women. The gender empowerment measure (GEM) is a composite index measuring gender inequality in three basic dimensions of empowerment: economic participation and decision-making, political participation and decision-making and power over economic resources.

⁸ UNDAF 2002.

⁹ UNICEF, 1998

to social security schemes and in particular to health insurance, children and their families become extremely vulnerable to child labour when confronted with sickness or injury requiring medical treatment.

26. The past five decades have seen dramatic quantitative achievements in the education sector. From the situation in 1951 when there were only 321 primary schools, 11 secondary schools and 250 university graduates, currently there are over 3.4 million children enrolled in 23,000 primary schools, 360,000 students in about 3,300 secondary schools and over 80,000 students enrolled at the tertiary level. The literacy rate has increased from less than five percent (less than one percent for females) to over 40 percent. From a period of extremely limited access enjoyed exclusively by the most privileged social groups, the education system has opened up to a larger population, particularly at the primary level. In addition, increased attention has been given by Government to developing new curriculum, distributing free textbooks and providing teacher training as well as attempting to reach out to communities which are particularly educationally disadvantaged. Despite these successes, however, there is a general acceptance that access to primary education is still far from universal and that the quality of education received by the majority of students at all levels is unacceptably low. The education serves least those most at risk of becoming child labourers: members of low castes, marginalised ethnic and linguistic groups, and residents of remote mountainous areas.

27. Participation in education remains highly unequal across income and social groups and the benefits of public subsidies inequitably distributed. There are large differences in gross enrolment rates across geographic/ecological areas and income levels. The rates in primary schooling range between 64 percent in the Eastern Terai to 104 percent in the Eastern hills/mountains, and from 68 percent for the poorest quarter of all households to 18 percent for the wealthiest quarter. Most of the 30 percent or so of children not enrolled in primary school are members of socially disadvantaged groups and a majority are girls. Less than two percent of students at the tertiary level are from the 40 percent of households with the lowest incomes. Only 23,000 of the 129,000 tertiary level graduates are women. The benefits of public spending on education accrue unequally to students at the higher levels of education and to wealthier households. The richest 20 percent of the population receive about 40 percent of total public education subsidy while the poorest 20 percent receives less than 12 percent.

28. Learning outcomes of the school system are very low, underscoring the need to address school quality. A national assessment of students in grade 3 in 1997 showed that in tests of mathematics, Nepali language and social studies, students were on average able to answer correctly less than half the questions (44, 46 and 50 percent respectively). The assessment of students in Grade 5 in 1999, provided even lower average scores (27, 51 and 42 percent respectively). Inadequate teacher development and support is perhaps the most serious quality issue facing the school system. Teachers are inadequately trained for their job, and at the primary school level, often have very low qualifications and do not have the experience to handle children with different learning problems. Teachers' performance standards are non-existent and the career and incentives systems are limited and not conducive to raising performance. Other quality challenges include a fragmented curriculum, weak student assessment systems both within and across schools, inadequate libraries and equipment, weak school leadership and sporadic school supervision and monitoring. An overemphasis on quantitative expansion at the cost of quality and a failure to articulate and demonstrate good practices have led to an erosion in quality.

3. EXTENT OF CHILDREN'S WORK IN NEPAL

3.1 Children's work defined

29. For the purposes of this paper, "children's work" is defined as any form of economic activity performed by children. Economic activity, in turn, as defined by the UN System of National Accounts (1993 Rev. 3), is a broad concept that encompasses most productive activities by children, including unpaid and illegal work, work in the informal sector, and production of goods for own use. This operational definition of children's work does not include household chores, which are non-economic activities, and therefore outside the 'production boundary', according to the UN System of National Accounts (1993 Rev. 3). But this distinction between work and chores is essentially technical, as both can interfere with school and leisure, and both can pose health risks. This paper therefore also looks separately at the extent to which children must perform household chores.¹⁰

Box 1. - Child work versus child labour

The definitions of child work and child labour, and the distinctions between the two, have been subject to considerable debate, for instance in development circles.

A consensus is gradually emerging, however, that in the English language 'child work' or 'children's work' is seen as a general term covering the entire spectrum of work-related tasks performed by children, and 'child labour' as that subset of child work that is injurious to children and that should be targeted for elimination. There is also growing recognition that there are certain intolerable, or 'unconditionally worst', forms of child labour that constitute especially serious violations of children's rights, and that should be targeted first for elimination.

Implicit in this distinction is the recognition that work by children *per se* is not necessarily injurious to children or a violation of their rights. Indeed, in some circumstances, children's work can be beneficial, not harmful, contributing to family survival and enabling children to acquire learning and life skills.

There is less agreement concerning where the line between benign forms of work, on one side, and child labour for elimination, on the other, is drawn. This question is by no means merely academic, as underlying it is the more basic question of what precisely the social problem is that should be eliminated.

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) recognises the children's right to be protected from forms of work that are likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. The CRC also calls on States parties to set minimum ages for admission to employment, having regard to other international instruments.

ILO Conventions No. 138 (Minimum Age) and No. 182 (Worst Forms) target as child labour 1) *all forms of work* carried out by children below a minimum cut-off age (at least 12 years in less developed countries), 2) *all forms except 'light work'* carried out by children below a second higher cut-off age (at least 14 years in less developed countries), and 3) *all 'worst forms' of child labour*, including hazardous types of work, carried out by children of any age under 18.¹¹

The Government of Nepal, as reflected in the Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act (1999), views as illegal child labour work performed by children aged less than 14 years, and hazardous work performed by children aged less than 16 years. The law does not, however, deal with family enterprises, domestic work, tea estates, agriculture and the informal sector.

30. Children's work is not equivalent to child labour. Child labour is a narrower concept that refers only to negative or undesirable forms of work that should be eliminated (see Box 1). This report does not attempt to draw a clear statistical line between benign forms of children's work, on one side, and child labour for elimination, on the other. There are two main reasons for this. First, and most importantly, there is no clear legal consensus concerning what specific types of work constitute child labour (see Box 1). Second, even assuming such a consensus, drawing this line would require detailed information about the work tasks and work conditions of children in each of industrial sectors in which they are found. This information was not collected by NLFS 1998/99 or the other major household surveys conducted recently in Nepal. The report therefore attempts to instead provide the

¹⁰ Since household chores is not an exhaustive category, indicators relating to this type of activity are kept separate from information about child work.

¹¹ This report does not cover children 15-17 years of age, whose engagement in hazardous work or other worst forms of child labour needs to be tackled.

information, and identify the data gaps that need to be filled, in order that the Government is able to draw this line, based on national laws and guided by international child labour norms.

31. Unless otherwise indicated, the discussion on the prevalence of children's work refers to the 6-14 years age group. The upper bound of 14 years is consistent with the ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age), which states that the minimum age for admission to employment or work should not be less than 15 years (Art. 2.3).¹² Fourteen years can also be considered the threshold age after which children being to exercise a degree of control over their time allocations, i.e., the age at which children begin to become "free agents". The lower bound of six years coincides with the age at which Nepalese start formal schooling.

3.2 Total prevalence of children's work

32. Children's work is very common in Nepal. Forty-two percent of 6-14 year-olds - some 1.9 million children in absolute terms - are engaged in work (as defined above),¹³ the highest rate in the South Asia region.¹⁴ And this estimate, based on NLFS 1998/99, *understates* children's actual involvement in work-related activities. There are two main reasons for this. First, household surveys such as NLFS 1998/99

Table 2. - Child activity status, by sex and residence

Type of Activity	Residence	Male		Female		Total ⁽⁵⁾	
		%	No. ⁽¹⁾	%	No. ⁽¹⁾	%	No. ⁽¹⁾
Work only	Urban	3.6	9.54	6.4	15.25	4.9	24.77
	Rural	9.8	204.56	23.4	464.63	16.5	671.05
	Total ⁽⁵⁾	9.1	213.78	21.6	479.65	15.2	695.07
Study only	Urban	77.1	201.90	71.3	170.86	74.3	372.78
	Rural	50.0	1043.75	36.4	721.41	43.3	1763.30
	Total ⁽⁵⁾	53.1	1247.08	40.1	892.73	46.7	2138.11
Work and study	Urban	14.6	38.30	14.0	33.47	14.3	71.77
	Rural	30.8	643.68	24.9	494.55	27.9	1137.43
	Total ⁽⁵⁾	29.0	681.13	23.7	527.87	26.4	1208.31
No activities ⁽²⁾	Urban	4.6	12.04	8.4	20.07	6.4	32.10
	Rural	9.4	196.71	15.3	304.01	12.3	501.52
	Total ⁽⁵⁾	8.9	208.50	14.6	323.99	11.7	533.24
Total work ⁽³⁾	Urban	18.3	47.83	20.3	48.72	19.3	96.54
	Rural	40.6	848.24	48.3	959.18	44.4	1808.48
	Total ⁽⁵⁾	38.1	894.91	45.3	1007.53	41.6	1903.38
Total study ⁽⁴⁾	Urban	91.8	240.20	85.3	204.33	88.7	444.55
	Rural	80.8	1687.43	61.3	1215.96	71.2	2900.73
	Total ⁽⁵⁾	82.0	1928.20	63.9	1420.61	73.2	3346.42

Notes: (1) numbers expressed in thousands; (2) 'No activities' refers to children who neither attend school nor work; (3) 'Total work' refers to children that work only and children that work and study; (4) 'Total study' refers to children that study only and children that work and study; (5) totals may not sum up due to rounding.

Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

¹² In countries where the economy and education facilities are insufficiently developed, the Convention sets a minimum age of not less than 14 years for general work, and 12 years for light work, for an initial period. In Nepal, the 1999 Child Labour Act makes child work below the age of 14 illegal, with some important exceptions (see main text). Older working children are not included in this report, although the stipulations contained in ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 relating to hazardous work, excessively long work hours and unconditional worst forms, also extend to children aged 15-17 years. Likewise, the Convention on the Rights of the Child applies to all persons under the age of 18.

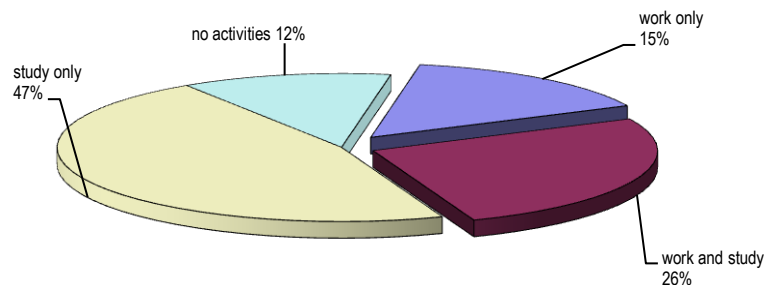
¹³ This estimate based on the Nepal Labour Force Survey 1998/99. By comparison, the 1995-96 National Child Labour Survey yielded an estimate of child work incidence of 41.6 percent for the 5-14 age group, and the 1995-96 Living Standards Monitoring Study yielded an estimate of 38.2 percent for the 10-14 age group.

¹⁴ Recent estimates of child work prevalence rates in other South Asian countries are much lower: 4.8 percent in India; 17.7 percent in Pakistan; 6.2 percent in Bangladesh. However, cross-country comparisons must be treated with caution because survey methodologies, timeframes, and definitions are not standardised.

are ill-suited to capturing so-called worst forms of child labour,¹⁵ because of the unlikelihood that these morally repugnant or dangerous activities are reported by a household member to a survey interviewer, even if the child in question is still part of the household.¹⁶ Worst forms of child labour are discussed further in section 5 of this report. Second, NLFS 1998/99 reported a substantial proportion of children as neither working nor attending school. This group of children requires further investigation, but it stands to reason that many reportedly idle children are in reality involved in unreported work (see below).

33. About two-thirds (63 percent) of working children also attend school. This compares with a school enrolment rate of 79 percent for non-working children, and 73 percent for all 6-14 year-olds. Work, therefore, appears to interfere with children's ability to attend school, though to a lesser degree than in other countries examined as part of the UCW project.¹⁷ The specific nature of the interplay between work and schooling, however, is an area requiring further investigation in Nepal. The remaining (non-working) children in the 6-14 years age group are either full-time students (47 percent) or are reportedly involved in no activities (12 percent) (Figure 1).

Figure 1. - Distribution of Nepalese children by activity status



Source: UCW calculations based on Nepal Labour Force Survey 1998/1999

34. Children reportedly neither working nor attending school constitute another important target group. Children from this group, numbering over 500,000 in absolute terms, can be even more disadvantaged than their working counterparts, benefiting neither from schooling nor from the learning-by-doing that some forms of work offer. Research elsewhere suggests that this is also the group that is most at risk of entering work should a household be faced with a sudden loss of income or other type of shock.¹⁸ What is known about the activities of this group of children? Further analysis of the NLFS 1998/99 data indicates that about eight percent performs household chores for at least four hours per day, one percent is actively seeking work,

¹⁵ Activities targeted by ILO Convention No. 182 as worst forms include: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; and (d) any activity or occupation which, by its nature or type has, or leads to, adverse effects on the child's safety, health (physical or mental), and moral development.

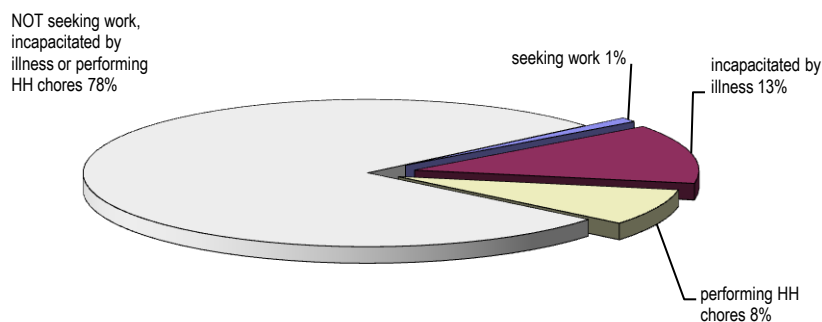
¹⁶ And in Nepal, an estimated 80 percent of children in worst forms are migrants, living outside their families.

¹⁷ In Nepal, for example, only nine percent of working children attend school compared to 75 percent of total children; and in Yemen, 35 percent of working children attend school against 55 percent of total children.

