



**Understanding Children's Work**  
An Inter-Agency Research Cooperation Project



Understanding Children's Work Project Country Report Series, August 2008

# Understanding children's work in Uganda

*Report on child labour*

August 2008

# **Understanding children's work in Uganda**

## **Country report August 2008**

### **PREFACE**

The Government of Uganda is committed to efforts towards eliminating child labour, and especially its worst forms. Child labour manifests itself in different sectors of the economy presenting grave situations, potential hazards, exploitation, deprivation and abuse to the victims.

A series of surveys and studies carried out by the Uganda Bureau of Statistics and other partners over the last decade provides some broad indications of child labour. Among others, the Uganda Demographic and Health Survey 2000/01 formed the basis for the first ever Report on Child Labour in Uganda 2003. The findings of the report provided some broad information on the situation of working children and proved to be useful in stimulating debate on the issue of child labour, and in designing strategies to tackle the problem.

However, it was acknowledged that there is more that needs to be known about child labour, especially its worst forms. A deeper understanding is needed of the scale of the problem in terms of incidence, nature, magnitude dynamics, distribution, injuries, and hazards and variety of conditions in which the children work. With the national attention on the worst forms of child labour, this is particularly true because of their hidden and invisible nature.

Against this background, the Uganda Bureau of Statistics in collaboration with ILO-IPEC (Combating and preventing HIV/AIDS-induced child labour in Sub-Saharan Africa: pilot actions in Uganda and Zambia) and the interagency Understanding Children's Work research project funded by ILO, UNICEF and World Bank ([www.ucw-project.org](http://www.ucw-project.org)) carried out a deeper analysis based on the 2005/06 Uganda National Household survey in order to understand factors behind child labour in Uganda.

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# **Understanding children's work in Uganda**

**Country report**

**August 2008**

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As part of broader efforts towards 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](http://www.ucw-project.org).

# **Understanding children's work in Uganda**

**Country report**

**August 2008**

## **ABSTRACT**

The report provides an overview of the child labor phenomenon in Uganda, its extent and nature, its determinants, and its consequences on health and education.

# Understanding children's work in Uganda

## Country report August 2008

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

*The current report was developed in collaboration with the interagency research project funded by ILO, UNICEF and World Bank ([www.ucw-project.org](http://www.ucw-project.org)) “Understanding Children’s Work” in Uganda, ILO-IPEC (Combating and preventing HIV/AIDS-induced child labour in Sub-Saharan Africa: pilot actions in Uganda and Zambia) and Uganda Bureau of Statistics. It provides an overview of work done by children in the country – its extent and nature, its determinants, and its consequences on health and education. The report also looks at national responses to child labour that negatively affects children and the country’s future. The report serves two important UCW project objectives in Uganda: first, it helps provide a common analytical understanding of children’s work, upon which common strategies can be developed addressing child labour that needs elimination; and second, the report contributes to a broader effort to build counterpart capacity in analysing and using children’s work data for policy development. The report is the first detailed report on child labour in Uganda.*

### **Children’s involvement in work and school**

*According to Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2005/06, an estimated 2.5 million children aged 7-14 years – 38% of this age group – are engaged in economic activity. This total includes some 1.4 million of children under the age of 12 years.\* . Fifteen percent of children engage in economic activities by the age of seven years, and over half of all children are economically active by the age of 13 years. These very young child workers constitute a particular policy concern, as they are the most vulnerable to workplace abuses, and the most exposed at risk of work-related ill-health or injury. They are also the most affected by compromised education.*

*Slightly over 35 percent of all 7-14 year-olds work and attend school at the same time, while only 3 percent work in economic activity without also going to school. But evidence suggests that work involvement does present a barrier to proceeding in schooling beyond primary level. Working children spent lesser time in school than other children, compromising their prospects for more gainful employment later in their lifecycles..Almost 2.5 percent of 9-17 year-olds, over 165,000 in absolute terms, have never attended school. A further 422,000 out-of-school children from this age group did not complete the primary education level. The findings underscore the need for “second chance” learning opportunities designed to impart basic skills and knowledge of relevance to the job market and community life*

*About 4.7% of the children in the 7-14 age group are neither involved in work nor attending school. This group requires further investigation, but it stands to reason that many from this group are in reality also performing functions that contribute in some way to household welfare. The children from this group – who are indeed idle – 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.*

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***Geographical differences in involvement in economic activity are large.*** By residence, the results show that only 15 percent of urban 7-14 year-olds are at work in economic activity compared to 42 percent of rural children. Rates of economic activity among 7-14 year-olds by region show that the participation of children in economic activities are highest in the eastern and central regions, followed by the western region. The geographical differences in terms of children's involvement in economic activity underscore the importance of geographical targeted interventions against child labour in Uganda.

About 78 percent of 7-14 year-olds were engaged in housekeeping activities or household chores in own parents' or guardians home during the 2005-06 reference year.<sup>†</sup> Girls are much more likely to perform household chores than boys, and ignoring this form of work therefore biases estimates of children's work in "favour" of boys.

### **Characteristics of children's work**

***Overall 96 percent of total economically-active 7-14 year-olds worked in agriculture.*** Agricultural work accounts for almost all of children's economic activity in rural areas (97%); working children in urban areas are also found in the services sector (27%) and in manufacturing (6%). Taken together, 97 percent of child in economic activity work within the family. Children living in urban areas are slightly more likely to be involved in waged work (10%), compared to their counterparts living in rural.

***Overall 1.2 million children aged 7-11 years, 1.1 million children aged 12-14 years and 870,000 children aged 15-17 years log at least 30 hours of work per week.*** The results further show that one-third of children are performing double work duty, i.e., both household chores and economic activity simultaneously and are working an average of 18 hours per week on household chores plus an additional average of almost 10 hours per week on economic activity.

***Over 1.76 million 5-17 year-olds (17 %) of the of all children in Uganda aged are in child labour as defined by national legislation.*** Gender disaggregating shows that 19% of the male children (966,000 children) and 16% of the female children (798,451 children) respectively are in child labor.

### **Determinants of children's work and schooling**

Regression analysis using the UNHS 2005/06 dataset points to some of the factors influencing parents choices to make children work or idle. These include:

***Gender:*** Holding constant household income, parents' education and other relevant factors, female are less likely to attend school than their male counterparts. It is worth noting, however, that these results do not extend to involvement in household chores, a variable not included in the multivariate analysis. The descriptive evidence shows that gender considerations are an important factor in the assignment of

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<sup>†</sup> UNHS 2005-06 only identify children involved in the following four activities: fetching water; collecting firewood; cooking for the household; taking care of children and the elderly

responsibility for chores in the household.

**Age:** The analysis shows that the probability of a child working increases with age;

**Parents' educational status:** Children of educated fathers are one percentage point less likely to work full-time and two percentage points more likely to attend school full-time, than children of illiterate fathers. Similar results are obtained when the education of the mother is taken in consideration. The effect on the probability that a child will attend school full time is stronger as the level of education of the mother increase compared to the level of education of the father

**Household Income:** The level of household income plays an important role in decisions concerning children's work and schooling. As the level of income increase by 10 percent, it will reduce the probability of a child working full-time in economic activity by 1.6 percentage points and raises the likelihood of him or her of combining work and school by more than five percentage points.

**Place of residence.** Children's living location has a strong influence on their time use, highlighting the importance of targeted, area-specific approaches to reducing child labour and raising school attendance. Holding other factors constant, children living in rural areas are 21 percentage points less likely to attend school full-time, and 21 percentage points more likely to combine work and school, compared to their counterparts living in cities and towns.

**Orphan hood.** Double orphans children are significantly more likely to be absent from both school and economic activity. As a consequence, double orphans are more at risk to be kept at home, away from school and the workplace, to perform household chores.

**Exposure to shocks.** Children belonging from family hit by natural disaster are less likely to attend school full-time and more likely to combine work and school. A natural disaster have the strongest impact, raising the probability of work and study involvement by five percentage points, and reducing the likelihood of full-time school attendance by almost 6.5 percentage points.

**Internally displaced persons.** Children living in the camps are about 20 percentage points more likely to attend school full time or to combine work and school compared to their counterparts living in the rest of the country

### **Policy Implications**

***The progressive elimination of child labour in Uganda as elsewhere requires a policy response targeting three broad groups: (1) children at risk of involvement in child labour; (2) children already harmed by exposure to child labour; (3) children in the worst forms of child labour*** requiring immediate, direct actions.

Prevention measures designed to stem the flow of children into work constitute the

most important component of a policy response to child labour, and understanding the factors influencing household decisions relating to schooling and work is therefore critical.