¹⁸ For example, UCW project, *Understanding Child Work in Guatemala*, unpublished preliminary report, August 2002.

and 13 percent cannot work or attend school because of illness. But these three sub-groups together account for only 22 percent of total non-working and non-studying children (Figure 2). The activities of the remaining 78 percent require further investigation. These children could either be idle, i.e., involved in no activities beyond leisure, or performing work that is not captured by the survey due to reporting error.¹⁹

Figure 2. - Children reported neither working nor attending school



Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey 1998/99*.

Table 3. - Involvement in household chores more than four hours per day

Sex	Resid-ence	Proportion of children performing HH chores ≥ 4 hrs./day	Distribution of children performing HH chores ≥ 4 hrs./day by activity status					Composite work indicator (% of children working or performing HH chores ≥ 4 hrs./day) excluding overlapping category)
			Work only	Study only	Work and study	Idle	Total	
Male	Urban	0.9	33.86	32.49	17.43	16.21	100	18.5
	Rural	1.4	13.98	38.94	25.33	21.76	100	40.0
	Total	1.3	15.45	38.46	24.74	21.35	100	37.6
Female	Urban	4.0	18.53	34.25	17.05	30.16	100	22.6
	Rural	7.5	36.92	19.54	19.6	23.93	100	50.5
	Total	7.1	35.81	20.43	19.45	24.31	100	47.5
Total	Urban	2.4	21.53	33.91	17.13	27.43	100	20.4
	Rural	4.4	33.17	22.72	20.54	23.58	100	45.1
	Total	4.1	32.44	23.42	20.33	23.82	100	42.4

Source : UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

¹⁹ Parents may falsely report their children as being idle instead of as working because (at best) work by children is forbidden or (at worst) because their children are engaged in illegal or dangerous activities. Alternatively, parents may misinterpret the survey question, and report a child as idle because he or she was not working at the time of the interview, although he or she may work during other periods. It also possible that parents erroneously report their children as idle because the questions regarding the type of occupation and industry, both taken from international standards for adult work, are not applicable to the work tasks undertaken by their children.

35. **The performance of household chores²⁰ is also common among Nepalese children.** Although, as noted above, household chores do not fall within the formal definition of work, their implications for child welfare are similar to those of work. Over one-third of 6-14 year-olds – 1.6 million in absolute terms – regularly perform household chores, though only four percent do so for more than four hours per day (Table 3). Over half of children performing household chores for at least four hours per day are also economically active.

36. Combining children performing household chores for at least four hours per day with those that are economically active (and eliminating the overlapping group that fall into both categories) forms a more comprehensive indicator of involvement in work-like activities. ‘Work’ prevalence when using this more comprehensive indicator rises slightly to 42.4 percent, with some variation by residence and sex (Table 3).

3.3 Prevalence of children’s work by sex and age

37. Nepalese girls are more likely than boys to be engaged in work, and much more likely than boys to be performing household chores, underscoring the important gender dimension of the children’s work phenomenon in Nepal. Girls’ involvement in work exceeds that of boys by about seven percentage points. Girls’ involvement in household chores exceeds that of boys by a much wider margin, 32 percentage points. The gender gap in both work rates and household chores involvement grows with age (Table 2 and Figure 2). Girls are also much more likely to work and perform household chores simultaneously, pointing to a very high total work burden among girls; 57 percent of girls performing household chores also work, against only 26 percent of boys performing household chores. Girls, not surprisingly, are much less likely than boys to attend school; 82 percent of all boys are enrolled in school compared to only 64 percent of all girls.

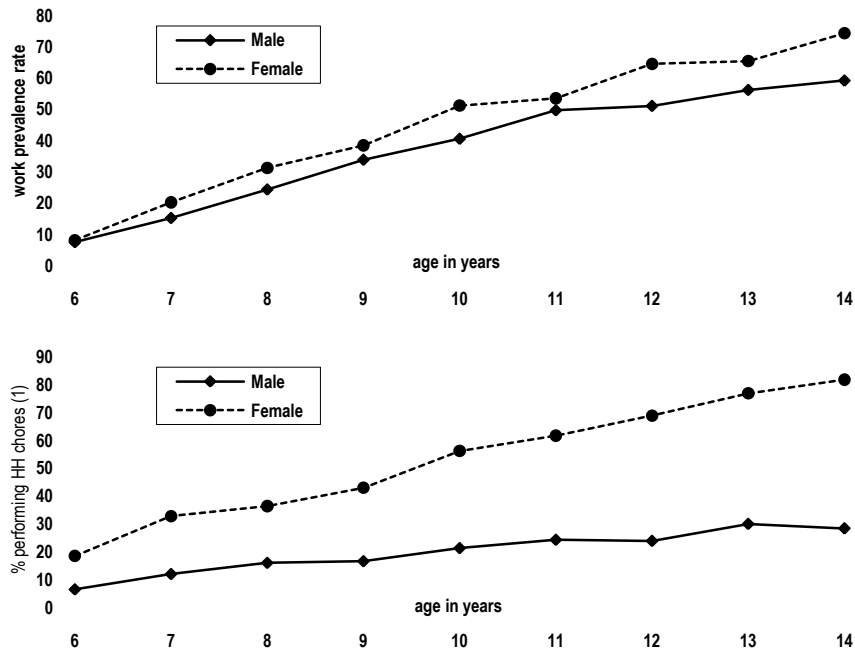
38. Work prevalence is highest among older children in Nepal, though large numbers of young children are also involved in work. Sixty-one percent of 12-14 year-olds are economically active against 18 percent of 6-8 year-olds. But the absolute number of very young Nepalese children engaged in work is nonetheless significant. Almost 300,000 children aged 6-8 years are economically active. These very young working children are the most vulnerable to workplace abuses, and most at risk of work-related ill-health or injury.

3.4 Prevalence of children’s work by residence and region

39. **Children’s work is primarily a rural phenomenon in Nepal.** The prevalence of children’s work in rural areas (44 percent) is more than double that of urban areas (19 percent); rural child workers account for 95 percent of total child workers. Regionally, the greatest absolute number of working children is found in the Central and Eastern regions (Figure 4), but *incidence* of children’s work is highest in the sparsely-populated mountainous areas in the Mid- and Far-West (Table 4) regions.

²⁰ Household chores are defined in the NLFS 1998/99 questionnaire as (1) cooking/serving food for the household; (2) dishwashing; (3) performing minor household repairs; (4) shopping for household; (5) caring from old/sick/infirmary; (6) childminding; (7) fetching water; (8) collecting firewood; (9) other volunteer community services.

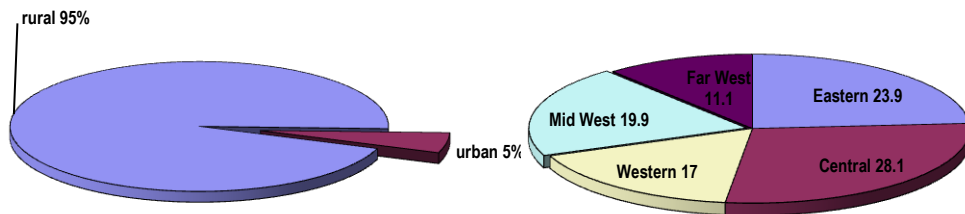
Figure 3. - Child work prevalence, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Nepal Labour Force Survey 1998/99.

Fifty-eight percent of 6-14 year-olds in the Far-West region, and 44 percent in the Mid West region, are economically active. It should be recalled, however, that these figures only reflect forms of work captured by NLFS 1998/99. Rapid assessment findings (see Section 5) suggest that a majority (80 percent) of children trapped in the worst forms of child labour work live in populous districts featuring major road corridors and important urban or industrial centres.

Figure 4. - Distribution of child workers by residence and region



Source: UCW calculations based on Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99.

Table 4. - Child activity status by region

Region	Distribution by activity status					Total work incidence ⁽¹⁾ by region
	Work only	Study only	Work and study	Idle	Total	
Eastern	15.0	47.4	27.4	10.2	100.0	42.4
Central	17.7	50.5	17.2	14.5	100.0	35.0
Western	6.2	52.2	32.4	9.2	100.0	38.7
Mid West	19.3	29.2	38.5	13.1	100.0	57.7
Far West	17.5	47.7	26.5	8.3	100.0	44.0

Note: (1) total work prevalence is the sum of the 'work only' and 'work and study' categories

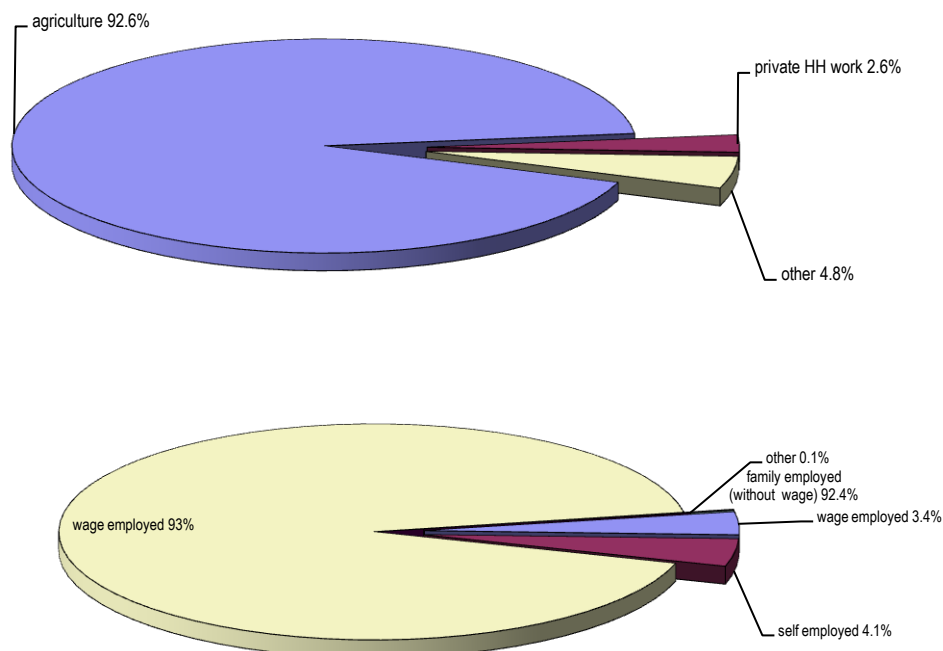
Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey 1998/99*

4. CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILD WORK

40. **The overwhelming majority of Nepalese working children are found in the agricultural sector.**²¹ Ninety-three percent, or, in absolute terms, 1.70 million of 1.83 million total child workers, are involved in farm work. This, however, is primarily a reflection of children's work in rural areas, where 94 percent of children are involved in agriculture. While children working in urban areas are also concentrated primarily in the agriculture sector (agriculture accounts for 75 percent of urban child workers), smaller but not insignificant groups of urban working children are also found in working in commerce (nine percent), hotels and restaurants (six percent), private households (five percent) and in manufacturing (three percent). There are slight variations in the sectoral distribution of working children by sex, particularly in urban areas. Urban working girls are twice as likely as their male counterparts to be involved in private household work and in manufacturing, but are less likely than boys to be involved in commerce (Table 5).

41. **Almost all (93 percent) working children are unwaged family workers.** Unwaged family work is most common in the agriculture sector, where it accounts for 94 percent of total child workers (Table 6). Over half of children in the manufacturing sector also perform unwaged family work, with smaller proportions working for wages (26 percent) or self-employed (16 percent). There were too few observations in NLS 1998/99 to determine modes of work in the other sectors where child workers are found.

Figure 5. - Distribution of child workers by sector and modality of work



Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

²¹ The questions in NLFS 1998/99 (and other similar surveys) industry and work modality, however, are taken from international standards for adult work, and therefore provide only an incomplete picture of the nature of work performed by children.

Table 5. - Working children by industrial sector, residence and sex

Sector		Urban			Female			Total ⁽²⁾		
		Male	Female	Total ⁽²⁾	Male	Female	Total ⁽²⁾	Male	Female	Total ⁽²⁾
Agriculture ⁽³⁾	%	74.41	75.54	74.98	93.71	93.51	93.60	92.69	92.66	93.40
	No. ⁽¹⁾	33.82	34.94	68.76	756.66	871.26	1,627.92	790.48	906.20	1,696.68
Mining and quarrying	%	0.00	0.67	0.34	0.00	0.04	0.02	0.00	0.07	0.04
	No. ⁽¹⁾	0.00	0.31	0.31	0.00	0.37	0.37	0.00	0.68	0.68
Manufacturing	%	1.92	4.34	3.14	1.19	1.49	1.35	1.23	1.62	1.44
	No. ⁽¹⁾	0.87	2.01	2.88	9.63	13.86	23.49	10.51	15.86	26.37
Construction	%	1.43	0.44	0.93	0.81	0.27	0.52	0.84	0.28	0.54
	No. ⁽¹⁾	0.65	0.20	0.85	6.55	2.51	9.06	7.20	2.71	9.91
Commerce ⁽⁴⁾	%	11.65	7.20	9.40	1.47	0.94	1.19	2.02	1.24	1.60
	No. ⁽¹⁾	5.29	3.33	8.62	11.90	8.77	20.66	17.19	12.09	29.28
Hotels and restaurant work	%	6.18	5.19	5.68	0.59	0.53	0.56	0.89	0.75	0.81
	No. ⁽¹⁾	2.81	2.40	5.21	4.77	4.90	9.67	7.58	7.30	14.88
Private HH work	%	3.61	6.33	4.98	1.67	3.07	2.42	1.77	3.22	2.55
	No. ⁽¹⁾	1.64	2.93	4.57	13.48	28.56	42.05	15.12	31.49	46.61
Other services ⁽⁵⁾	%	0.81	0.31	0.56	0.54	0.17	0.35	0.56	0.17	0.36
	No. ⁽¹⁾	0.36	0.14	0.51	4.42	1.53	5.95	4.78	1.68	6.46
Total⁽¹⁾	%	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
	No. ⁽¹⁾	45.45	46.26	91.71	807.41	931.76	1,739.17	852.86	978.02	1,830.88

Notes: (1) numbers expressed in thousands; (2) totals may not sum up due to rounding; (3) includes forestry, hunting and fishing; (4) wholesale and retail trade; (5) includes transport, real estate, public administration, education, and other community social services.

Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

Table 6. - Distribution of working children by mode of work and main industrial sector

Industry	Mode of work											
	Wage employed			self employed			Unwaged family worker			other		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture ⁽¹⁾	2.27	2.19	2.23	3.19	3.95	3.59	94.54	93.76	94.13	0	0.1	0.05
Mining and quarrying	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Manufacturing	41.83	14.6	25.45	17.69	15.09	16.13	35.96	70.31	56.63	4.52	0	1.8
Construction	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Commerce ⁽²⁾	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Hotels and restaurant work	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Private HH work	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
Other services ⁽³⁾	23.26	5.61	16.14	11.72	0.91	7.36	65.02	91.56	75.73	0	1.92	0.77
Total	3.63	2.48	3.02	3.72	4.06	3.9	92.59	93.32	92.98	0.06	0.14	0.1

Notes: (1) includes forestry, hunting and fishing; (2) wholesale and retail trade; (3) includes transport, real estate, public administration, education, and other community social services

Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

Working children in Nepal put in an average of 24 hours of work per week. Average weekly working hours are, not surprisingly, higher among older working children compared to younger ones, and higher among children that only work compared to those that also attend school (Table 7). Girls work an average of a little over two and a half hours per week longer than boys. Household chores also eat into

children's time for study and leisure. Over one-third of Nepalese children regularly perform household chores.

Table 7. - Average weekly working hours of child workers, by age, sex and school attendance status

Age	Working only			Working and attending school			All working children		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
6	21.65	19.93	20.45	12.46	8.07	10.91	14.82	15.05	14.93
7	28.53	22.54	24.33	14.41	15.60	14.99	18.62	19.15	18.93
8	27.46	25.52	26.12	16.06	15.97	16.02	18.71	20.15	19.49
9	27.39	25.74	26.37	16.72	16.47	16.59	19.74	20.04	19.90
10	34.52	28.02	29.83	16.96	18.54	17.62	21.28	23.68	22.58
11	35.46	33.63	34.09	20.56	18.33	19.57	22.97	24.87	23.98
12	37.28	31.79	33.29	20.27	18.69	19.65	23.79	25.46	24.65
13	37.26	34.13	35.17	22.21	21.93	22.09	25.64	27.25	26.47
14	42.66	35.93	38.24	21.45	22.19	21.79	27.60	28.75	28.22
Total	35.07	30.47	31.87	19.19	18.86	19.05	22.99	24.39	23.73

Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

5. WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR²²

5.1 Overview of worst forms

42. An initial listing of 19 worst forms of child labour in Nepal was identified through a series of consultations with local resource persons, district level officials, and national stakeholders organised by ILO-IPEC during 2000-2001. Of these, seven forms – bonded labour, domestic child labour, ragpicking, mining, carpet weaving, portering and trafficking – were identified as immediate priorities (Table 8).²³ It is estimated, based on a series of rapid assessments,²⁴ that there are at least 127,000 children aged 5-18 years involved in these seven priority worst forms.²⁵ Children involved domestic work, portering and bonded labour account for 94 percent of this total (Table 8).

Table 8. - Worst Forms of child labour in Nepal

Area	Worst forms identified in regional consultations	Priority worst forms targeted by ILO-IPEC time-bound programme	Estimated no. of children involved in priority worst forms
Agriculture and bonded labour	1. Agricultural work		
	2. Work in tea estates		
		3. Bonded child labour	17,150
Informal Service	4. Hotel/restaurant work		
	5. Street vending/ hawking		
		6. Domestic child labour ^(a)	55,650
		7. Ragpicking	3,950
Construction	8. Construction work		
	9. Brickmaking (brick kilns)		
	10. Work in stone quarries		
Production	11. <i>Bidi</i> industry		
		12. Work in mines	100
		13. Carpet weaving	4,250
Transportation	14. Garage work		
	15. Ticket vending		
		16. Portering	46,000
Trafficking and sexual exploitation	17. Child sexual exploitation		
	18. <i>Badi</i> children		
		19. Trafficking for labour and sexual exploitation ^(b)	

Notes: (a) urban areas only; and (b) it is estimated that 12,000 girl children are trafficked for commercial exploitation each year.

Source: ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project*, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001.

²² Activities targeted by ILO Convention No. 182 as worst forms include: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; and (d) any activity or occupation which, by its nature or type has, or leads to, adverse effects on the child's safety, health (physical or mental), and moral development.

²³ ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project*, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001.


²⁴ With funding from the United States Department of Labor, five Rapid Assessments on five selected worst forms of child labour were completed for IPEC by Central Department of Population Studies (CDPS) and National Labour Academy (NLA). The studies on porters, ragpickers and trafficking were conducted by CDPS. The studies on domestic child workers and bonded labour were conducted by NLA. Reference is also made to a study conducted by BISCONS on carpet workers and by RARA on children working in mines.

²⁵ This figure constitutes only a very rough initial approximation, as it is not based on nationally representative sample surveys but rather extrapolated from rapid assessments using a number of simplifying assumptions. The estimate also excludes important subgroups within these seven priority worst forms.

43. Rapid assessments underscore the severe rights violations faced by children involved in the seven priority worst forms. As illustrated in Table 9, and described in further detail in the paragraphs below, these children are subjected to deprivation of schooling, sexual and physical abuse, excessive working hours, injuries and work hazards, and restrictions on movement. The overwhelming majority – an estimated 80 percent – have migrated for work, primarily from rural to urban areas, and are therefore outside the protection of their families. Figure 6 depicts their districts of origin and of work.

Table 9. - Elements of selected worst forms of child labour in Nepal

Elements of worst forms of child labour	Bonded labour	Ragpickers	Porters	Domestic workers	Mining	Carpet sector	Trafficking
High incidence of boys	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	NIA	
High incidence of girls	Severe problem	Not significant	Not significant	Severe problem	Severe problem	NIA	Severe problem
Large proportion <14 years	Severe problem	Severe problem	Not significant	Severe problem	NIA		
Living away from home	Not significant	Not significant	Severe problem	Severe problem	Not significant	Severe problem	Severe problem
Working long hours	Severe problem	Not significant	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	Partially prevalent
No control over income	Severe problem	Not significant	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	NIA	Severe problem	Severe problem
Girls' wages lower than boys'	Partially prevalent	Partially prevalent	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	NIA	Severe problem	
Injuries and health hazards	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	Partially prevalent	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem
Abuse and harassment	Severe problem	Partially prevalent	Not significant	Severe problem	Not significant	Partially prevalent	Severe problem
Restricted mobility	Severe problem	Not significant	Not significant	Severe problem	Not significant	Not significant	Severe problem
Sexual abuse	Not significant	Severe problem	Partially prevalent	Severe problem	Not significant	Partially prevalent	Severe problem
Incidence of trafficking	Not significant	Not significant	Not significant	Partially prevalent	Not significant	Severe problem	
Elements of bonded labour	Severe problem	Not significant	Not significant	Partially prevalent	Not significant	Not significant	Not significant
Not attending school	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem	Severe problem

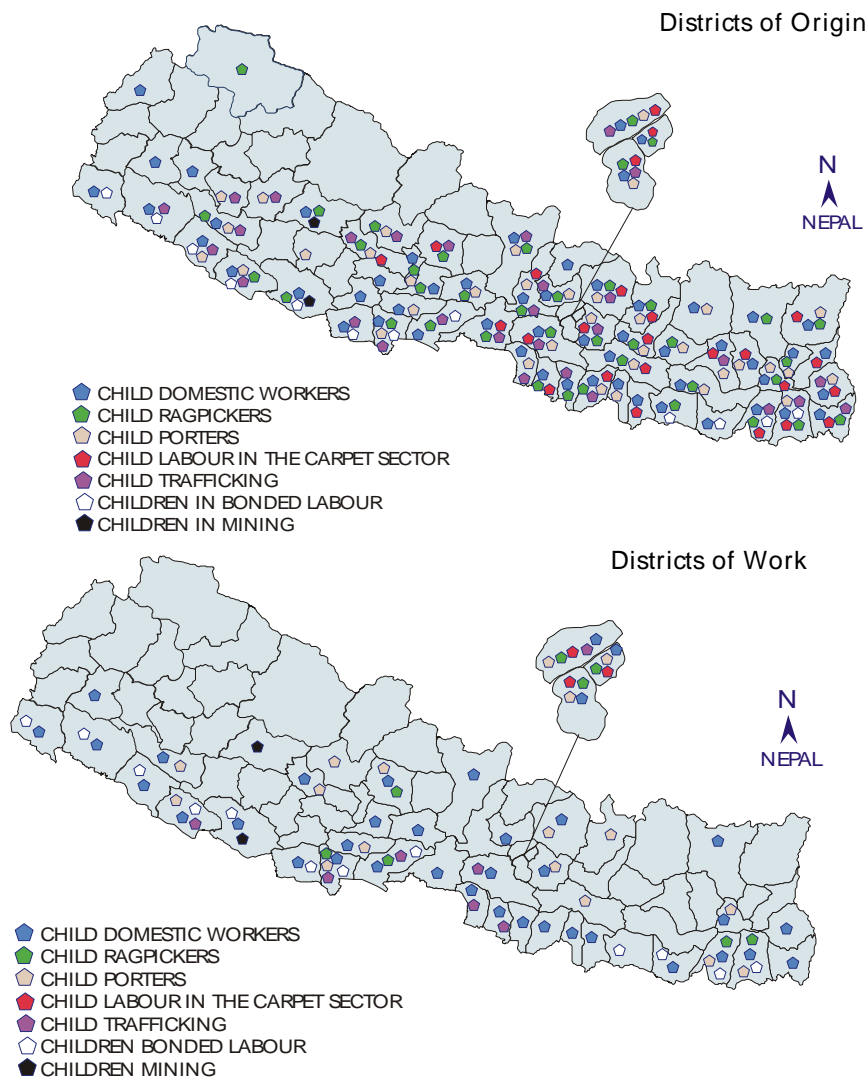
NA: not applicable; NIA: no information available


Source: ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001*

5.2 Seven priority worst forms

45. **Domestic child labour.** Domestic child labour, i.e., the phenomenon of children working in an employer's house with or without a wage, is widespread in Nepal. ILO-IPEC estimates that there are around 55,650 domestic child workers in the urban areas of the country, three-quarters of whom are less than 14 years of age.²⁶ This estimate does not include domestic child workers in rural areas or other market towns, and therefore total incidence is higher. More than half of urban domestic workers are

Figure 6. - Children in worst forms of work: districts of origin and districts of work



Source: Reproduced from Edmonds C. and Shrestha B., *Child Labour in Nepal Status Paper*, undated.

²⁶ A total of 402 out of the 2,237 households covered by the rapid assessment employed child domestic workers. Extrapolating this proportion to the Kathmandu municipality as a whole yielded an estimate of 21,191 domestic child workers. A 1999 UNICEF study provided incidence parameters for Pokhara, Butwal and Siddharthanagar (Sharma et al, 1999). Classifying all municipalities in Nepal to fit the profile of either Kathmandu, Pokhara, Butwal or Siddharthanagar, and applying the respective incidence parameter of each municipality, yielded an estimate of 42,674 domestic child workers aged 14 years or younger in all urban areas and municipalities of Nepal, and 55,655 domestic child workers aged 18 years or younger. NLFS 1998/99, based on a nationally representative sample, yielded a slightly higher estimate of 46,613 children aged 6-14 years working in private households. For further details, see Sharma S., Thakurathi M., Sapkota K., Devkota B., and Rimal B., *Nepal Situation of Domestic Child Labourers in Kathmandu Study: A Rapid Assessment*, National Labour Academy and ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

boys, a high proportion for an occupation typically considered female-oriented, but girls are generally hired at a younger age and are paid less. Kitchen work, dish washing, child minding, cloth washing, house cleaning, cattle raising and shop keeping are the main activities in which child domestic workers are engaged. There is a common perception in Nepal of domestic labour as providing disadvantaged children with a relatively safe, comfortable route out of poverty or other forms of child labour. The ILO-IPEC rapid assessment, however, calls this perception into question. The assessment indicates, *inter alia*, that about one in ten child domestic workers are likely bonded; 47 percent work excessive hours;²⁷ 79 percent work until at least nine o'clock in the evening; over half (53 percent) work without pay; and seven percent are employed before the age of 10. Cases of isolation, unreasonable confinement and physical or sexual abuse are known to occur, although more difficult to quantify. A majority of children interviewed for the rapid assessment indicating feeling very 'lonely', living in confinement far from their homes without seeing their families and friends for years.²⁸

46. Portering. The use of children as porters has been a traditional survival strategy for impoverished rural families for generations; over 90 percent of all child porters originally come from rural areas. Child porters fall into two categories: short distance porters who work in market/business centres and bus parks, and long distance porters who carry loads along rural routes and who are generally seasonal workers.²⁹ ILO-IPEC estimates that there are about 46,000 long-distance child porters and about 3,900 short-distance child porters in Nepal.³⁰ Most are boys aged 10-17 years. Only 12 per cent of total child porters, and almost none of the short-distance porters, are girls. While Nepalese law prohibits minors from carrying more than 25 kg,³¹ this restriction is largely ignored. As wages are often determined by the weight of the load, children frequently carry loads that exceed their own body weight. According to the 2001 ILO-IPEC rapid assessment,³² the average weight load of a short distance child porter is 56 kg, while that for long distance child porters is 35 kg. Child porters face a number of serious health risks: increased heart, circulatory and digestive problems; tuberculosis; malnutrition and stunted growth; chronic leg and back pain; and a life expectancy shortened by as much as 20 to 30 years. The longer the distance, the greater the exposure to hazards. Long distance porters carry loads for many days (on average six), do not eat regularly, and risk accidents on dangerous mountain paths. Only one in five child porters go to school.

²⁷ Over 14 hours in the case of school-goers and over 16 hours in the case of non school-goers.

²⁸ Sharma S., Thakurathi M., Sapkota K., Devkota B., and Rimal B., *Nepal Situation of Domestic Child Labourers in Kathmandu Study: A Rapid Assessment*, National Labour Academy and ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

²⁹ ILO-IPEC, *IPEC Country Profile: Nepal*. (www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/timebound/nepal.pdf).

³⁰ These estimates are based on information from the interviews of 349 porters from both rural and urban areas of the country. Major long distance and short distance routes were identified, and the daily flow of child porters through these routes estimated. The estimates do not take into account 'double counting' (i.e. the same child working on the same route, more than once). Similarly, the estimates do not account for seasonality (i.e. those children working outside the peak winter season) or for differences in the flow of porters along each route (routes differ demographically, geographically, and in their demand for porters). For further details see Central Department of Population Studies and Tribhuvan University, *Nepal Situation of Child Porters: A Rapid Assessment*, ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

³¹ National legislation sets the following weight limits: 15 kg for children under 14 years, 20 kg for girls between 16 to 18 years of age and 25 kg for boys in the same age group.