“Second chance” policies are critical to avoid large numbers of children entering adulthood in a disadvantaged position, permanently harmed by early work experience. They are needed to reach former working children and other out-of-school children, and they offer children who have never enrolled in school, or who have dropped out, a ‘bridge’ to successful integration or reintegration in the formal school class.

Direct action would play a crucial role in Uganda, given the large size of the child labour population and the country’s limited resources: direct action is needed to ensure the removal, recovery and reintegration of working children whose rights are most compromised, i.e., those facing the greatest degree of hazard and/or exploitation as for example the children in the unconditional worst of child labour and those in hazardous forms of work. Moreover, follow-up actions ensuring that rescued children are provided a full range of needed social services are also critical.

## INTRODUCTION

1. Child labour constitutes a key obstacle to achieving universal primary education and other Millennium Development Goals in Uganda. It not only harms the welfare of individual children, but also slows broader national poverty reduction and development efforts. Children forced out of school and into labour to help their families make ends meet are denied the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills needed for gainful future employment, thereby perpetuating the cycle of poverty. The worst off child labourers face immediate threats to their safety and well-being, and therefore constitute an urgent policy priority.

2. The current report was developed under the aegis of the Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project, a research co-operation initiative of the International Labour Organisation, UNICEF and World Bank. It is the product of a collaborative effort involving the Bureau of Statistics, the UCW project secretariat and the ILO/IPEC Uganda country offices. The 2005-2006 Labour Force Survey Child Labour module is the primary dataset.

3. The report provides an initial overview of the child labour phenomenon in Uganda – its extent and nature, its determinants, and its consequences on children's health and education. The analysis considers the economics as well as the social determinants of child labour and follows a cross-sectoral approach, especially in the identification of the household- and community-related factors underlying child labour in Uganda. Particular attention is given to the links between child labour and schooling, both to highlight this in the policy dialogue and to provide recommendations for protection of children who will still be working in the short to medium term.

4. Three related objectives are served by the report: (1) to improve the information base on child labour, in order to inform policy and programme design; (2) to promote policy dialogue on child labour and accelerated progress towards national child labour reduction targets; and (3) to build national capacity for regular child labour analysis.

5. The remainder of the report is organised as follows. Section 2 briefly reviews the national context, and specifically major socio-economic factors underlying the child labour phenomenon in the country. Section 3 presents descriptive data on the extent of child involvement in work and schooling, broken down by age, sex, residence and region. Section 4 looks at the involvement of children in child labour. Section 5 examines key characteristics of children's work, including the sectors where child workers are concentrated and the intensity with which work is performed. Section 6 analyses the consequences of children's work on the education and health. Section 7 looks at major determinants of child labour and schooling, making use of a simple economic model of household behaviour. Section 8 summarises some of the main policy implications emerging from the empirical findings.

## 1. NATIONAL CONTEXT

6. Since 1986, Uganda has transformed from a nearly failed state as a result of various brutal dictatorships, to a country that has achieved consistently high economic growth rates, significant reductions in poverty, and steady improvements in health and education status. Due to strong macroeconomic management (low inflation, stable exchange rate, large foreign reserves), savings, exports, and foreign direct investment are increasing.<sup>3</sup> Within the region, Uganda has been a leader in the fight against HIV/AIDS, with prevalence dropping significantly during past decade. Uganda's development objectives are articulated in the 2004 Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP)<sup>4</sup>. The PEAP was developed through a participatory process involving civil society and development partners, including the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF).

### Box 1. AIDS epidemic in Uganda

After peaking at over 15 percent in the early 1990s, HIV prevalence in Uganda declined sharply – among women from 20 percent in 1994-1995 to 13 percent in 2003, and among men from 15 percent to 9 percent over the same period. The age groups more affected has shifted upward (ages 35-44 years for men and 30-34 years for women). The decline in prevalence rate is partly the result of a nationwide effort to curb the epidemic, together with behavioral change.

Data on behavior suggest that the past declining prevalence trends may not continue in the future without a renewed focus on prevention. There is also evidence of continued HIV-related stigma: roughly half of the men and women surveyed said that if a family member contracted HIV they would prefer to keep that fact secret (Ministry of Health Uganda, 2005).

In urban areas, HIV prevalence among women was twice that among men (13 percent compared with 7.3 percent), while in rural areas it was roughly similar (7.2 percent versus 5.6 percent). Varying considerably from region to region, infection levels were found to be lowest in the West Nile (less than three percent) and highest (more than 9 percent) in Kampala, and in the Central and North-Central regions.

Of particular concern are high HIV-discordance rates among married or cohabiting partners. More than 85 percent of women (and 90 percent of men) with HIV are currently or were previously married. Women's vulnerability to infection within marriage is underlined by the fact that most men with multiple partners are married. For some girls, meanwhile, abstinence was not an option: 14 percent of women said their first sexual experience had been coerced.

Uganda has made strong strides in expanding access to treatment. It is estimated that more than one third of people in need of antiretroviral treatment were receiving it in mid-2005 – the best coverage in sub-Saharan Africa, with the possible exception of Botswana. Despite the admirable achievements in prevention, treatment and care in the past decade, Uganda has not overcome its epidemic. The recent research findings underline the need for renewed emphasis on comprehensive prevention strategies that can respond to the challenges posed by mature epidemics where antiretroviral treatment access is improving.

Major barriers to HIV prevention, treatment, care and support include: limited public investment in prevention, infrastructures and human resources; limited service coverage, lack of a policy framework and limited financial resources. A new costed National Strategic Plan is under development to address bottlenecks to universal access.

Source: UNAIDS/WHO, AIDS epidemic update: December 2005 Sub-Saharan Africa; and <http://www.unaids.org/en/Regions/Countries/Countries/Uganda.asp>

7. Notwithstanding these advances, the country still faces many development challenges, each a contributing factor to child labour: poverty is widespread, and inequality appears to be increasing; even if national HIV prevalence has been stable since about 2000, HIV/AIDS remains the leading cause of death within the most productive age ranges of 15-49 years; 19 percent of the population is undernourished;

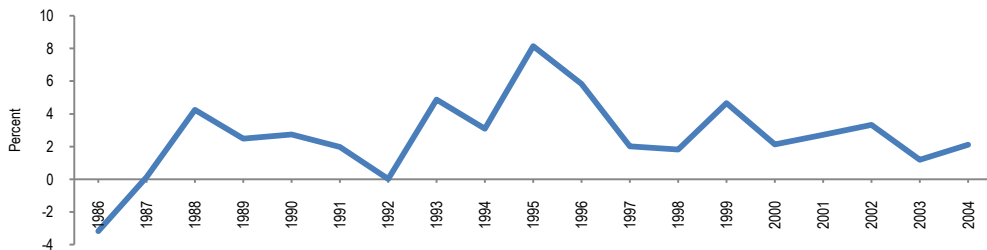
<sup>3</sup> Republic of Uganda Joint Assistance Strategy (2005-2009), African Development Bank, October 2005.

<sup>4</sup> The first PEAP was issued in 1997, the second in 2000 and the third in 2005.

14 percent of children die before their fifth birthday and almost 23 percent of children are underweight.<sup>5</sup> Water supply improved significantly over the 1990s, but safe water coverage remains low in rural areas.<sup>6</sup> Serious concern stems from Uganda's high population growth rate, and its negative consequences on agricultural system, the environment, labour markets, the health system, and the educational system.<sup>7</sup> Uganda's Human Development Index (HDI) stood at .505 in 2005, placing it 154th out of 177 countries.<sup>8</sup>

8. Uganda has experienced strong economic growth over the past decade. Real GDP growth at market prices has averaged 6.5 percent per annum since 1990/1991 and it was 4.9 percent in 2005, far above the sub-Saharan Africa average of 2.4 percent.<sup>9</sup> Recently concerns have been raised, since growth has slowed slightly over the past five years: the higher average growth between 1990/91 and 1997/1998 was driven by economic reforms implemented in the first half of the 1990s and the coffee price boom (that improved the terms of trade) (Figure 1). Other determinants of growth in Uganda during the 1990s have been identified as improved security, and growth of total factor productivity (Table 1).<sup>10</sup>

Figure 1. Annual growth in GDP per capita, 1986-2004



Source: World Development Indicators (WDI) dataset, 2007

<sup>5</sup> Millennium Indicators, UNSTATS.

<sup>6</sup> Safe water coverage had mildly improved from a rural coverage of 49.8% in 2000 to 54.9% in 2002 while urban coverage rose from 54% to an estimated 60%-65% in 2003. While this may not yet have led to improved health outcomes, it has reduced the time women and girls have to spend fetching water. Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2004/5-2007/8)

<sup>7</sup> WB, The World Bank in Uganda, Country Brief 2005-2006

<sup>8</sup> The HDI – human development index – is a summary composite index that measures a country's average achievements in three basic aspects of human development: longevity, knowledge, and a decent standard of living. Longevity is measured by life expectancy at birth; knowledge is measured by a combination of the adult literacy rate and the combined primary, secondary, and tertiary gross enrolment ratio; and standard of living by GDP per capita (PPP US\$). Source: <http://hdr.undp.org/en/statistics>.

<sup>9</sup> WB, The World Bank in Uganda, Country Brief 2005-2006

<sup>10</sup> Since taking office in 1986, the National Resistance Movement government has pursued policies promoting economic liberalization and private sector-based, export-led growth. It has successfully maintained macroeconomic stability, while steadily directing larger shares of public spending to investment, operations and maintenance, and public services targeting the poor. Uganda's average inflation rate has been below 5 percent for more than a decade. The banking sector has been reformed. Privatization of telecommunications has resulted in lower cost services and expansion in the number of households and business served. Source: *Joint Assistance strategy for the Republic of Uganda (2005-2009)*, African Development Bank, Austria, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, UK Department for International Development, The World Bank

Table 1. Gross Domestic Product growth rates, fiscal years 2002/03 - 2006/07

| Sector   | 2002/03 | 2003/04 | 2004/05 | 2005/06 | 2006/07 |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
|  | %       | %       | %       | %       | %       |
| Agriculture                                    | 2.3     | 0.4     | 0.5     | -0.6    | 1.9     |
| Mining & quarrying                             | 1.2     | 8.6     | 11.6    | 8.5     | 14.2    |
| Manufacturing                                  | 4.2     | 4.6     | 11.9    | -0.1    | 2.9     |
| Electricity & water                            | 3.4     | 6.7     | 3.2     | -2.2    | 3.0     |
| Construction                                   | 10.9    | 13.0    | 11.3    | 13.5    | 11.3    |
| Wholesale & retail trade, hotels & restaurants | 5.3     | 5.5     | 9.7     | 6.8     | 8.7     |
| Transport & communications                     | 16.8    | 21.3    | 21.5    | 19.8    | 22.3    |
| Community services                             | 2.1     | 7.6     | 6.5     | 8.1     | 3.7     |
| Rent & owner-occupied dwellings                | 5.7     | 5.3     | 5.3     | 4.0     | 3.5     |
| Total GDP at Basic prices (factor cost)        | 4.5     | 5.3     | 6.5     | 5.0     | 6.2     |

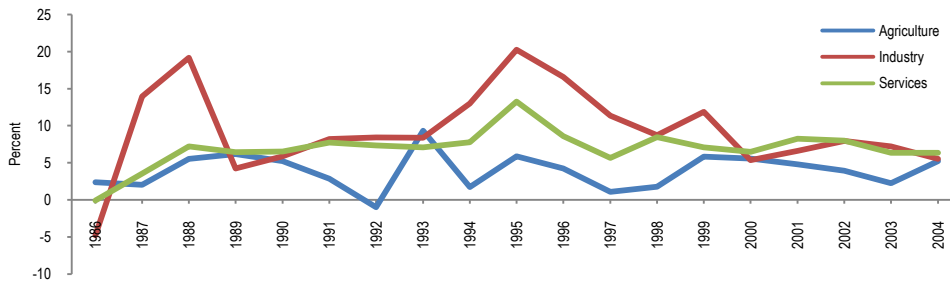
Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics

9. Shifts in the contribution to GDP by sector demonstrate that Uganda's economy has started to move away from subsistence agriculture to a mix of commercial agriculture, services and industry. Industrial production saw the highest rate of growth, averaging 10.4 percent per annum between 1990/1991 and 2002/2003 as a whole, although it slowed slightly to an average of 7.7 percent per annum in the last five years. Services grew by an average of 7.5 percent per annum in the same period, and by 6.9 percent over the past five years. Agriculture had the slowest growth rate amongst the major sectors, averaging 3.8 percent per annum between 1990/1991 and 2002/2003, although growth was slightly higher in the last five years, at 4.4 percent per annum. Agriculture accounted for 39 percent of GDP in 2002/2003, as compared to 51 percent in 1991/1992. Services increased as a share of GDP from 37 percent in 1990/1991 to 42 percent in 2002/2003, and industrial production rose from 12 percent to 20 percent over the same period.<sup>11</sup>

<sup>11</sup> International Monetary Fund (2005), Uganda: Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper



Figure 2. Value added by sector, annual growth rate



Source: World Development Indicators (WDI) 2006 dataset

10. Given Uganda's natural competitive advantage of fertile land and a good climate, it is not expected that Uganda will move away from agricultural production altogether, but that it will orientate its agricultural output towards regional and international export. Consequently, Government' agricultural strategy is focusing on the production and processing of agricultural exports, both traditional exports such as coffee and cotton and non-traditional exports such as horticulture, vanilla and honey. Agriculture in Uganda remains very labour intensive: 69 percent of the labour force was employed in agriculture related activities in 2003, as compared to 23 percent in services and eight percent in industry.<sup>12</sup>

11. Aid flows increased from eight percent of GDP to over 12 percent of GDP during 1998/99–2001/02 (comprising about 50 percent of the government budget), financing large increases in public spending and in the fiscal deficit. Aid inflows have since stabilized, and the deficit before grants has fallen back from a peak of 12.2 percent of GDP (5.2 percent after grants) in 2001/02 to 9.9 percent of GDP (1.1 percent after grants) in 2004/05. Domestic revenue mobilization has improved modestly, but remains low at 12.7 percent of GDP. Mobilising more revenues domestically is important if the government is to generate sufficient resources to invest in infrastructure and deliver services to a growing population, while avoiding the potentially adverse macroeconomic affects of a large deficit financed by aid and continued aid dependency.<sup>13</sup>

<sup>12</sup> Poverty Reduction Action Plan (2004/5-2007/8), Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, 2004.

<sup>13</sup> Joint Assistance strategy for the Republic of Uganda (2005-2009), African Development Bank, Austria, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, UK Department for International Development, The World Bank

Table 2. GDP at constant (1997/98) prices: million shillings and percentage contribution, 2002/03 - 2006/07

| Industry group                                     | 2002/03   | 2003/04   | 2004/05    | 2005/06    | 2006/07    |
|--|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
| Agriculture  | 3,603,098 | 3,619,161 | 3,635,715  | 3,614,522  | 3,683,245  |
|  | 39.00%    | 37.30%    | 35.10%     | 33.30%     | 31.90%     |
| Mining and quarrying                               | 70,517    | 76,550    | 85,411     | 92,712     | 105,896    |
|  | 0.80%     | 0.80%     | 0.80%      | 0.90%      | 0.90%      |
| Manufacturing                                      | 870,876   | 910,534   | 1,019,081  | 1,017,857  | 1,047,511  |
|  | 9.40%     | 9.40%     | 9.80%      | 9.40%      | 9.10%      |
| Electricity and water                              | 130,536   | 139,311   | 143,722    | 140,507    | 144,678    |
|  | 1.40%     | 1.40%     | 1.40%      | 1.30%      | 1.30%      |
| Construction                                       | 704,911   | 796,758   | 887,038    | 1,006,374  | 1,120,487  |
|  | 7.60%     | 8.20%     | 8.60%      | 9.30%      | 9.70%      |
| Wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants | 1,290,082 | 1,361,369 | 1,493,893  | 1,595,594  | 1,734,520  |
|  | 14.00%    | 14.00%    | 14.40%     | 14.70%     | 15.00%     |
| Transport and communication                        | 554,162   | 672,147   | 816,680    | 978,587    | 1,196,988  |
|  | 6.00%     | 6.90%     | 7.90%      | 9.00%      | 10.40%     |
| Community services                                 | 1,302,855 | 1,401,525 | 1,492,569  | 1,612,986  | 1,672,003  |
|  | 14.10%    | 14.40%    | 14.40%     | 14.80%     | 14.50%     |
| Rents and owner-occupied dwellings                 | 700,652   | 737,728   | 776,964    | 807,941    | 836,345    |
|  | 7.60%     | 7.60%     | 7.50%      | 7.40%      | 7.20%      |
| Total GDP at basic prices (factor cost)            | 9,227,688 | 9,715,082 | 10,351,072 | 10,867,080 | 11,541,673 |
|  | 100.00%   | 100.00%   | 100.00%    | 100.00%    | 100.00%    |