³² Central Department of Population Studies and Tribhuvan University, *Nepal Situation of Child Porters: A Rapid Assessment*, ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

47. **Bonded child labour.** ILO-IPEC estimates that there are some 17,152 *Kamaiya*³³ children employed outside their homes, most under some form of bonded labour arrangement.³⁴ The ILO-IPEC rapid assessment highlighted the difficult conditions faced by these children: three-quarters work more than 12 hours per day; 43 percent work without pay; 15 percent are below the age of 10; and 95 percent do not attend school (80 percent never enter school). In July 2000, the Nepali Parliament declared the practices of *kamaiya* and *saunki*³⁵ illegal, but it will take time to put in place the enforcement mechanisms and alternatives for freed labourers needed to completely eradicate these practices countrywide.³⁶ What is more, there is evidence that the new legislation is generating new forms of bonded labour – freed *Kamaiyas* being required by landowners, for example, to supply their children as labourers as a condition for leasing land. There is evidence suggesting that domestic child labour in particular has increased among *Kamaiya* families for this reason since the passing of the new legislation.³⁷ Bonded child labour in Nepal also exists outside the *Kamaiya* system. The total number of children in bonded labour in Nepal is therefore higher, 33,000 according to one recent estimate.³⁸ Bonded children outside the *Kamaiya* system are found working in hotels, small tea establishments, brick kilns, stone quarries, the carpet industry, domestic service and in numerous other sectors.

48. **Child trafficking.**³⁹ Both internal and external child trafficking is widespread in Nepal, cutting across most castes and ethnic groups.⁴⁰ ILO-IPEC estimates that 12,000 Nepalese girls are trafficked each year,⁴¹ probably the largest flow of trafficked children of its kind anywhere in the world. Most trafficked girls end up in brothels in urban centres across the border in India, where as many as 30,000

³³ *Kamaiya* is a bonded agricultural labourer who is forced to provide hard physical labour without receiving a wage for his/her contribution in order to repay debt taken by him/herself or by family members at present or in the past.

³⁴ This estimate is based on an ILO-IPEC rapid assessment covering a sample of 650 *Kamaiya* households (constituting 3.3 percent of the 19,863 households in the five mid- and far-western Terai districts where the *Kamaiya* system prevailed). For further details, Sharma S., Basnyat B. and G.C. Ganesh, *Nepal Bonded Child Workers of the Kamaiya System: A Rapid Assessment*. National Labour Academy and ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

³⁵ Bonded labourers' debts.

³⁶ ILO-IPEC, *IPEC Country Profile: Nepal* (www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipecc/timebound/nepal.pdf).

³⁷ Sharma S., Thakurathi M., Sapkota K., Devkota B., and Rimal B., *Nepal Situation of Domestic Child Labourers in Kathmandu Study: A Rapid Assessment*, National Labour Academy and ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

³⁸ This estimate, however, should be considered as only a very rough approximation. It is based on the assumption that about one-half of waged children who indicate not knowing how much they earn may be bonded. By applying this assumption to the results of the 1997 Child Labour Survey the estimate of 33,000 is obtained. Sharma S., 'Child Bonded Labour, Nepal', published in ILO/IPEC *Working Papers on Child Labour in Asia*, Volume 1, 2001.

³⁹ According to the *UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children*, child trafficking can be defined as "the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of a girls or boy of less than 18 years of age for the purposes of exploitation."

⁴⁰ Those most at risk, however, are the hill ethnic groups and lower castes.

⁴¹ ILO-IPEC cautions, however, that estimating the magnitude of the child trafficking phenomenon is very difficult and that these figures are therefore only a very rough approximation. The estimate of 12,000 trafficked children is based on information collected from three sources: 1) a small-scale survey conducted by a local NGO, Society Protection Youth Club, in Ichowk Village Development Committee (VDC) of Sindhupalchowk District; 2) fieldwork by "Helpline", a local NGO in Gongabu Bus Park; and 3) 100 vulnerable households interviewed as part of the ILO-IPEC rapid assessment. Extrapolating from these findings, it was assumed that an average of five girls are trafficked each year from VDCs in the 26 most trafficking-prone districts, that half that number are trafficked from VDCs in the eleven additional trafficking-prone districts identified, and that an average of one girl is trafficked from 38 households in three municipalities, yielding a total estimate of 12,000 trafficked children each year. For further details, see Central Department on Population Studies (CDPS) and Tribhuvan University, *Nepal Trafficking in Girls with Special Reference to Prostitution: A Rapid Assessment*, ILO-IPEC, November 2001, Geneva.

Nepalese girls can be found at any given time. Nearly 40 percent are trafficked before the age of 14 years. Trafficking generally occurs through coercion, fraud, and deception, often from workplaces using child labour (“hard” trafficking); but sometimes, particularly in remote and poor areas, young girls are sold to traffickers with the silent consent of parents (“soft” trafficking). Girls trafficked to brothels in the large urban areas of Nepal or across the border to India suffer acutely, both mentally and physically. The girl children interviewed for the ILO-IPEC rapid assessment describe their experiences as ‘hell’. The majority of girls in the study were forced into prostitution within one day of their arrival, and the average duration of stay at a brothel was 24 months. On average, girls were forced to serve 14 clients per day, with a minimum of three and a maximum of forty persons. Three-fifths of the respondents reported that their clients used condoms sometimes, rarely, or not at all, putting the girls at high risk of contracting HIV/AIDS or other sexually transmitted diseases. Those who return home face severe social stigma and exclusion, and many are HIV positive.

49. Carpet weaving. ILO-IPEC estimates that there are some 4,227 children – both boys and girls – working in the carpet industry in Nepal.⁴² There are also an estimated 5,000-7,000 Nepalese children working in the carpet industry in the Benaras District of India bordering Nepal.⁴³ The problem of child labour in the carpet industry has received considerable attention from international human rights campaigners and the Government, with the result that children’s involvement in the sector is believed to have declined in recent years.⁴⁴ Child workers are concentrated primarily in small- and medium-sized factories; very few are found among the larger fabricators-exporters. A number of studies⁴⁵ highlight the appalling conditions faced by children working in the carpet industry: working days as long as 16 hours, for seven days a week; congested, noisy, cold and unclean working environments; accommodation in grossly inadequate factory-provided lodgings; insufficient food; high incidence of physical problems such as gastrointestinal infections, respiratory diseases, damaged eyesight, malnutrition, anaemia and skin problems; sexual harassment and abuse by adult workers, brokers and factory managers; and risk of abduction for the purpose of sexual exploitation in Nepalese or Indian brothels. Payment is as little as Rs.500 to Rs.1,000 (\$US6-12) per month, much of which ends up in the hands of the group leader (*naike*) or brokers; most⁴⁶ children are unable to keep any of their wages for

⁴² Estimates of the total extent of child work in the carpet industry vary widely and should be treated with caution. The estimate of 4,227 children is based on a survey of 600 carpet factories found operating in the Kathmandu Valley during fieldwork undertaken in 1998. For further details, see Chapagain D.P., Rai S., Singh R.M., *Child Labour in Carpet Factories of the Kathmandu Valley: A Rapid Assessment*, Ministry of Labour and Transport Management, ILO/IPEC and BISCONS, Kathmandu, 1998.

⁴³ CWA, Child Workers in Nepal (CWIN), "Nepal-India Cross Border Child Labour Migration", *Child Workers in Asia*, Vol. 13, Nos. 2 & 3, April - September 1997.

⁴⁴ Estimates of the extent of children’s involvement in the sector, however, vary widely, and are not based on standardised survey methodologies. Trends are therefore very difficult to determine with any degree of confidence.

⁴⁵ See, for example: Chapagain D.P., Rai S., Singh R.M., *Child Labour in Carpet Factories of the Kathmandu Valley: A Rapid Assessment*, Ministry of Labour and Transport Management, ILO/IPEC, and BISCONS, Kathmandu, 1998; Centre for Policy Studies, *Situation Analysis of Child Labour in Carpet Industry of Nepal*, Nepal RUGMARK Foundation and UNICEF, Kathmandu, 1999; New ERA, *A Benchmark Study of the Child Labourers Working in the Carpet Industry of Kathmandu Valley*, study submitted to NASPEC and ILO/IPEC, Kathmandu 1998; and Pradhan G., *Misery Behind the Looms: Child Labourers in the Carpet Factories in Nepal*, Child Workers in Nepal Concerned Centre (CWIN), Kathmandu, 1993.

⁴⁶ Only one of three working children are able to keep their wages for themselves according to Pradhan G., *Misery Behind the Looms: Child Labourers in the Carpet Factories in Nepal*, Child Workers in Nepal Concerned Centre (CWIN), Kathmandu, 1993.

themselves. Illiteracy is very common among children in the carpet industry, and as many as one in two have never attended school.

50. Ragpicking. Ragpicking, or the collecting of recyclables (e.g., rags, plastics, cardboard, metal and glass bottles, etc.) from dumpsites, street corners and riverbanks, involves an estimated 4,000 children in the various urban centres of Nepal.⁴⁷ Most child ragpickers are boys and come from hill/mountain rural areas. They fall into two roughly equal groups – those who work and live off the streets and those who live in urban slums and occasionally come to pick rags. The former group is by far the worst off, with ragpicking often representing a last resort for children having escaped from work as porters, in agriculture or as domestic child servants and ending up on the street. The ILO-IPEC rapid assessment highlights the various serious hazards faced by these children.⁴⁸ They are exposed to tetanus and other infections caused by cuts from sharp metal pieces, broken glass, and other materials. Child ragpickers face a high threat of illness because they operate in unhygienic, polluted areas, and consume dirty, unhealthy food and water. HIV/AIDS and sexually transmitted diseases are another important risk, due unsafe sexual activity, both forced and unforced. Many of the children interviewed also indicated having been abused sexually or used in drug peddling and in commercial sex as middlemen. Only around one in twenty attend school.

51. Mining. Small-scale mining has grown in Nepal over the course of the last two decades. Coal, quartz and magnesite mines are found in the districts of Taplegunj, Panchthar, Dang, Rolpa, Rukum, Salyan, and Dolkha. Child workers are present in the mining sector, but no reliable estimates exist of the total extent of their involvement. A 1999 study supported by ILO-IPEC and UNICEF is one of the few to examine children working in mining.⁴⁹ The study found a total of 115 children working in the five coalmines operating in the study sites in the Dang and Rolpa districts, although a lack of cooperation from the mine supervisors meant that some children were likely missed.⁵⁰ More girls (60) than boys (40) were employed for carrying coal; some of the boys were also involved in digging and carrying coal inside the narrow tunnels. Long working hours, strenuous work involving carrying heavy loads, confined spaces, lack of lighting (workers were required to purchase their own candles for light), poor air quality (no systems of air ventilation), and a lack

⁴⁷ This estimate is based on the ILO-IPEC rapid assessment, and should be treated with caution. Five questions were used in the interviews to measure the magnitude of the ragpicker phenomenon. The first two questions identified whether the children worked individually or in a group, and the size of the group the children belonged to. The remaining questions were related to the information they might have about other groups working as ragpickers. Based on the information gathered, the number of groups reported to be working as ragpickers and the average size of each group were multiplied to establish the number of ragpickers working in each urban centre, for a total of 2,969 children. Besides these, 222 groups were interviewed, each of an average size of four children, adding 888 children to the total. Finally, an additional 78 individual ragpickers were identified, therefore, for a total number of child ragpickers in the country at 3,965. Two limitations in the procedure to estimate the total number of ragpickers in the country can be identified. First, there is a high probability of duplication in the number of groups identified by respondents, which is virtually impossible to evaluate. Second, there is a limitation in the coverage of the information gathered, as only seven major urban sites were considered for the purposes of this study, although new urban centres are also likely to have a number of rag pickers. While the first limitation inflates the incidence, the latter potentially depreciates it. For further information, see Central Department on Population Studies (CDPS) and Tribhuvan University, *Nepal Situation of Child Ragpickers: A Rapid Assessment*, ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

⁴⁸ Central Department on Population Studies (CDPS) and Tribhuvan University, *Nepal Situation of Child Ragpickers: A Rapid Assessment*, ILO-IPEC, Geneva, November 2001.

⁴⁹ Rapti Awareness Rural Association (RARA), *Child Labour in Coalmines in Dang and Rolpa Districts*, report submitted to ILO-IPEC and UNICEF, Kathmandu, 1999.

⁵⁰ Children were instructed by the mine supervisors to overstate their age and, where possible, were sent away from the working areas when the survey team was present.

of safety measures were among the many work hazards highlighted in the study. Most (63 percent) of the children were illiterate, and very few had the opportunity to attend school.

6. DETERMINANTS OF CHILDREN'S WORK AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

52. As most children (excluding those that live on their own) exercise little control over their time allocations, determining why children work requires investigating why parents choose to engage their children in work rather than sending them to school or leaving them idle. A regression analysis⁵¹ using the LSMS 1995/96 dataset points to some of the factors influencing parents' choices. The qualitative inferences from this analysis are presented below. The estimated regression coefficients are presented in Annex (B).⁵²

53. **Gender.** The children's work phenomenon appears to have an important gender dimension in Nepal. Girls are more likely than boys to work by about 14.4 percentage points, and to neither attend school nor work by about 10.4 percentage points. As a consequence, girls' probability of attending school is 24.8 percentage points lower than that for boys.