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2008

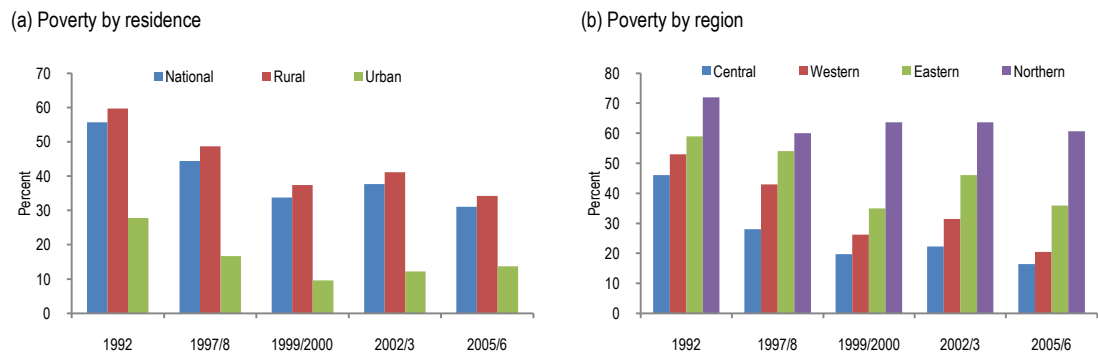
12. Consumption poverty has fallen dramatically since the 1990s. The proportion of Ugandans with expenditures below the poverty line fell from 56 percent in 1992 to 44 percent in 1997/8 and even faster to 34 percent in 2000. Poverty fell further to 31 percent in 2005/06, after having risen somewhat in the first years of the current decade. These changes were driven mainly by increases in average income, rather than by redistribution. Uganda ranks 72<sup>nd</sup> among 108 developing countries on the Human Poverty Index (HPI-1) (2004).<sup>14</sup>

13. Poverty is mainly a rural phenomenon: in rural areas 34 percent of people was living below the poverty line in 2005/06, compared to 14 percent in urban areas. Human development indicators are also generally much better among urban households, but there are some particular problems faced by the urban poor, including the shortage of decent housing and sanitation. Urban poverty also often reflects migration from rural areas and therefore can be addressed partly by making conditions in rural areas better. One of the most serious forms of poverty in Uganda is the living conditions of people in camps. While rigorous data are scarce, some studies have shown alarmingly high rates of malnutrition among persons living in the camps.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>14</sup> The Human Poverty Index (HPI-1) for developing countries focuses on the proportion of people below a threshold level in the same dimensions of human development as the Human Development Index – living a long and healthy life, having access to education, and a decent standard of living. By looking beyond income deprivation, the HPI-1 represents a multi-dimensional alternative to the \$1 a day (PPP US\$ measure) poverty measure. <http://hdr.undp.org/>

<sup>15</sup> Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2004/5-

Figure 3. Proportion of people below the national poverty line (% of total population)



Source: PEAP data 2004-05 /2007-08

14. Inequality has decreased in recent years, but remains higher than in the early- and mid-nineties. The Gini coefficient stood at 0.365 in 1992/93, rose to 0.428 in 2002/03 and then fell to 0.408 in 2005/05 (Table 3). Wide inequalities are observed between rural and urban areas and inter-regionally, with the Northern region lagging behind the rest of the country, followed by Eastern region. Inequality is also evident as regards access to basic services. Marked differentials exist in access by quintile; this is particularly striking for telephones, where only 11 percent of the poorest quintile have access within 2 km compared to 53 percent of the top quintile, for electricity, and for secondary schools.<sup>16</sup> Poor households also have less access to sanitation facilities, particularly in rural areas (Figure 4).

Table 3. Gini coefficient, by residence and region, 1992/93-2005/06

|           |          | 1992/93 | 2002/03 | 2005/06 |
|-----------|----------|---------|---------|---------|
| Residence | Urban    | 0.396   | 0.483   | 0.432   |
|           | Rural    | 0.328   | 0.363   | 0.363   |
| Region    | Central  | 0.395   | 0.460   | 0.417   |
|           | Eastern  | 0.327   | 0.365   | 0.354   |
|           | Northern | 0.345   | 0.350   | 0.331   |
|           | Western  | 0.319   | 0.359   | 0.342   |
| National  |          | 0.365   | 0.428   | 0.408   |

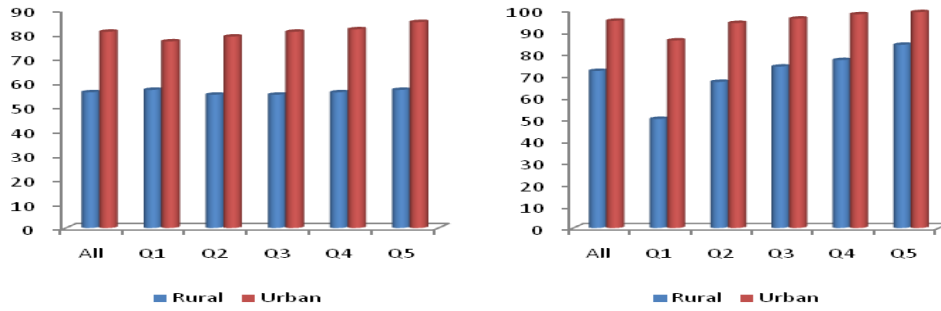
Source: UBOS calculations based on UNHS 1992/93 and UNHS 2005/06

Figure 4. Unequal access to basic services

2007/8)

<sup>16</sup> Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2004/5-2007/8)

(a) Access to an improved water source (% of population) (b) Access to sanitation facilities (% of population)



Source: World Bank HDR 2005

15. Social vulnerability in Uganda frequently stems from the disruption in household membership caused by illness or death of a member. This results in a permanent change in the household's ability to raise income. Orphans are among the most vulnerable group: about 14 percent of children below 18 have lost at least one parent, and three percent lost both. For children aged 6-17, as many as 20 percent have lost at least one parent mostly as a result of HIV and conflict. In some cases, the elderly are relatively vulnerable. In particular, as noted above, female widows are more likely to be poor.<sup>17</sup>

<sup>17</sup> Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2004/5-2007/8)

Table 4. Summary of status with respect to Millennium Development Goals

|   | 2015<br>MDG<br>target | Status in<br>2005<br>(or latest<br>available) | Comments and considerations  |
|---|-----------------------|---|--|
| <b>1. Eliminate extreme poverty and hunger</b>                            |                       |   |  |
| Poverty headcount ratio   | 28                    | 38  |  |
| Prevalence of child malnutrition (% of under-fives)                       | 12                    | 23  |  |
| <b>2. Achieve Universal Primary Education</b>                             |                       |   |  |
| Net primary enrolment rate (% of relevant group)                          | 100 boys              | 87 boys                                       | The achievement of this objective depends on addressing the reasons why children drop out of school. The objective may be achievable within existing projections of expenditure, provided the education sector remains focused on outcome indicators and on including the poorest                    |
|   | 100 girls             | 86 girls                                      |  |
| Primary completion rate (% of boys and girls)                             | 100                   | 56  |  |
| <b>3. Promote gender equality and empower women</b>                       |                       |   |  |
| Ratio of girls to boys in primary education                               | 100                   | 99  |  |
| <b>4. Reduce child mortality</b>  |                       |   |  |
| Under 5 mortality ration (per 1,000)                                      | 53                    | 152   | Reducing under-five mortality by two-thirds is highly ambitious. However, improved health services may well have started to make an impact. The critical point is the delivery and uptake by the population of preventive measures, including better public understanding of how to prevent illness. |
| Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)                             | 32                    | 88  |  |
| Immunization, DPT3 (% of children)  | 100                   | 83  |  |
| <b>5. Improve maternal health</b>   |                       |   |  |
| Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)                        | 126                   | 505   | Health sector has warned that it may not be achievable on existing resource projections.   |
| Deliveries in health centres (% of total)                                 | n/t                   | 24  |  |
| <b>6. Combat (halt and reverse) HIV, malaria and other major diseases</b> |                       |   |  |
| Prevalence of HIV (% of adults)   |                       |   | If the issue of illness prevention is given enough public profile, this might be achieved within existing resources.   |
|   | <20                   | 6.2   | As regards malaria and other major diseases, some progresses have been made recently: Uganda should be able to take interventions both on introducing bed nets and on promoting cleaner environment that should bring this down.   |
| <b>7. Ensure environmental sustainability</b>                             |                       |   |  |
| Forest area (% of total land area)  | >24                   | 24  |  |
| Access to safe water (% of total population)                              | 90                    | 65 urban<br>55 rural                          | The water and sanitation targets are not likely to be achieved within existing resource projections, especially as regards rural areas.  |
| Access to improved sanitation (% of total pop.)                           | 90                    | 65 urban<br>56 rural                          |  |

Sources: Data are drawn from The World Bank in Uganda, Country Brief 2005-2006, the comments are drawn from Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2004/5-2007/8)

16. Notwithstanding the progresses towards achieving most of the Millennium Development Goals (Table 4), several challenges remain daunting. Above all, the Health Sector will face the most acute difficulties since it has already highlighted the resources constraints to “improve maternal health” by 2015; there may also be a need for more resources to achieve the full implementation of universal primary education by 2015. Uganda has succeeded in reducing gender imbalances and in increasing net enrolment rate, but health outcomes show a more mixed performance. Improvements in income, water supply and access to health services appear to have been counteracted by increasingly dangerous malaria, the knock-on effects of adult illness as a result of the AIDS epidemic on future generations’ social capital, and deterioration in sanitary practices.