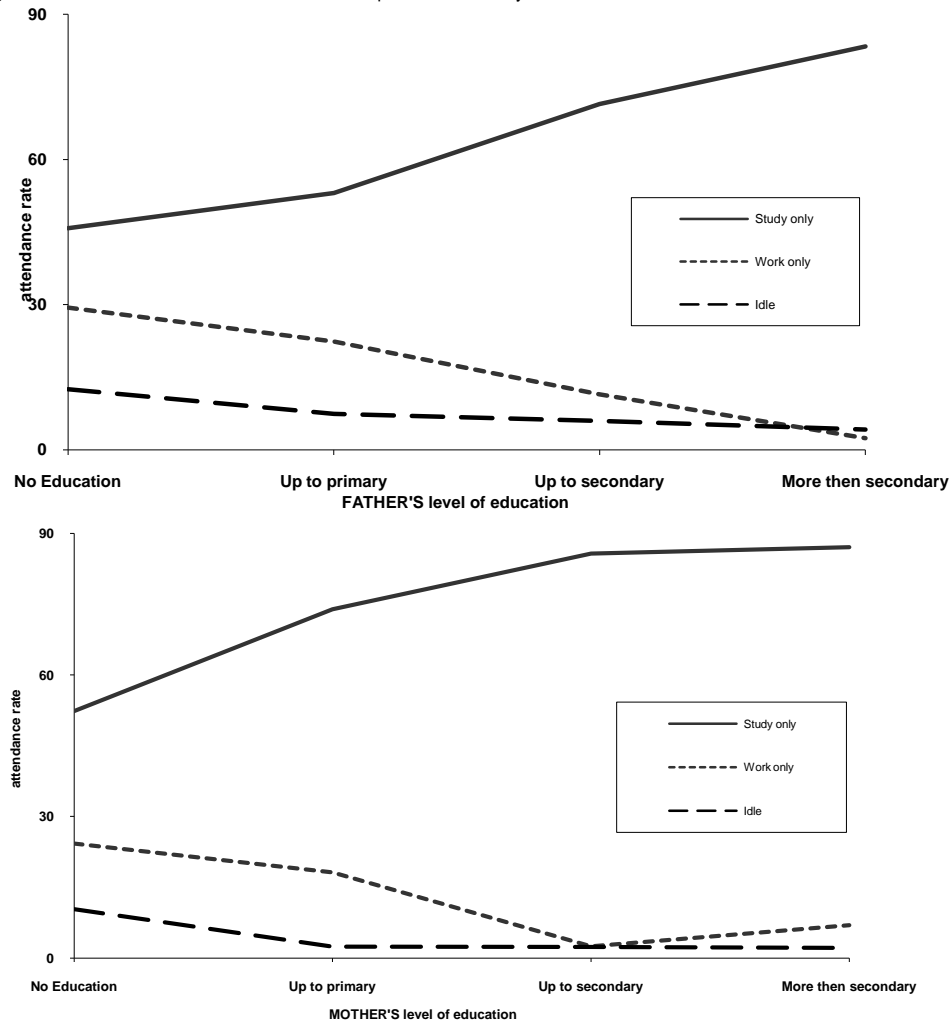
54. **Household composition.** An additional adult in the household increases the probability of children studying full-time by 1.3 percentage points and decreases the probability of children working full-time by 0.8 percentage points. The presence of an additional small child (below 6 years) increases the probability that their older siblings work by 3.9 percentage points and decreases the probability that they study full-time only by 5.6 percentage points.

55. **Parents' education.** The effect of an increase of parents' education level on the reduction of child labour is strong and positive (Figure 7). Increasing the level of a father's education from no schooling to primary level schooling decreases a child's probability of working by about six percentage points and increases a child's probability of studying full-time by about seven percentage points. A similar increase in a mother's education level decreases a child's probability of working by about four percentage points and increases a child's probability of studying full-time by 6-7 percentage points.

⁵¹ A bivariate probit model was used to jointly determine the correlated decisions on child schooling and work.

⁵² The analysis carried out in this section is, obviously, conditioned by the information available. Notwithstanding the extensiveness of the survey utilised, potentially important variables are missing. In particular, information on the relative price of child work is difficult to capture: indicators for returns to education, work and household chores are not easily available (for a discussion of the role played by unobservables refer to Deb and Rosati, *Determinants of Child Labour and School Attendance: The Role of Household Observables*, December 2002). The only variable available in the data set used to proxy returns to education and to household chores is the household structure (for a more detailed discussion, please refer to Cigno, Rosati and Tzannatos, *Child Labour Handbook*, May 2002). Different approaches have been employed to deal with the potential endogeneity of some of the variables. As it is not possible to calculate household income net of children's contribution, this variable has been instrumented using information on the sector of employment of the parents, local labour market information, etc. In the case of the infrastructure (school and water availability, etc.) the validity of the estimates is supported by tests based on propensity scores (for details see Guarcello, Mealli and Rosati, *Household Vulnerability and Child Labour: the effect of shocks, credit rationing and insurance*, November 2002) Finally, the "small" income effect discussed below is consistent with estimates in several other countries and is robust to the treatment of unobservables (for details see Deb and Rosati, December 2002). However, caution is nonetheless necessary in interpreting these results, as the lack of control for most of the relative prices might bias the estimates.

Figure 7. - Rates of work, school attendance and reported idleness, by father's and mother's level of education



Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

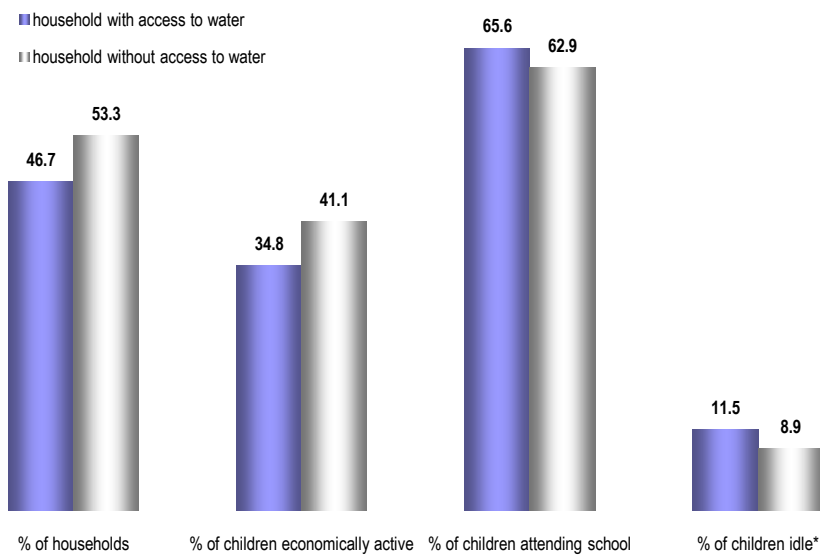
56. Household income. The effect of income variation on children's involvement in work and schooling is relatively weak. A 10 percent increase in income, for example, decreases the probability of working full-time and the probability of doing nothing by only about 0.3 and 0.2 percentage points, respectively.

57. Land. Land ownership increases the probability of a child working and studying by 11.5 percentage points and decreases the probability that he or she is idle by 10.2 percentage points. If someone in the household cultivates land owned by someone else, the probability that a child combines work and schooling increases by 5.6 percentage points and the probability that he or she is idle decreases by 3.5 percentage points.

58. School expenditure. The effect of school expenditure is ambiguous. An increase in exogenous school expenditures decreases the probability of children working full-time, of children working and studying and of children doing nothing (by 6.3, 1.6 and 1.3 percentage points, respectively), and increases the probability of children studying full-time (by 9.1 percentage points). These results may be explained by a positive relationship between school expenditure and school quality – higher school expenditures may contribute to better schooling, making parents more willing to invest in their children’s schooling. Another possible explanation may be found in exogenous fertility analysis. An increase in school expenditure has an indirect effect on the family decision regarding fertility. It may cause a reduced number of childbirths and a consequent increase in the “quality” of children.

59. Water availability. Children from households with water access are more likely to attend school and less likely to work than their counterparts from households without water access (Figure 8). An increase in the distance to a water source also effects work and school attendance rates. An increase of 10 minutes in the time necessary to collect water has a small but significant positive effect on the probability of working full-time and a small but significant negative effect on the probability of studying full-time.

Figure 8. - Household water access and rates of work, school attendance and idleness



Source: UCW calculations based on *Nepal Labour Force Survey, 1998/99*.

60. School availability. Long travel times to school (more than 30 minutes) increase the probability of working by 4.1 percentage points and decrease the probability of studying full-time by 6.3 percentage points.

61. Residence. Children belonging to households located in urban and rural hill areas are almost 21 percentage points less likely to work compared to children living in mountain areas. Children in the Terail region have a 10.8 percentage points smaller probability of combining work and schooling than children in mountain areas, and a 6.2 percentage points greater probability of being idle.

7. NATIONAL RESPONSE TO CHILD LABOUR

7.1 National legislative framework

62. Nepal has made a number of important legal commitments to the protection and advancement of the interests of child workers. The Constitution of Nepal (1990) seeks to protect the interest of children by conferring on them certain fundamental rights. Article 20 of the Constitution prohibits traffic in human beings, slavery, serfdom or forced labour in any form, and also prohibits the employment of minors in factories, mines or any other hazardous worksite. The Children's Act (1992) and Labour Act (1992), enacted in pursuance of the constitutional mandate, make the employment of children below the age of 14 years illegal. The Child Labour (Prohibition and Regulation) Act, endorsed by both houses of parliament in 2000, makes important amendments to the Labour Act (1992), listing specific occupations as hazardous and prohibiting the use of children below 16 years of age in these occupations.⁵³ The Government passed landmark legislation in July 2000 outlawing the *Kamaiya* system of bonded labour, where debt-ridden rural farmers and their children have been working as bonded labourers to pay off debts drawn by their ancestors. Prior to its suspension in 2002, there were also two bills before parliament to combat trafficking in women and children and to abolish bonded labour. Nepal ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1990, ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) in 1998, and ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) in 2002.⁵⁴

63. But important inconsistencies and gaps in legislation relating to child labour remain. Of most concern, the new Child Labour Act (2000) does not cover family-based work, or, *inter alia*, work in private homes, in agriculture and on tea estates. Children's work in these sectors – which together account for the overwhelming majority of Nepalese child workers – is therefore not illegal, even if the children in question are below the minimum working age of 14 specified in the Act. In addition, by setting the minimum age for entrance to hazardous work at 16 years, the new Child Labour Act is not in line with ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age), which states that a person must be at least 18 years of age before entering into hazardous work.⁵⁵ There are also important shortcomings associated with proposed new bills concerning bonded labour and child trafficking. The proposed bill by the Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare on trafficking conflates the issue of trafficking with those of rape, child sexual abuse, pornography, kidnapping, and prostitution. The new Bonded Labour Prohibition Act, currently in draft form, does not clearly define 'bonded labour' and does not clearly spell sanctions for violations.⁵⁶ Enforcement of child labour laws is another major challenge facing the Government. Labour

⁵³ Other legal provisions restricting child labour and trafficking in the country include: the Citizen Rights Act (1955), the Begging Prohibition Act (1962), the Prison Act (1962), the Common Law Code (1963), Some Public Offence & Punishment Act (1970), the Foreign Employment Act (1985), the Trafficking Control Act (1986), and the Drug Trafficking (Control) Act.

⁵⁴ Nepal is also signatory of other important international conventions, including the Slavery Convention (1926) as amended by protocols of 1953 and the supplementary Conventions on the Abolition of Slavery (1956); Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948); and in May, 1991, Nepal ratified the International Covenant of Civil and Political Rights (1966).

⁵⁵ ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project*, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001.

⁵⁶ ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project*, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001.

inspectors are limited in number and investigative powers, meaning that worksite visits are rare and inadequately followed up. The lack of proper birth registration procedures and registration of child workers also hinders the effective regulation of child labour and undermines the ability inspectors to investigate worksite violations.

7.2 National policy framework

64. **The issue of child labour also features in national development plans.** The Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP) provides a general strategic framework for poverty reduction within which all stakeholders of development in Nepal will act. With regard to children, the document proposes measures to protect children from illegal recruitment and to strengthen inspection mechanisms, in order to gradually eliminate child labour, reduce girl trafficking and rehabilitate exploited women and children. The I-PRSP also contains a proposal to revise the Labour Act and Regulations. Improving school quality and access, raising enrolment rates, increasing literacy rate and promoting technical and vocational education are among the other stated objectives of the I-PRSP with relevance to efforts against child work. The tenth five-year national development plan (2003-2007), follows the broad lines of the Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (I-PRSP), and also addresses the elimination of the worst forms of child labour.

65. The Ministry of Labour and Transport Management (MOLT), which, through its Child Labour Section, assumes responsibility for issues concerning child labour, is coordinating and finalising His Majesty's Government of Nepal Master Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour. The Master Plan commits Nepal to improving existing rules and regulations on child labour and links the elimination of children labour to improvements in the accessibility and quality of schooling. The stated goals of the Master Plan are the elimination of the worst forms of child labour by 2005 and all forms by 2010. The Ministry of Women, Children and Social Welfare, charged with spearheading Government efforts against trafficking, has also developed a National Plan of Action to combat trafficking in women and children for sexual exploitation.

7.3 Programmes and interventions relating to child labour

66. **There are a wide range of groups involved in efforts against child labour.** According to the first comprehensive analysis of child labour related programmes in Nepal, each year a total of US\$62.6 million are allocated to the implementation of 29 international donor agency (multilateral, bilateral or international NGO) programmes directly or indirectly relate to the issue of child labour (Table 10).⁵⁷ Allocations to core child labour programmes (i.e., child labour, trafficking or bonded labour), however, are much less – an estimated US\$18.3 million annually. In addition, it is estimated that about 240 NGOs with a stated objective of helping children are registered throughout the country. Community development and community-based organisations, university and research institutions, and the media are also active partners and important stakeholders in addressing child labour.

⁵⁷ ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project*, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001.

Table 10. - International organisations active in programme areas relating to child labour

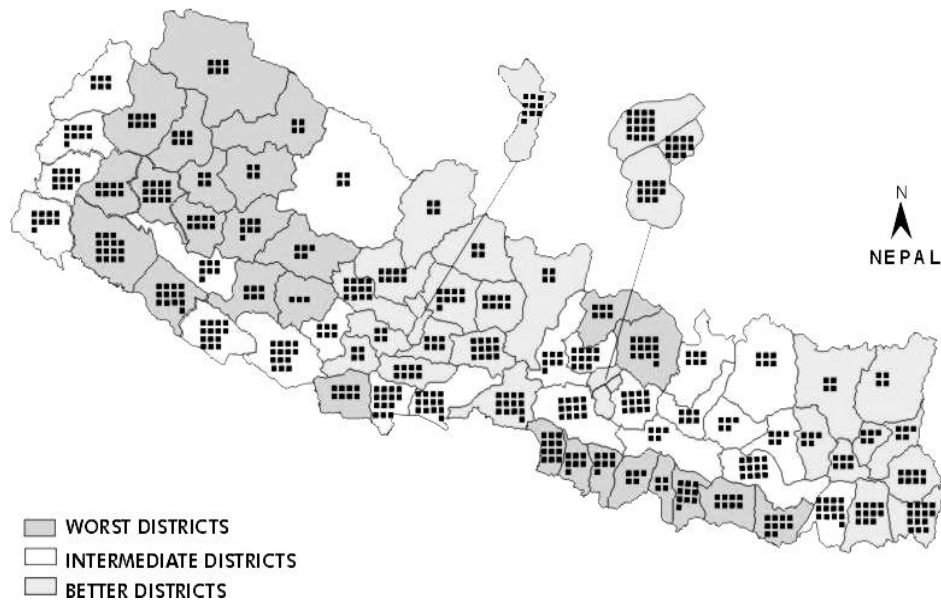
Category of Organisation	Name of Organisation	Child Labour	Trafficking	Bonded Labour	Education	Gender	Health	Rural Development	Income Generating Activities
MULTILATERAL	UNDP MGEP								
	UNDP COPE								
	UNDP-JIT								
	UNICEF - EDU								
	UNICEF - CPP								
	UNDP - PDDP								
	WFP - RCIW								
	WFP - SFP								
	ILO-IPEC								
	ILO-ISPI								
	ILO-TRAFF								
	ILO-Declaration								
	UNESCO - CLC								
UNESCO-TRAFF									
BILATERAL	BPEP								
	SEDP								
	DANIDA								
	GTZ								
INTERNATIONAL NGO	SCF NORWAY								
	SCF-US								
	SCF-UK								
	HELVETAS								
	WORLD Education								
	ASIA FOUNDATION								
	PLAN International								
	ACTION AID								
	SCF-US TRAFF								
	SCF-UK TRAFF								
	CEDPA								

Source: HMG/N, MOLT and ILO-IPEC, *Project Document on the Time Bound Programme on the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour In Nepal*, 2002.

67. Child labour programmes are concentrated in districts with road access rather than where need is greatest. In an attempt to map the geographical distribution of child labour-related programmes in Nepal, ILO-IPEC collected information on the activities by district of these 29 different international donor agency programmes. The mapping exercise revealed a very weak relation between the distribution of child labour programmes and child labour rates. Indeed, districts that were found not to be covered by any of the 29 programmes were among the poorest and most remote, where children face of the highest risk of involvement in work. Instead, the 29 programmes were found to focus their efforts on districts with road access (Figure 9).

68. Collaboration against child labour in general, and against worst forms of child labour in particular, is improving in Nepal. A Child Labour Co-ordination Group (CLCG) was formed in 1998 to co-ordinate the activities of major donor programmes related to child labour in Nepal. The CLGG members are ILO, UNICEF, the World

Figure 9. - Relation between distribution of child labour programmes and child work rates



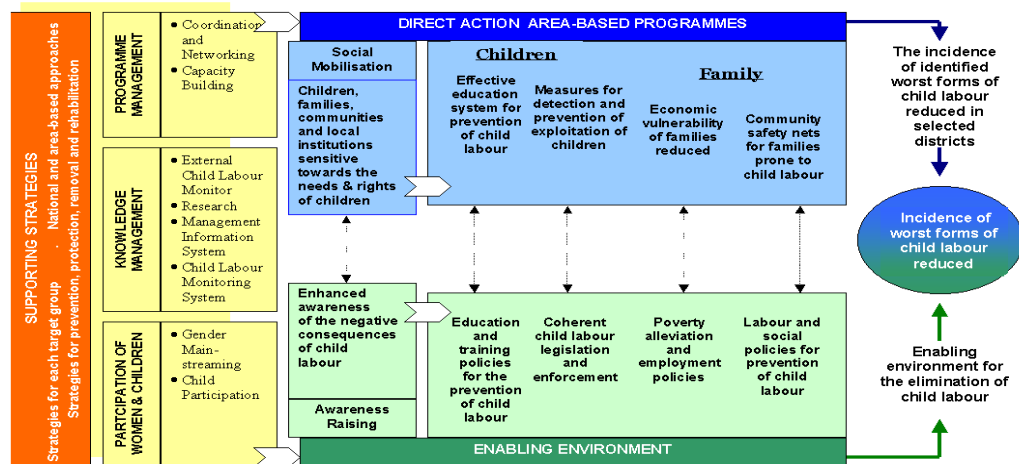
Note: Each dot represents presence of child work programme funded by one of the 29 agencies listed in Table XX.

Bank, GTZ, UNESCO, AusAID and DFID. The United Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF), the UN Joint Initiative on Trafficking, and the Inter-Agency Donor Group on Trafficking also provide important frameworks for joint action among international donors. The Children at Risk Networking Group (CAR-NGW), formed in 1992, provides a coordination framework for NGOs working for the welfare of children. Nonetheless, improving coordination remains a major challenge; programme staff interviewed as part of the analysis of child labour related programmes in Nepal identified lack of coordination as one of the largest day-to-day constraints they face in their work.

69. ILO-IPEC efforts in Nepal are aimed at supporting implementation of the Government's Master Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour. The ILO-IPEC Overall Time-Bound Programme contains two interrelated components (Figure 10). The first is the creation at the national level of an enabling environment for the elimination of the worst forms of child labour. This component involves the promotion of education and training policies for the prevention of child labour; of coherent child labour legislation and enforcement; of poverty alleviation and employment policies; and of labour and social policies for the prevention of child labour. The second component of the Overall Time Bound Programme involves the reduction of the incidence of child labour in seven selected worst forms of child

labour (child ragpickers, child porters, child domestic workers, children in mining, children in the carpet industry, trafficked children and children in bonded labour) through direct action area-based programmes. The area-based approach is designed so that direct action initiatives for the prevention of child labour, the removal, rehabilitation and protection of child labourers are integrated closely with the activities for the empowerment of vulnerable families and local communities. This component targets a total of 33,000 children (17,000 children in worst forms and 16,000 children at-risk) within 10,000 families in the first seven-year phase (2002-2008).

Figure 10. - ILO-IPEC Overall Time Bound Programme in Nepal



Source: ILO-IPEC, *Supporting the Time-Bound Programme in Nepal, IPEC Core TBP Project*, A technical co-operation programme funded by the United States Department of Labour, Project document, 2001

70. UNICEF addresses child labour as part of broader efforts to strengthen national commitment and capacity to provide quality basic education and special protection for all children. Through partnerships with ILO, other United Nations agencies, the World Bank, GTZ and other bilateral donors, UNICEF cooperation is aimed at playing a catalytic role in ensuring greater attention to child protection by the Government and its development partners. Efforts focus primarily on advocacy and policy development based on assessment and analysis of the various forms of abuse and exploitation to which children are subject. Within the framework of its partnership with the United Nations Joint Initiative on Trafficking, UNICEF supports efforts to build the capacity of Nepal police to investigate and prosecute instances of child trafficking. Through its out-of-school programme, UNICEF supports “second chance” learning opportunities for working children who had missed out on formal schooling. As of March 2002, there were 13, 475 children studying at level I and 3,475 children in level II of the programme. In the mid- and far-western regions, UNICEF support is also extended to the elimination of two specific instances of child exploitation: debt bondage within the "Kamaiya" system; and the sexual exploitation of girls of the Badi caste. The aim of these region-specific efforts is to demonstrate

the potential to bring an end to instances of child exploitation and thus show the possibility of achieving tangible results in this complex area of programming.⁵⁸

strategic Options for addressing child labour

71. This section of the report provides a set of general strategic options for combating child labour and reducing the number of children at risk of entering work, within the overall framework provided by His Majesty's Government of Nepal Master Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour. It is beyond the scope of the report to provide detailed programme interventions or specific action plans. These will be developed, conditional on the approval by Government and the three partner agencies, in a second phase of the project. This section first looks at some of the most important general policy considerations for addressing child labour, and then examines policy options for specific priority target groups.

7.4 General policy considerations

72. **Promoting education reform**⁵⁹: Efforts to combat child work, in Nepal as elsewhere, need to focus in particular on the logical alternative to work – accessible and good quality schooling. There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school age children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so. The Nepalese Government has made major progress in expanding access to education. Through its Basic and Primary Education Programmes (BPEP I and II), the Government is also taking steps to address school quality, including curriculum and textbook reforms, introduction of cluster-based in-service teacher training, and management decentralisation. But the challenges remain huge. Average educational attainment remains very low, and there are still many children who never enter school. Of those that do enrol, too many leave prematurely, and those persisting generally perform poorly academically.

- *Increasing access/equity*: Participation in education remains highly unequal across income and social groups; most of the 30 percent or so of children not enrolled in primary school are members of socially and economically disadvantaged groups and a majority are girls. Addressing inequities and increasing access will require an acceleration of reform efforts in a number of areas. Better needs-based criteria are needed to guide school/classroom construction activities, in order to ensure that the most disadvantaged and under-served groups are reached. High direct schooling costs (cited by one-fifth of parents as a main reason for their children not attending school)⁶⁰ need to be reduced through the introduction of measures such as targeted scholarships, free textbooks and school uniforms, and school feeding. Research in Nepal and elsewhere shows that female teachers are an incentive for rural girls to enrol, pointing the importance of a strategy to reduce the current severe shortage of female teachers in rural areas. Parental indifference is another major

⁵⁸ UNICEF Nepal, *Country Programme Recommendation*, United Nations Children's Fund Executive Board, Second regular session 2001, E/ICEF/2001/P/L.39/Add.1, 15 October 2001.

⁵⁹ Education reform recommendations are drawn primarily from World Bank, *Priorities and Strategies for Education Reform*, Rpt. no. 22065-NEP, Human Development Unit, South Asia Region, 18 July 2001.

⁶⁰ LSMS 1995/96, as cited in World Bank, *Priorities and Strategies for Education Reform*, Rpt. no. 22065-NEP, Human Development Unit, South Asia Region, 18 July 2001.

reason for children not entering school in Nepal (cited by 30 percent of parents), underscoring the need for aggressive communications efforts to convince parents of the importance of schooling, and particularly of girls' schooling. Limited research in Nepal suggests that children who have benefited from an early childhood development (ECD) programme are more likely to enter and persist in regular schooling, highlighting the important potential benefits of expanding such ECD programmes, particularly for disadvantaged groups. Finally, there is a need to expand non-formal "transitional" or "second chance" educational opportunities for child workers who have missed out of or been left behind by the formal school system, building on UNICEF- and IPEC-supported efforts in this field.

- *Increasing quality and relevance:* Very low levels of learning achievement highlight the quality-related challenges facing the school system. Addressing school quality will also require accelerated reforms on a number of fronts. Building the capacity and skills of teachers will perhaps be most important in this context. Currently, teachers are not sufficiently well-educated or trained to carry out their work. There is a need to introduce a pre-service training certificate as a prerequisite to employment, to recruit teachers with a higher level of general education, and to expand cluster-based in-service training. The newly-established Teacher Service Commission could play an important institutional role in improving the teaching force by reinforcing the licensing system and linking recruitment to qualification, training, and regular tests of competency. The quality of the teacher training curricula also needs to be strengthened to reflect the multi-ethnic, multi-lingual and multi-cultural issues that Nepali children bring to the classroom. Considerable investment has been made through BPEP I and II in revising textbooks and curriculum, but more needs to be done in the design of materials to reflect the findings of national assessments of learning achievement of grades three and five. There is also a need for better school-based support for implementing the new curriculum, and for materials that adapt the curriculum to local conditions. The current low time on task needs to be increased by ensuring that each school runs classes for at least 200 days per year.
- *Restructuring school management and financing:* Underlying reforms to school management and financing will be critical to achieving improvements in school access and quality. Decentralisation of school management, already underway through BPEP II, will help ensure higher levels of accountability in the form of improved teacher and student attendance, greater community ownership and support, and differential forms of service delivery to reflect local conditions. Public resources to finance reform are currently inadequate. There is a need for the Government to increase the growth of real education expenditures, and in the absence of rapid revenue growth, to increase the share of education in total spending. Public subsidies for education, currently grossly inequitable, need to be restructured towards basic education and towards the poor and otherwise disadvantaged or underserved groups.

73. Reducing household vulnerability: Children's work frequently forms part of a household's strategy for dealing with risk, making them less vulnerable to losses of income arising from individual or collective shocks.⁶¹ Widespread poverty and a very limited social safety net mean a very high degree of household vulnerability in Nepal. Poverty rates exceed 40 percent while at the same time an estimated 90 percent of the working population, and virtually all of the rural population, is excluded from formal social protection schemes. Evidence from elsewhere also indicates that children that are neither working nor attending school are the most likely to be sent to work when a family confronts a shock.⁶² In Nepal, this group constitutes almost 12 percent of the 6-14 years population. Reducing household vulnerability by expanding social protection is therefore a critical priority in the Kingdom. While introducing and extending social protection coverage at the national level should be the long-term objective, developing and strengthening community-based social safety mechanisms is likely to yield greater benefits to vulnerable households in the short-term. Building on efforts taking place in the context of the ILO-IPEC Time-Bound Programme, community-based measures such as micro health insurance plans, community savings groups, and micro-finance initiatives need to be promoted and expanded, with a particular emphasis on reaching the poorest of the poor.

74. Improving access to basic services: Improving access to basic services is important because it helps reduce the time children, and especially girls, must spend performing household chores, making it more likely that they attend school. These chores, though technically not economic activities, have implications on the health and well-being of children that are similar to those of work. Although water coverage has reached 80 percent nationally,⁶³ coverage remains much lower in the Mid-West and Far-West regions as well as in marginalised communities throughout the country. An estimated 62 percent of rural households must still collect water from a common source, a task requiring over two hours per day on average.⁶⁴ In about one in five of these households, children assume primary responsibility for water collection. It is not surprising then that increasing water access increases the likelihood that children attend school and decreases the likelihood that they work, with the effect strongest in areas where water coverage is lowest. Accelerated efforts are therefore needed to extend water coverage to underserved regions and marginalised communities not only for the well-known public health benefits of improved water access, but also as a strategy for addressing child labour.

75. Promoting women's literacy: The empirical evidence from Nepal indicates that providing adults, and particularly mothers, with basic literacy skills has a very important impact on rates of school enrolment and work. Making mothers literate increases the likelihood that children attend school by seven percentage points and decreases the likelihood of working by four percentage points, with the effect strongest for the enrolment and work rates of girls. This points to the importance of targeted women's literacy and education programmes, particularly for the 15-35 age

⁶¹ Although not investigated in Nepal, empirical evidence from other countries underscores this point. In Guatemala, for example, controlling for other factors, children from households exposed to collective or individual shocks are four to five percentage points more likely to work compared to children from families that had not experienced these shocks. UCW Project, *Understanding Children's Work in Guatemala*, unpublished draft report, Florence, April 2003.