17. Gender disparities in Uganda nonetheless persist in many dimensions.<sup>18</sup> Women are generally poorer than men, and there are some dimension of poverty in which women are generally at a disadvantage.<sup>19</sup> Women participate less in the labour market than men, and women’s wages have been found to be significantly lower than men’s. Women’s land rights are limited in Uganda both by inequitable legal structure and by traditional practice. This may be at least partly due to differences in average educational status, or it may reflect labour market institutions that discriminate against women. Women typically work longer hours than men when domestic tasks are considered, and the same pattern holds in the context of children’s work. In education, while there is increasing gender equity at the primary school level, large disparities persist at higher levels of schooling. The gender-related development index<sup>20</sup> was 0.498 in 2004.

18. Population growth represents another major challenge to poverty reduction. Between 1991 and 2002, the population grew at 3.2 percent per year, compared to rates between two and three percent in the 1970s and 1980s.<sup>21</sup> The population growth rate is expected to reach 3.7 percent in 2004-2015.<sup>22</sup> In 2004, 50.4 percent of total population was below the age of 15, meaning dependency rates are very high; children aged less than 15 years as a percentage of overall population is projected to continue to increase slightly in the medium term, reaching 50.8 percent in 2015. The total fertility rate (the total number of children born on average to a woman who lives through childbearing age) is very high, at 7.1 percent, and has changed little in recent years. At the same time, the life expectancy at birth increased from 46.5 in 1969 to 50.4 in 2002.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>18</sup> This paragraph is drawn primarily from Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, Poverty Eradication Action Plan (2004/5-2007/8)

<sup>19</sup> Households headed by female widows are consistently poorer than others, and household headed by married women (probably mostly married to polygamous or absent husband) are poorer than other households.

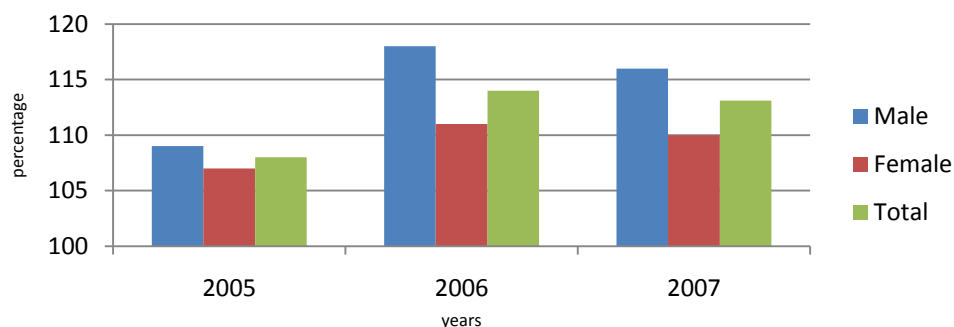
<sup>20</sup> The gender-related development index (GDI), introduced in Human Development Report 1995, measures achievements in the same dimensions using the same indicators as the HDI but captures inequalities in achievement between women and men. It is simply the HDI adjusted downward for gender inequality. The greater the gender disparity in basic human development, the lower is a country’s GDI relative to its HDI.

<sup>21</sup> WB, The World Bank in Uganda, Country Brief 2005-2006

<sup>22</sup> <http://hdr.undp.org/>

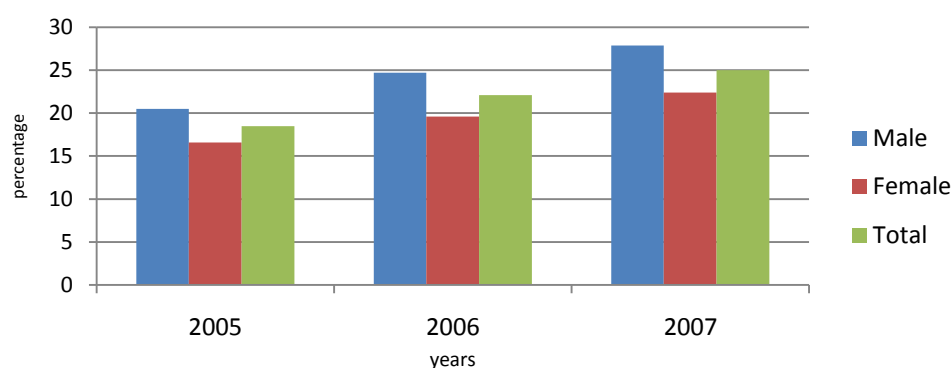
<sup>23</sup> Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS)

Figure 5. Primary gross enrolment rate



Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics

Figure 6. Secondary gross enrolment rate



Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics

Table 5. Primary school completion 2000 – 2006 ('000 pupils)

| Currently Attending | Attending P.1 in 2000 |        |        | Attending P.7 in 2006 |        |        | Completion rate |        |        |
|---------------------|-----------------------|--------|--------|-----------------------|--------|--------|-----------------|--------|--------|
|                     | Male                  | Female | Uganda | Male                  | Female | Uganda | Male            | Female | Uganda |
| Kampala             | 53                    | 39     | 92     | 16                    | 15     | 31     | 30              | 38     | 34     |
| Central             | 251                   | 226    | 477    | 80                    | 85     | 165    | 32              | 38     | 35     |
| Eastern             | 177                   | 187    | 364    | 94                    | 74     | 168    | 53              | 40     | 46     |
| Northern            | 176                   | 203    | 379    | 90                    | 47     | 137    | 51              | 23     | 36     |
| Western             | 251                   | 244    | 496    | 98                    | 86     | 184    | 39              | 35     | 37     |
| Uganda              | 900                   | 907    | 1,807  | 378                   | 307    | 685    | 42              | 34     | 38     |

Source: Uganda Bureau of Statistics

19. Significant investment in education in recent years has led to important progress in raising children's school enrolment. The primary gross enrolment rate rose from 108 percent in 2005 to 113.1 percent in 2007, although it fell-off again slightly during the 2006-2007 period (Figure 5). The primary net enrolment rate rose from 53 percent in 1990 to 87 percent in 1995, but data from 1995 onwards are missing, and it is difficult to state that the gains in primary enrolment are the product of more

children entering school rather than children remaining in school longer once there. The primary completion rate dropped from 58 percent in 2000 to 56 percent in 2005, and the proportion of pupils reaching grade 5 dropped even more sharply over this period (from 57 percent in 2000 to 49 percent in 2005).<sup>24</sup> More recent data on primary education completion indicate that about two thirds of students leave the system prior to completing the seven grades of the primary cycle (Table 5).

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<sup>24</sup> EdStats, World Bank (<http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats>)



## 2. CHILDREN'S INVOLVEMENT IN WORK AND SCHOOLING

20. This section looks at the time use patterns of children in Uganda, focusing in particular on the extent of children's involvement in work and schooling. The analysis in this and the remaining sections is based on data from the 2005 Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS 2005-2006), a nationally representative household-based survey designed to study a variety of socio-economic characteristics. The survey contained a specific module on the work and other time uses of children aged 5-17 years, including children's involvement in economic activity and household chores, working hours, workplace hazards and ill health.

### 2.1 Involvement in economic activity and schooling

21. Children's involvement in work is common in Uganda. An estimated 38.3 percent of children aged 7-14 years, over 2.5 million children in absolute terms, were engaged in economic activity in the 2005-06 reference period (Table 6). Some 1.4 million of children under the age of 12 years<sup>25</sup> were engaged in economic activity, and 735,000 children aged less than 10 years were economically active. These very young child workers constitute a particular policy concern, as they are most vulnerable to workplace abuses, and most at risk of work-related ill-health or injury. They are also most affected by compromised education.