⁶² See, for example, UCW Project, *Understanding Children's Work in Guatemala*, unpublished draft report, Florence, April 2003.

⁶³ Piped water, tube well or borehole. Source: Between census household information system (BCHIMES) 2000, Central Bureau of Statistics in collaboration with UNICEF, 2000.

⁶⁴ LSMS 1995/96.

group, as a strategy for increasing school participation and reducing child labour rates.

76. Social mobilisation and awareness-raising: In Nepal as elsewhere, the elimination of child labour will not be possible until society at large and affected communities in particular internalise the problem and mobilise against it. But perceptions of child labour as either beneficial or, at worst, a necessary evil, remain deeply entrenched in many segments of Nepalese society. The rapid assessment of child domestic workers, for example, reported a "... widespread perception among employers that they are benefactors, securing a better future for the (domestic child labourer)."⁶⁵ This underscores the importance of social mobilisation and awareness-raising as part of an overall strategy against child labour. There is a need for an accelerated communication effort aimed at reaching members of the public at large with information on the negative effects of child labour and the benefits of schooling. Building on communication activities undertaken as part of the ILO-IPEC Time-Bound Programme (TBP), such an effort needs to take place at both a national and local level, and involve a wide variety of communication vehicles (radio and television spots, documentaries and video films, newspaper articles, open-air mobile theatre, village meetings, literacy courses, health centre consultations, etc.). There is an equally important need to mobilise key stakeholders to act against child labour. Again building on efforts being undertaken as part of the ILO-IPEC Time-Bound Programme, political institutions and parties, religious organisations, educational institutions, teachers' organisations, NGOs, the mass media, community-based organizations, trade unions, employers' organisations and numerous other groups need to be actively engaged in addressing child labour. As a starting point for social mobilisation efforts, there is a need to ensure that representatives from these groups are not themselves employers of children.

77. Strengthening legislative and monitoring measures. Nepal has ratified ILO Convention No. 182 (worst forms), ILO Convention No. 138 (minimum age) and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), but inconsistencies remain between national legislation and these international child labour norms. Of particular concern, agricultural, family-based and informal sector work, which together account for the overwhelming majority of Nepalese child workers, is not covered by current child labour legislation, and the age of admission to hazardous work stands at only 16 years. In addition, the government by its own admission currently does not have the capacity to properly enforce and monitor laws relating to child labour. There are therefore two overall priorities in the field of child labour legislation. First, there is a need to identify and redress current gaps/inconsistencies in child labour legislation vis-à-vis international child labour norms. Second, there is a need to strengthen the Government's ability to enforce and monitor this legislation. Both these priorities have begun to be taken up by the Government within the framework of the ILO-IPEC Time-Bound Programme.

78. Filling information gaps. Child labour has been the subject of considerable research in Nepal. A recent annotated bibliography documents 15 separate national child labour surveys or studies, 37 specialised studies of particular categories of child labourers, and 10 studies of the policy and legal dimensions of the child labour

⁶⁵ Sharma S. et al, *Situation of Domestic Child Labourers in Kathmandu: A Rapid Assessment*, No. 3, 2001.

phenomenon in the country (see Annex C).⁶⁶ But despite this comparatively rich research base, important information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. Existing national surveys vary greatly in terms of methodologies and definitions, making it difficult to compare estimates or assess trends across time. Moreover, for questions on industry and work modality, these surveys utilise international standards for adult work, and therefore they are able to provide only a very partial picture of the array of work performed by children. Numerous rapid assessments provide good qualitative information about specific worst forms of work, but can only provide very rough approximations of numbers of children involved in these forms of work. Very little research has been conducted in Nepal of the demand side of the child labour equation, and the wider labour market mechanisms that fuel or constrain child labour demand are poorly understood. Although child agricultural workers constitute the overwhelming majority of child workers in Nepal, very little is known about the specific nature and hazardousness of the children's work in the agricultural sector. There is a need for further targeted research designed to fill these and other key information gaps.

7.5 Priority target groups

79. Children in worst forms of child labour. Available information, though frequently sketchy, indicates that numerous worst forms of child labour (as defined by ILO Convention No. 182)⁶⁷ are found in Nepal. Although children involved in worst forms of labour appear to represent only a small proportion of total child workers, their numbers are by no means negligible, and they suffer the most serious rights violations and face the most serious health and developmental threats. Eliminating worst forms of work, therefore, should be an immediate strategic objective. While the general policy measures discussed above will contribute to reducing these forms of work, additional, more targeted actions are also needed. The Government has initiated a number of such actions within the framework of the ILO-IPEC Time-Bound Programme, including the mobilisation of district and village development committees (DDCs and VDCs) to identify and follow-up cases of hidden worst forms of child labour, and the provision of rehabilitation services for children removed from worst forms of child labour. These actions, however, remain relatively limited in scope and scale, targeting only seven of 19 identified worst forms, and benefiting only an estimated 33,000 children in 22 targeted districts. There is a need, therefore, for the broader replication of the experience gained through the Time-Bound Programme.

80. Children working in the agricultural sector: Child agricultural workers constitute a second priority target group by weight of their sheer numbers. Indeed, working children in Nepal are, overwhelming, farm workers, accounting for than nine

⁶⁶ Sharma B., *Establishing a Knowledge Base on Existing Research on Child Labour, Education, Health and Nutrition and Poverty in Nepal An Annotated Bibliography*, report prepared for the UCW project, Kathmandu, Nepal, January, 2003 (available at www.ucw-project.org).

⁶⁷ Activities targeted by ILO Convention No. 182 as worst forms include: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; and (d) any activity or occupation which, by its nature or type has, or leads to, adverse effects on the child's safety, health (physical or mental), and moral development.

out of 10 total child workers, and a total of 1.8 million children in absolute terms. The large numbers of children in agriculture mean that eliminating child labour in this sector is not a feasible near-term policy objective. Of most immediate policy concern is not children's work in general in the agricultural sector, but rather the small proportion of female children in agriculture attending school (52 percent of 6-14 year-old girls against 77 percent of 6-14 year-old boys),⁶⁸ and the subgroup of child agricultural workers that face serious work hazards. A more realistic initial strategy would instead focus on these immediate concerns. This would entail two specific initial policy objectives: (1) increasing the school enrolment rate of child agricultural workers, and particularly of female agricultural workers, and at the same time (2) removing children from the most hazardous forms of agricultural work. As noted above, little is known about the nature and risks associated with child agricultural work, and filling this knowledge gap will be an essential first step to efforts against hazardous forms of children's work in the agriculture sector.

⁶⁸ UCW calculations based on NLFS 1998/99.

ANNEX A: DETAILED DESCRIPTIVE TABLES

Table 11. - Percentage of children working only and working and studying by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.0756412	0.0819295	0.0786426
7	0.1525026	0.2032793	0.1782816
8	0.2438684	0.3128281	0.2770799
9	0.3386082	0.3853605	0.3625152
10	0.4060471	0.5123923	0.4572462
11	0.4967629	0.5354224	0.5167404
12	0.5108734	0.6451862	0.5723116
13	0.5616812	0.6536635	0.6054106
14	0.5921265	0.7430812	0.6646559
Total	0.3683829	0.4433578	0.4048359

Table 12. - Percentage of children attending school

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.6697174	0.5487661	0.611888
7	0.7991751	0.6215128	0.7097278
8	0.8325298	0.6844864	0.7614106
9	0.8610185	0.7299246	0.793197
10	0.8412599	0.6158965	0.732561
11	0.9052163	0.7144789	0.8062618
12	0.8615934	0.6130685	0.7469404
13	0.8432141	0.662355	0.754917
14	0.7903014	0.5794575	0.6871863
Total	0.8203452	0.638691	0.7315015

Table 13. - Total number of children in the sample by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	984	862	1846
7	928	919	1847
8	1074	974	2048
9	812	816	1628
10	1144	1078	2222
11	721	722	1443
12	1137	1007	2144
13	839	766	1605
14	915	841	1756
Total	8554	7985	16539

Table 14. - Total number of children in the expanded population by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	267541.23	244292.97	511834.2
7	264180.42	272437.9	536618.32
8	299835.8	278559.49	578395.28
9	217846.39	227969.82	445816.2
10	329393.22	305817.71	635210.92
11	186076.04	198979.99	385056.04
12	319643.25	269481.05	589124.3
13	227451.59	206129.06	433580.66
14	238510.06	220578.92	459088.98
Total	2350478	2224246.9	4574724.9

Table 15. - Percentage of children working only by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.0198173	0.0491841	0.0338582
7	0.0458971	0.1069089	0.0766146
8	0.0575811	0.1397552	0.0970571
9	0.100205	0.1515132	0.1267494
10	0.1021873	0.2837461	0.1897581
11	0.0830017	0.2343576	0.1615251
12	0.1097029	0.3399391	0.2159187
13	0.136645	0.2882763	0.2106728
14	0.1829994	0.365552	0.2722784
Total	0.0909507	0.2156468	0.1519373

Table 16. - Percentage of children studying only by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.6122241	0.5144911	0.5654959
7	0.6909392	0.5194663	0.6046081
8	0.6425276	0.5051014	0.5765088
9	0.6070884	0.4879666	0.5454607
10	0.5275133	0.3766303	0.4547383
11	0.4749639	0.4001494	0.4361501
12	0.4419716	0.2949549	0.3741478
13	0.3813332	0.2888969	0.3362049
14	0.3423589	0.1799803	0.2629462
Total	0.5305623	0.4013641	0.4673738

Table 17. - Percentage of children working and studying by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.0574932	0.0342749	0.0463921
7	0.108236	0.1020464	0.1051197
8	0.1900023	0.1793851	0.1849018
9	0.2539301	0.241958	0.2477363
10	0.3137465	0.2392662	0.2778226
11	0.4302524	0.3143295	0.3701116
12	0.4196218	0.3181137	0.3727926
13	0.4618809	0.3734582	0.4187121
14	0.4479424	0.3994772	0.4242401
Total	0.2897829	0.2373269	0.2641276

Table 18. - Percentage of children involved in no activities by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.3104653	0.4020498	0.3542538
7	0.1549278	0.2715783	0.2136576
8	0.109889	0.1757583	0.1415323
9	0.0387764	0.1185622	0.0800536
10	0.0566528	0.1003574	0.0776809
11	0.011782	0.0511636	0.0322132
12	0.0287037	0.0469923	0.0371409
13	0.020141	0.0493687	0.0344102
14	0.0266992	0.0549905	0.0405353
Total	0.0887041	0.1456622	0.1165612

Table 19. - Percentage of children that carry out household chore by sex an age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	0.0635817	0.1840963	0.121102
7	0.1187367	0.3274603	0.2247045
8	0.1594878	0.3628369	0.2574222
9	0.1645249	0.4285493	0.2995347
10	0.2118527	0.5613376	0.3801097
11	0.2424918	0.6158121	0.4354072
12	0.2378433	0.6884452	0.4439605
13	0.2989441	0.7681631	0.522016
14	0.2830864	0.8168871	0.5395622
Total	0.1950599	0.5175716	0.3518662

Table 20. - Percentage of children by sex and type of activity and area

urb_rur	Male	Female	Total
1	0.036436	0.06362	0.0494089
	0.7712713	0.7129633	0.7434453
	0.1462888	0.1396651	0.1431278
	0.0460038	0.0837517	0.064018
2	0.0979377	0.2341185	0.1647429
	0.4997111	0.3635039	0.432893
	0.3081743	0.2491931	0.2792403
	0.0941769	0.1531845	0.1231238
Total	0.0909507	0.2156468	0.1519373
	0.5305623	0.4013641	0.4673738
	0.2897829	0.2373269	0.2641276
	0.0887041	0.1456622	0.1165612

Table 21. - Percentage of children by sex type of activity and regions

REGION	Male	Female	Total
Eastern	0.1003762	0.2004543	0.1500894
	0.520887	0.4267444	0.4741223
	0.3009383	0.2464452	0.2738692
	0.0777985	0.126356	0.1019192
Central	0.1123383	0.2471555	0.1774941
	0.5838099	0.4212936	0.5052675
	0.1928245	0.1502966	0.1722712
	0.1110273	0.1812542	0.1449672
Western	0.0462435	0.0787339	0.0624313
	0.5568929	0.4859565	0.5215501
	0.3174576	0.3311361	0.3242727
	0.0794059	0.1041735	0.0917459
Mid West	0.0993687	0.2897638	0.1926692
	0.3427168	0.239568	0.2921701
	0.4633038	0.3026503	0.3845777
	0.0946108	0.1680179	0.1305829
Far West	0.066998	0.2942119	0.1745194
	0.5899605	0.351533	0.4771326
	0.2930079	0.2345881	0.2653627
	0.0500337	0.119667	0.0829853
Total	0.0909507	0.2156468	0.1519373
	0.5305623	0.4013641	0.4673738
	0.2897829	0.2373269	0.2641276
	0.0887041	0.1456622	0.1165612

Table 22. - Percentage of children by sex and type of activity

activity	Male	Female	Total
1	9.1	21.56	15.19
2	53.06	40.14	46.74
3	28.98	23.73	26.41
4	8.87	14.57	11.66
Total	100	100	100

Table 23. - Percentage of children by sex and modality of employment

employ_mod	Male	Female	Total
Wage employ	4.11	2.82	3.42
Self employ	3.84	4.24	4.05
Family employ (withou	91.97	92.81	92.42
other	0.07	0.13	0.11
Total	100	100	100

Table 24. - Percentage of children by sex and occupation

occupation	Male	Female	Total
Service wrkers	2.59	1.71	2.12
Skilled Agri/Fis	91.02	90.44	90.71
Craft & related	1.04	1.29	1.17
Plant & machine	0.24	0.18	0.21
Elementary occ	5.1	6.38	5.78
Total	100	100	100

Table 25. - Percentage of children by sex and branch of activity

sector	Male	Female	Total
Agri, Huntng, Fo,	92.69	92.52	92.6
Fishing	0	0.14	0.08
Mining & Quarryi	0	0.07	0.04
Manufacturing	1.23	1.62	1.44
Construction	0.84	0.28	0.54
Wholesale, Rt	2.02	1.24	1.6
Hotels & Restaur	0.89	0.75	0.81
Transport, Stg	0.27	0	0.13
Real Estate, Ren	0.01	0.12	0.07
Public Adm & def	0	0	0
Education	0.06	0	0.03
Other comnty, So	0.22	0.05	0.13
Pvt Households w	1.77	3.22	2.55
Total	100	100	100

activity	Male	Female	Total
1	206842.8	469469.45	676312.26
	8.8	21.11	14.78
2	1206621.2	873781.24	2080402.4
	51.34	39.28	45.48
3	659033.1	516667.67	1175700.8
	28.04	23.23	25.7
4	201733.55	317110.81	518844.36
	8.58	14.26	11.34
.	76247.362	47217.726	123465.09
	3.24	2.12	2.7
Total	2350478	2224246.9	4574724.9