Table 6. Child activity status, by age group and sex, 2005/6 reference period

| Age group                 | Sex    |     | Involved in eco. activity only | Attending school only | Involved in eco. activity and attending school | Not involved in eco. activity and not in school | Total eco. active <sup>(i)</sup> | Total attending school <sup>(ii)</sup> |
|---------------------------|--------|-----|--------------------------------|-----------------------|--|---|----------------------------------|--|
| Children aged 7-14 years  | Male   | %   | 3.2                            | 55.5                  | 36.7   | 4.7   | 39.9                             | 92.2                                   |
|                           |        | No. | 103,755                        | 1,826,089             | 1,209,610                                      | 153,507   | 1,313,365                        | 3,035,699                              |
|                           | Female | %   | 2.8                            | 58.7                  | 33.8   | 4.7   | 36.6                             | 92.5                                   |
|                           |        | No. | 89,862                         | 1,909,891             | 1,100,729                                      | 154,015   | 1,190,591                        | 3,010,620                              |
|                           | Total  | %   | 3.0                            | 57.1                  | 35.3   | 4.7   | 38.3                             | 92.4                                   |
|                           |        | No. | 193,616                        | 3,735,980             | 2,310,339                                      | 307,522   | 2,503,955                        | 6,046,319                              |
| Children aged 15-17 years | Male   | %   | 20.2                           | 33.4                  | 43.7   | 2.7   | 63.9                             | 77.1                                   |
|                           |        | No. | 178,768                        | 295,786               | 386,728  | 23,525.50                                       | 565,496                          | 682,514                                |
|                           | Female | %   | 21.3                           | 33.1                  | 40.8   | 4.8   | 62.2                             | 73.9                                   |
|                           |        | No. | 182,859                        | 283,234               | 349,758  | 41,088.70                                       | 532,617                          | 632,992                                |
|                           | Total  | %   | 20.8                           | 33.2                  | 42.3   | 3.7   | 63                               | 75.5                                   |
|                           |        | No. | 361,626                        | 579,019               | 736,486  | 64,614  | 1,098,112                        | 1,315,505                              |

Notes: (i) Regardless of school attendance status; (ii) Regardless of economic activity status. A child is considered to be economically active if he or she spent at least one hour per week in work for "payment/non-payment, profit, family gain or own final use of consumption" or "did not work but had a job with assurance for returning." See survey questionnaire in Annex 2: Form 1, page 9 of 12, Q7.1 and Q7.2.

Source: UCW calculations based on UNHS 2005/06

<sup>25</sup> The absolute minimum working age specified by the country upon ratification of ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) in 1976

Table 7. Child activity status, by age group and residence, 2005/6 reference period

| Age group                 | Sex   |     | Involved in eco. activity only | Attending school only | Involved in eco. activity and attending school | Not involved in eco. activity and not in school | Total eco. active <sup>(i)</sup> | Total attending school <sup>(ii)</sup> |
|---------------------------|-------|-----|--------------------------------|-----------------------|--|---|----------------------------------|--|
| Children aged 7-14 years  | Urban | %   | 1.8                            | 80.2                  | 13.4   | 4.6   | 15.3                             | 93.6                                   |
|                           |       | No. | 15,804                         | 701,080               | 117,503  | 39,865  | 133,307                          | 818,583                                |
|                           | Rural | %   | 3.1                            | 53.5                  | 38.7   | 4.7   | 41.8                             | 92.2                                   |
|                           |       | No. | 177,812                        | 3,034,900             | 2,192,836                                      | 267,657   | 2,370,648                        | 5,227,736                              |
|                           | Total | %   | 3.0                            | 57.1                  | 35.3   | 4.7   | 38.3                             | 92.4                                   |
|                           |       | No. | 193,616                        | 3,735,980             | 2,310,339                                      | 307,522   | 2,503,955                        | 6,046,319                              |
| Children aged 15-17 years | Urban | %   | 18.9                           | 54.3                  | 17.3   | 9.5   | 36.2                             | 71.6                                   |
|                           |       | No. | 51,814                         | 148,533               | 47,389   | 26,041  | 99,204                           | 195,922                                |
|                           | Rural | %   | 21.1                           | 29.3                  | 46.9   | 2.6   | 68.0                             | 76.3                                   |
|                           |       | No. | 309,812                        | 430,486               | 689,097  | 38,574  | 998,909                          | 1,119,583                              |
|                           | Total | %   | 20.8                           | 33.2                  | 42.3   | 3.7   | 63.0                             | 75.5                                   |
|                           |       | No. | 361,626                        | 579,019               | 736,486  | 64,614  | 1,098,112                        | 1,315,505                              |

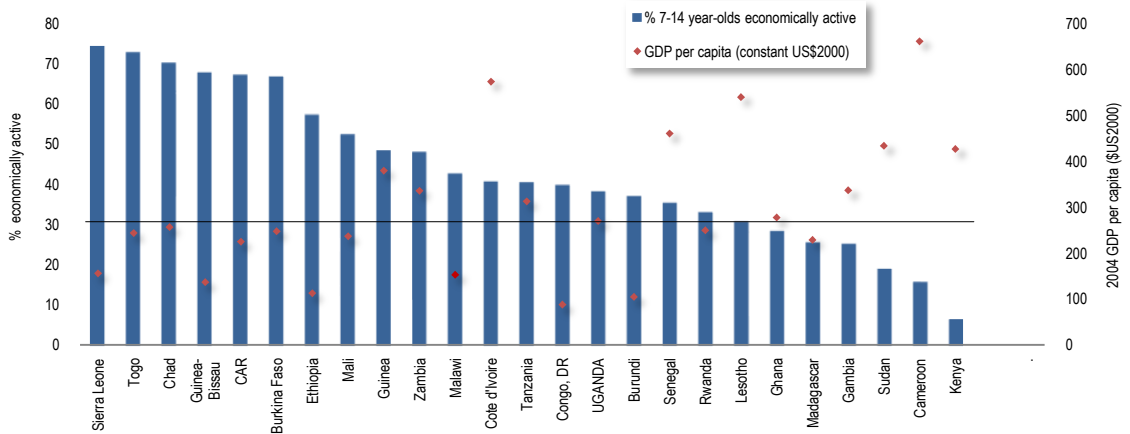
Notes: See Table 6.

Source: UCW calculations based on UNHS 2005/06

22. Uganda's level of child economic activity places it in the mid-range of countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa region where data are available (Figure 7).<sup>26</sup> Four of the 10 countries achieving lower levels of children's work than Uganda have done so with similar or lower levels of per capita income. The existence of countries doing better with the same or fewer resources underscores the significant scope for policy intervention against child labour in the Ugandan context. Most of the countries with higher levels of child economic activity, on the other hand, have lower levels of per capita income.

<sup>26</sup> However, as survey methodologies and exact reference periods differ, such cross-country comparisons are indicative only.

Figure 7. Child involvement in economic activity and per capita income, Uganda and selected comparator countries

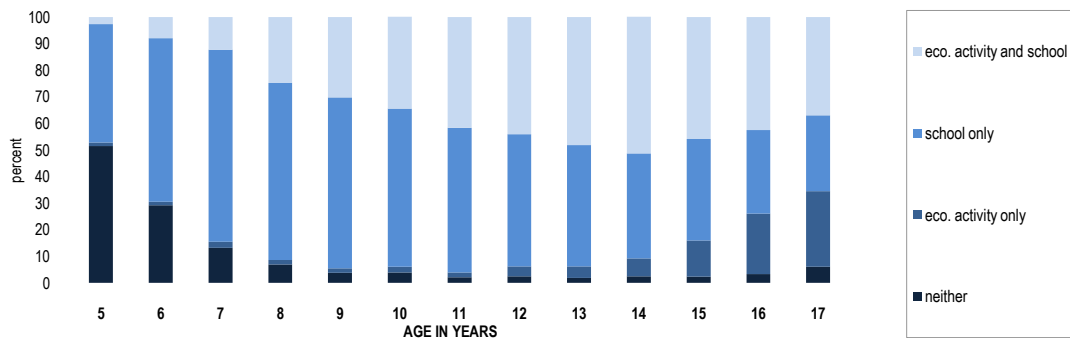


Notes: Estimates of child economic activity relate to different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments; cross-country comparisons are therefore indicative only.

Sources: (1) GDP per capita estimates: World Development Indicators. (2) Child involvement in economic activity: UCW calculations based on (a) National Household Survey 2005-2006 (Uganda); Labour Force Survey 2005 (Uganda); Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2000 (Sierra Leone, Togo, Chad, Guinea-Bissau, CAR, Guinea, Cote D'Ivoire, Congo DR, Burundi, Senegal, Rwanda, Lesotho, Gambia, Sudan); (b) Enquête prioritaire 1998 (Burkina Faso); (c) Child Labour Force Survey 2001 (Ethiopia); (d) SIMPOC Child Labour Survey 2000 (Ghana); (e) Enquête prioritaire auprès des ménages 2001 (Madagascar); (f) Demographic and Health Survey 2001 (Mali); (g) Enquête camerounaise auprès des ménages II 2001(Cameroon); (h) Demographic and Health Survey 2004 (Malawi); (i) SIMPOC Integrated Labour Force Survey 1999 (Kenya)

23. Most Ugandan working children are also students. Indeed, 92 percent of working children aged 7-14 years are also in school, roughly the same proportion as that of non-working children. But evidence presented later on in this report suggests that work involvement does present a barrier to proceeding in schooling beyond the primary level. Children’s levels of educational attainment and literacy are also generally low, at least in part due to the exigencies of work. Almost 2.5 percent of 9-17 year-olds, over 165,000 in absolute terms, has never attended school. A further 422,000 out-of-school children from this age group did not complete the primary education level. These figures underscore the need for “second chance” learning opportunities designed to impart basic skills and knowledge of relevance to the job market and community life.

Figure 8. Child activity status, by child age



Notes: (1) “Economically active” refers to all children in economic activity, regardless of school status; (2) “Attending school” refers to all children attending school, regardless of work status.

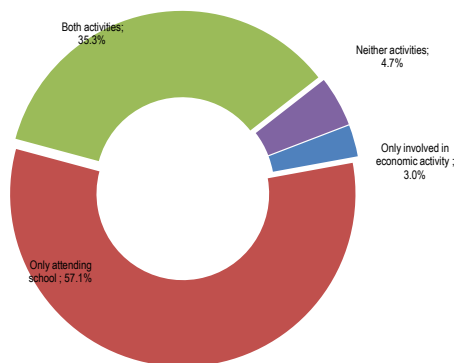
Source: UCW calculations based on UNHS 2005/06.

24. Many Ugandan children start working at a very early age and enter school late, both with adverse consequences for their development. Figure 8 illustrates children's "transitions" from inactivity to school and work during the period from age 5-17 years. At age six, the first year of primary schooling, only 69 percent of children are enrolled in school, primarily the product of late entry. School attendance rises (i.e., late entrants exceed early drop-outs) for subsequent age cohorts, peaking at 96 percent at age 11 years, one year prior to the formal end of the primary cycle. Thereafter, attendance slowly declines as children begin leaving school and taking on full-time work responsibilities. The proportion of children studying exclusively, unhindered by the exigencies of work, peaks at the age of nine, at 64 percent.

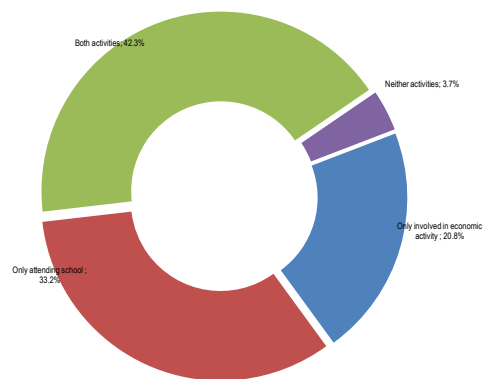
25. About 15 percent of children are already economically active at age seven years, and over half of all children are economically active by the age of 13 years. Involvement in economic activity reaches 57 percent at age 14 years, still well below the share of children in school at this age. Schooling also predominates over work among older, 15-17 year-old children; 75 percent of this age group is still in school while 63 percent is economically active (Figure 9). Once in school, then, most children appear to stay there well beyond the primary level. Levels of child "inactivity" are high among young pre-school-aged children but decline steadily across the 5-14 years age spectrum. At age 15, only two percent of children are neither in school nor engaged in economic activity. Beyond age 15, inactivity begins to slowly rise again, as more children assume full-time domestic responsibilities within their own households (Figure 8).

Figure 9. Distribution of children by activity category, 7-14 and 15-17 years age groups

(a) 7-14 year-olds



(b) 15-17 year-olds



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

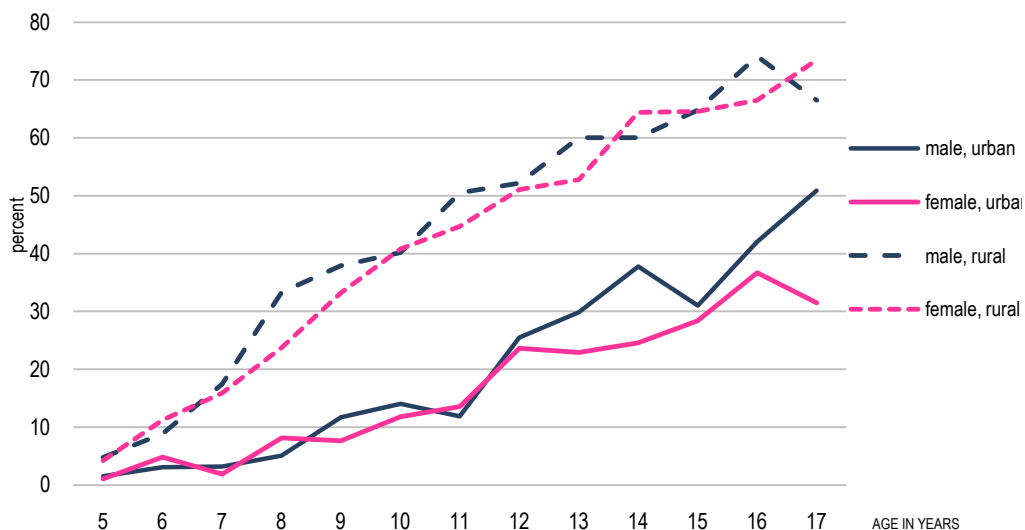
26. Another way of viewing children's involvement in work and schooling is by disaggregating the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups – children only engaged in economic activity, children only attending school, children combining school and economic activity and children doing neither. This disaggregation shows that 35 percent of all 7-14 year-olds work and attend school at the same time, while only 3 percent work in economic activity without also going to

school. A further 57 percent of all children aged 7-14 only attend school, while the remaining 12 percent of 7-14 year-olds is “inactive”, i.e., not involved in economic activity or in schooling (Figure 9). Activity patterns differ somewhat for older, 15-17 year-old children: a greater share is in full-time economic activity and a smaller share is in full-time schooling compared to their younger counterparts (Figure 9).

## 2.2 Gender-based differences in involvement in economic activity

27. There is surprisingly little difference in the time use patterns of boys and girls in rural or urban areas. The share of boys and girls aged 7-14 years in economic activity and in school (and in both and in neither) varies little. Other indicators also suggest that the gender plays a relatively minor role in the child labour phenomenon in Uganda. As discussed below, working girls and boys differ little in terms of the nature of their economic activities (i.e., work sector and work modality), although boys appear to spend more time on average in economic activity. Slight differences by sex emerge among older, 15-17 year-old children in terms of school enrolment (favouring boys) but not in terms of involvement in economic activity (Figure 10).

Figure 10. Children's involvement in economic activity, by age, sex and residence



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS 2005/06.

## 2.3 Geographical differences in involvement in economic activity

28. Children living in urban areas are considerably less likely than their rural counterparts to engage in economic activity, at every age and for both sexes (Figure 10). Fifteen percent of urban 7-14 year-olds are engaged in economic activity, only about one-third the level of rural children from the same age group. Children's rates of school attendance differ little between rural and urban areas, but urban children are much less likely to have to combine school and work: only 13 percent of urban children are working students compared to 39 percent of rural children.

29. There are also important geographical differences in terms of children's



## 2.4 Orphanhood and involvement in economic activity

31. Orphans represent one of the most vulnerable groups in Uganda and are recognized in both the Policy on Orphans and other Vulnerable Children and the National Strategic Plan on OVC.<sup>27</sup> A large proportion of Ugandan children must grow up in the absence of one or both biological parents. In all, nearly eight percent of children aged 7-14 years of age, 0.5 million in absolute terms, are either “single” (i.e., one parent deceased) orphans and about five percent, 300,000 in absolute term, are “double” (i.e., both parents deceased) orphans (Table 9). An additional 13 percent of children in this age group live separately from their parents. The child orphan phenomenon is closely linked to the HIV/AIDS crisis. Uganda was one of the very first countries in Sub Sahara Africa to have experienced the social and economic impact of HIV/AIDS. Statistics from the Uganda National Household Survey 2002/03 indicate that HIV/AIDS was the cause of orphanhood in 28 percent of all cases, with important variation by region (Table 10).