Table 26. - Children working only: average working hours per week, by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	22.26911	20.55454	21.07827
7	28.53204	23.39359	24.92204
8	27.59788	26.36141	26.74257
9	28.5533	27.39539	27.83722
10	35.12832	29.69262	31.20795
11	35.49185	35.45618	35.465
12	38.19247	34.27475	35.34696
13	38.77727	37.33342	37.81271
14	43.8384	39.42426	40.9401
Total	35.9077	32.66064	33.65372

Table 27. - Children working and studying: average working hours per week, by sex and age

age	Male	Female	Total
6	12.49179	8.803431	11.18891
7	14.71311	15.98257	15.33356
8	16.44453	16.82913	16.62378
9	17.71282	17.40161	17.55557
10	17.77224	19.6528	18.5534
11	21.29178	19.7513	20.61303
12	20.84414	20.35346	20.65098
13	23.19093	24.09427	23.58428
14	22.28389	24.67939	23.38705
Total	19.91676	20.39697	20.12779

Table 28. - Percentage of children that carry out household chores by sex and activity

activity	Male	Female	Total
1	0.2474811	0.7027337	0.5634996
2	0.1131048	0.3495331	0.2124061
3	0.3748527	0.7590768	0.5437019
4	0.1178745	0.3900503	0.2842247
Total	0.2015996	0.5287972	0.3616259

Table 29. - Time spent by children carrying out household chores by sex and activity status

activity	Male	Female	Total
1	1.526132	7.759966	5.853415
2	0.6796039	3.464007	1.849069
3	1.615968	6.051795	3.565315
4	1.838693	6.72924	4.827731
Total	1.130754	5.48019	3.257983

ANNEX B: RESULTS OF ECONOMETRIC ANALYSIS

Bivariate probit regression

Number of obs = 2004
 Wald chi2(34) = 630.42
 Log likelihood = -1895.07
 Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
employ_ly					
sex_F	.1448269	.0619194	2.34	0.019	.0234671
age	.8407516	.4274855	1.97	0.049	.0028953
age2	-.0264097	.0178047	-1.48	0.138	-.0613062
hhsz	-.0339907	.0166481	-2.04	0.041	-.0666204
children0_6	.1324683	.0361728	3.66	0.000	.061571
children7_14	-.0066056	.0342326	-0.19	0.847	-.0737002
mother_educ	-.0898372	.068961	-1.30	0.193	-.2249983
father_educ	-.1452249	.0381169	-3.81	0.000	-.2199327
lnincome	-.0182961	.0437014	-0.42	0.675	-.1039492
landowned	.3099904	.0942376	3.29	0.001	.1252881
land_someone	.0747914	.070214	1.07	0.287	-.0628255
mprim_dist	.1640361	.0800396	2.05	0.040	.0071613
mmins_water	.0018495	.0011846	1.56	0.118	-.0004723
urban_hills	-.655141	.1574447	-4.16	0.000	-.9637269
rural_hills	-.634839	.1082183	-5.87	0.000	-.8469429
terail	-.3267955	.1113609	-2.93	0.003	-.5450589
lnexpschool	-.2161274	.0383104	-5.64	0.000	-.2912143
_cons	-4.522366	2.579429	-1.75	0.080	-9.577954
attend					
sex_F	-.7970359	.0673905	-11.83	0.000	-.9291187
age	-.0228092	.4544719	-0.05	0.960	-.9135577
age2	-.0037904	.0189492	-0.20	0.841	-.04093
hhsz	.027938	.0177963	1.57	0.116	-.006942

children0_6		-.1521468	.0386414	-3.94	0.000	-.2278825	
-.076411							
children7_14		.0645642	.0366572	1.76	0.078	-.0072827	
.1364111							
mother_educ		.2221752	.0835924	2.66	0.008	.0583372	
.3860132							
father_educ		.2777781	.0426833	6.51	0.000	.1941204	
.3614359							
lnincome		.1982664	.0471663	4.20	0.000	.1058223	
.2907106							
landowned		.3333517	.097473	3.42	0.001	.1423081	
.5243952							
land_someone		.2118635	.0770951	2.75	0.006	.06076	
.3629671							
mprim_dist		-.1420643	.086061	-1.65	0.099	-.3107408	
.0266122							
mmins_water		-.0031712	.0012605	-2.52	0.012	-.0056418	-
.0007006							
urban_hills		.2646539	.1692882	1.56	0.118	-.067145	
.5964527							
rural_hills		.5635091	.1154312	4.88	0.000	.3372682	
.7897501							
terail		-.1725719	.116603	-1.48	0.139	-.4011096	
.0559659							
lnexpschool		.2430709	.040557	5.99	0.000	.1635806	
.3225611							
_cons		-3.150599	2.751989	-1.14	0.252	-8.544398	
2.243201							
-----+							
/athrho		-.876505	.0533555	-16.43	0.000	-.9810798	-
.7719301							
-----+							
rho		-.7046641	.0268618			-.753533	-
.6480503							

Likelihood ratio test of rho=0:				chi2(1) =	341.107	Prob > chi2	
= 0.0000							

Marginal effects after bivariate probit

1. Children working only

y = Pr(employ_ly=1, attend=0) (predict, p10)
= .17376743

variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% C.I.]
X							
sex_F*	.1437017	.01547	9.29	0.000	.11339	.174013	
.477545							
age	.0918368	.10298	0.89	0.373	-.110009	.293683	
11.9436							
age2	-.0021395	.00429	-0.50	0.618	-.010549	.00627	
144.660							
hhsiz	-.0081804	.00403	-2.03	0.043	-.016085	-.000276	
7.71208							
childr~6	.0390356	.00876	4.46	0.000	.021876	.056195	
1.03992							
ch~n7_14	-.0113687	.00828	-1.37	0.170	-.027592	.004855	
2.44361							
mother~c	-.0461506	.01773	-2.60	0.009	-.080901	-.0114	
1.21906							
father~c	-.0611472	.0095	-6.43	0.000	-.079772	-.042523	
1.79242							
lnincome	-.0347033	.01065	-3.26	0.001	-.055568	-.013838	
10.6548							
landow~d*	-.0081253	.02221	-0.37	0.715	-.05166	.035409	
.803892							
land_s~e*	-.0284388	.01658	-1.72	0.086	-.060932	.004054	
.254990							
mprim_~t	.0406749	.01943	2.09	0.036	.0026	.07875	
.196108							
mmins_~r	.0007181	.00029	2.51	0.012	.000157	.00128	
15.2834							
urban_~s*	-.1004868	.02625	-3.83	0.000	-.151935	-.049039	
.152695							
rural_~s*	-.1444924	.02143	-6.74	0.000	-.186489	-.102495	
.334830							
terail*	-.0081387	.02593	-0.31	0.754	-.058962	.042684	
.413673							
lnexps~1	-.0628344	.0093	-6.76	0.000	-.08106	-.044609	
6.40535							

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

2. Children working and studying

y = Pr(employ_ly=1,attend=1) (predict, p11)
= .15592326

variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% C.I.]
X							
sex_F*	-.0912347	.01455	-6.27	0.000	-.119758	-.062711	
.477545							
age	.2125257	.10279	2.07	0.039	.011058	.413994	
11.9436							
age2	-.0074212	.00428	-1.73	0.083	-.015813	.000971	
144.660							
hhsize	-.0041246	.00399	-1.03	0.301	-.011938	.003688	
7.71208							
childr~6	.0089196	.00872	1.02	0.306	-.00817	.026009	
1.03992							
ch~n7_14	.0089774	.00827	1.09	0.278	-.007229	.025184	
2.44361							
mother~c	.0136285	.01811	0.75	0.452	-.021864	.049121	
1.21906							
father~c	.0085739	.00949	0.90	0.366	-.010034	.027182	
1.79242							
lnincome	.0280799	.01068	2.63	0.009	.00715	.049009	
10.6548							
landow~d*	.1149993	.01595	7.21	0.000	.083736	.146262	
.803892							
land_s~e*	.055724	.01849	3.01	0.003	.019477	.091971	
.254990							
mprim_~t	.0187082	.01923	0.97	0.331	-.018982	.056398	
.196108							
mmins_~r	-.0000486	.00028	-0.17	0.864	-.000604	.000507	
15.2834							
urban_~s*	-.10651	.02523	-4.22	0.000	-.155959	-.057061	
.152695							
rural_~s*	-.0711945	.02298	-3.10	0.002	-.116235	-.026154	
.334830							
terail*	-.1082527	.0249	-4.35	0.000	-.157065	-.059441	
.413673							
lnexps~1	-.0154064	.00919	-1.68	0.094	-.033419	.002606	
6.40535							

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

3. Children studying only

y = Pr(employ_ly=0,attend=1) (predict, p01)
= .60354914

variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% C.I.]
X							
sex_F*	-.1564549	.02201	-7.11	0.000	-.1996	-.11331	
age	-.219625	.15103	-1.45	0.146	-.515646	.076396	
age2	.0062414	.00629	0.99	0.321	-.006092	.018575	
hhsiz	.0128202	.00591	2.17	0.030	.00124	.0244	
childr~6	-.0562745	.01273	-4.42	0.000	-.081225	-.031324	
ch~n7_14	.0111179	.01212	0.92	0.359	-.012647	.034882	
mother~c	.0555225	.02489	2.23	0.026	.006733	.104312	
father~c	.0778832	.01362	5.72	0.000	.051186	.10458	
lnincome	.0336296	.01551	2.17	0.030	.00323	.064029	
landow~d*	-.0044646	.03303	-0.14	0.892	-.0692	.060271	
land_s~e*	.0077129	.02516	0.31	0.759	-.04161	.057035	
mprim_~t	-.0629251	.02843	-2.21	0.027	-.11864	-.00721	
mmins_~r	-.0009384	.00042	-2.23	0.025	-.001762	-.000115	
urban_~s*	.1833091	.04695	3.90	0.000	.091297	.275321	
rural_~s*	.2339506	.03406	6.87	0.000	.167188	.300714	
terail*	.0540151	.03889	1.39	0.165	-.022198	.130228	
lnexps~1	.0910611	.01361	6.69	0.000	.064386	.117736	

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

4. Children are idle

y = Pr(employ_ly=0,attend=0) (predict, p00)
= .06676017

variable	dy/dx	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% C.I.]
X							
sex_F*	.1039879	.01088	9.55	0.000	.082657	.125319	
age	-.0847376	.062	-1.37	0.172	-.206264	.036789	
age2	.0033192	.00258	1.28	0.199	-.001745	.008383	
hhsiz	-.0005152	.00241	-0.21	0.831	-.005237	.004206	
childr~6	.0083194	.00528	1.58	0.115	-.00202	.018659	
ch~n7_14	-.0087266	.005	-1.74	0.081	-.01853	.001077	
mother~c	-.0230004	.01163	-1.98	0.048	-.045797	-.000204	
father~c	-.02531	.00593	-4.27	0.000	-.036927	-.013692	
lnincome	-.0270062	.00658	-4.10	0.000	-.039912	-.014101	
landow~d*	-.1024093	.02124	-4.82	0.000	-.144045	-.060774	
land_s~e*	-.0349981	.00869	-4.03	0.000	-.052024	-.017973	
mprim_~t	.003542	.01167	0.30	0.761	-.019326	.02641	
mmins_~r	.0002689	.00017	1.57	0.116	-.000066	.000604	
urban_~s*	.0236878	.02673	0.89	0.376	-.028708	.076084	
rural_~s*	-.0182637	.01429	-1.28	0.201	-.046278	.009751	
terail*	.0623763	.01797	3.47	0.001	.027154	.097598	
lnexps~1	-.0128202	.00554	-2.32	0.021	-.023669	-.001971	

(*) dy/dx is for discrete change of dummy variable from 0 to 1

Description of bivariate probit model variables

85. A bivariate probit model has been estimated using as endogenous dummy variables: employment and school attendance for children aged 10-14

86. The following explanatory variables were taken in consideration:

- *Gender effects: The variable sex_F is a dummy; it equals 1 for girls and 0 for boys.*
- *Children's age: With age and age2 (age squared) the effect of the child's age on the endogenous variables is estimated.*
- *Household structure: The household structure is proxied by the household size (hhsiz), the number of siblings in the household aged 0-6 (below and of the school age) and aged 7-14 (in the school age).*
- *Mother and father education: We used two ordinal-scaled variables: father (father_educ) and mother education (mother_educ). Parents' education equals 1 if parents are not educated, 2 if their education is up to primary, 3 if their education is up to secondary and 4 if their education is higher than secondary.*
- *Income: The wealth condition of the family is proxied with the family income. The logarithm of the family income (lnincome) is used in order to take into account the effects of non-linearity.*
- *Returns to child labour: In order to proxy the return to child labor a dummy (landowned) was used that equals 1 if the household has own land and equals 0 if it has not. Moreover, we looked at a dummy (land_someone) that is equal to 1 if over the past year someone of the household cultivated land owned by someone else (or that was mortgaged in). This approach has an advantage compared to other measures like market wages, since most of the children work on the household farm or in the informal sector as unpaid workers.*
- *Cost of education: The questionnaire gives information on each household's education expenditures for children in the past 12 months. We generated a cluster mean of this expenditure and calculated the logarithm (lnexpschool). The school expenditure includes admission, registration and tuition costs, examination fees, transportation fees and costs, textbooks, writing support, stationery, boarding fees and other fees. The private tuition costs were not considered.*
- **Infrastructure:** (1) the effect of the household's distance from water on school attendance and employment. Considering the 3 dry seasons (Kartik, Magh and Baisakh) we created a variable using the mean of the minutes people spent for collecting water (*mmins_water*); (2) the effect of the household's distance from school, using a dummy equal to 1 if travel time to school exceeds 30 minutes of distance (*mprim_dist*).
- *Regional dummies: We used four dummies that divide the nation in urban hills, rural hills, Terail and mountains.*

ANNEX (C) COMPREHENSIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY⁶⁹

National Child Labour Survey/Studies

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