Table 9. Orphanhood status, children aged 7-14 years, by residence and sex

| Residence and sex |        | Non-orphans                        |                        |                                     | Single orphans  |                 | Double orphan |
|-------------------|--------|------------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|
|                   |        | Living with parents <sup>(a)</sup> | Living with one parent | Living separately from both parents | Maternal orphan | Paternal orphan |               |
| Residence         | Urban  | 44.6                               | 19.5                   | 13.1                                | 1.6             | 6.8             | 6.2           |
|                   | Rural  | 54.2                               | 13.7                   | 13.2                                | 1.9             | 6.4             | 4.6           |
| Sex               | Male   | 54.2                               | 15.0                   | 11.8                                | 2.1             | 6.6             | 4.5           |
|                   | Female | 51.6                               | 14.0                   | 14.5                                | 1.6             | 6.4             | 5.1           |
| Total             |        | 52.9                               | 14.5                   | 13.2                                | 1.8             | 6.5             | 4.8           |

Notes: (a) Both parents are alive and at least one parent lives in the household with child; (b) Both biological parents are alive, but neither mother nor father lives in the household with child

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS 2005/06

Table 10. Percentage distribution of orphaned children aged 5-17 by background characteristics and whether orphaned by HIV/AIDS

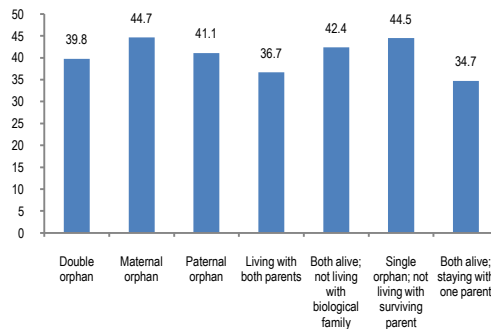
| Background characteristic |          | Not orphaned by HIV/AIDS | Orphaned by HIV/AIDS | Total |
|---------------------------|----------|--------------------------|----------------------|-------|
| Sex                       | Male     | 71.8                     | 28.2                 | 100   |
|                           | Female   | 72.9                     | 27.1                 | 100   |
| Residence                 | Rural    | 73.0                     | 27.0                 | 100   |
|                           | Urban    | 69.4                     | 30.6                 | 100   |
| Region                    | Central  | 59.8                     | 40.2                 | 100   |
|                           | Eastern  | 78.6                     | 21.4                 | 100   |
|                           | Northern | 84.6                     | 15.4                 | 100   |
|                           | Western  | 73.2                     | 26.8                 | 100   |
| Age                       | 5-9      | 76.9                     | 23.1                 | 100   |
|                           | 10-14    | 68.4                     | 31.6                 | 100   |
|                           | 15-17    | 71.0                     | 29.0                 | 100   |
| Total                     |          | 72.4                     | 27.6                 | 100   |

Source: UBOS calculations based on Uganda NHS 2002/03

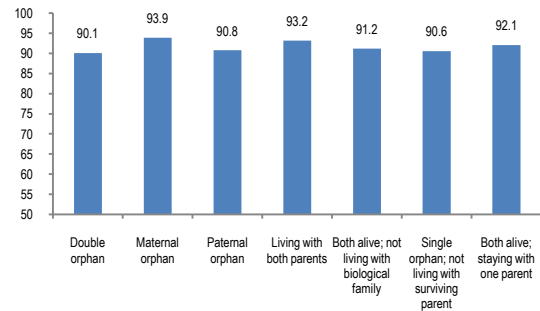
<sup>27</sup> Uganda National Household Survey 2005-2006-report on the Socio-Economic module. UBOS, Kampala

Figure 12. Children's activity by orphanhood status

(a) Children engaged in economic activity



(b) Children in school



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS 2005/06

32. The large proportion of Ugandan children that have lost one or both of their parents raises the question of what impact orphanhood has on children's time use. Rates of child economic activity are higher among double, paternal and particularly maternal orphans compared to children living with both parents, but patterns relating to orphanhood and schooling are more difficult to discern (Figure 12). It is important to note that NHS 2005/06 did not collect information on street children or other unconditional worst forms of child labour, where worst-off orphans are found, meaning the link between orphanhood and economic activity emerging from the NHS 2005/06 descriptive data may be understated. Correlations between orphanhood and children's activities may also be obscured by underlying confounding factors such as household income. *Causal* links between orphanhood, child labour and schooling are taken up in Section 7 of this report.

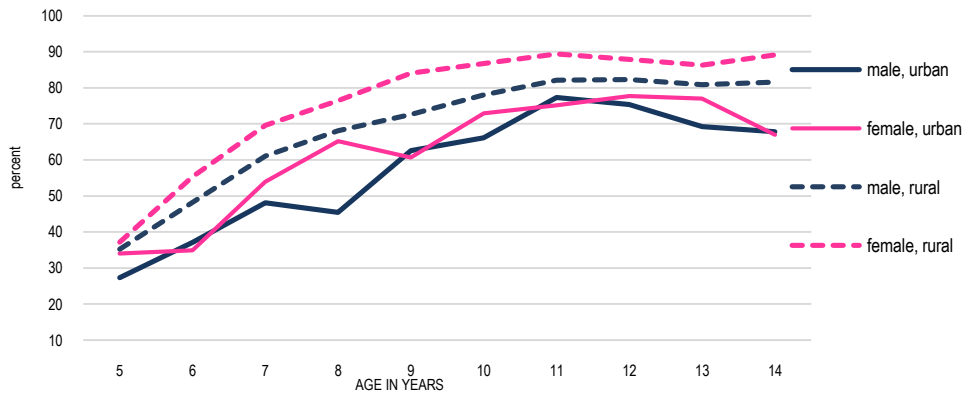
## 2.5 Involvement in non-economic productive activity (Care Labour)

33. Economic activity is not the only form of work that children can perform. An even larger proportion of children are engaged in non-economic activities, and specifically household chores. This form of work falls outside the international System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary and is typically excluded from published estimates of child labour (the technical distinction between economic and non-economic activity is discussed further in Box 2 on terminology). An estimated 78 percent of 7-14 year-olds was engaged in housekeeping activities or household chores in own parents' or guardians home during the 2005-06 reference year.<sup>28</sup> Involvement in household chores tends to start at an earlier age than economic activity and is very time-intensive, as discussed below. Girls are much more likely to perform household chores than boys, and ignoring this form of work therefore biases estimates of children's work in "favour" of boys (Figure 13). Performing household chores is also more common among rural children than among children living in cities and towns.

<sup>28</sup> UNHS 2005-06 only identify children involved in the following four activities: fetching water; collecting firewood; cooking for the household; taking care of children and the elderly



Figure 13. Children’s involvement in household chores, by age, sex and place of residence

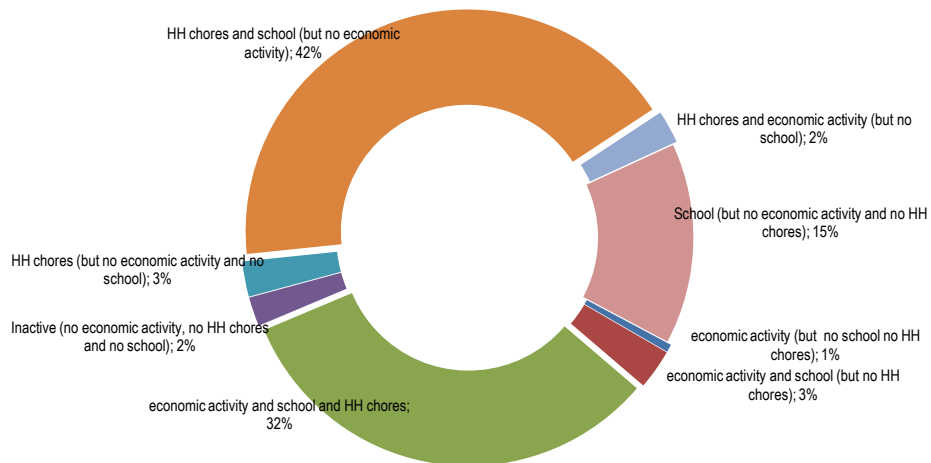


Source: UCW calculations based on UNHS 2005/06.

## 2.6 Children’s total involvement in work

34. Considering household chores adds another layer of complexity to the discussion of children’s time use, as children may perform chores in combination with school, economic activity or with both. This more complex – but also more complete – picture of children’s activities is depicted in Figure 14. The most striking finding when children’s activities are looked at in this way is the high percentage of children performing economic activity and household chores *and* attending school. Almost one-third of all 7-14 years combine these three activities, with obvious consequences on their time for study, rest and leisure. An additional 2.4 percent of children perform double work duty (i.e., economic activity and household chores) without attending school. Only 15 percent of children are able to attend school unencumbered by any form of work responsibilities, while a large percentage (42 percent) combine school and household chores. About two percent of Ugandan children are apparently completely inactive, i.e., not attending school or performing any form of work.

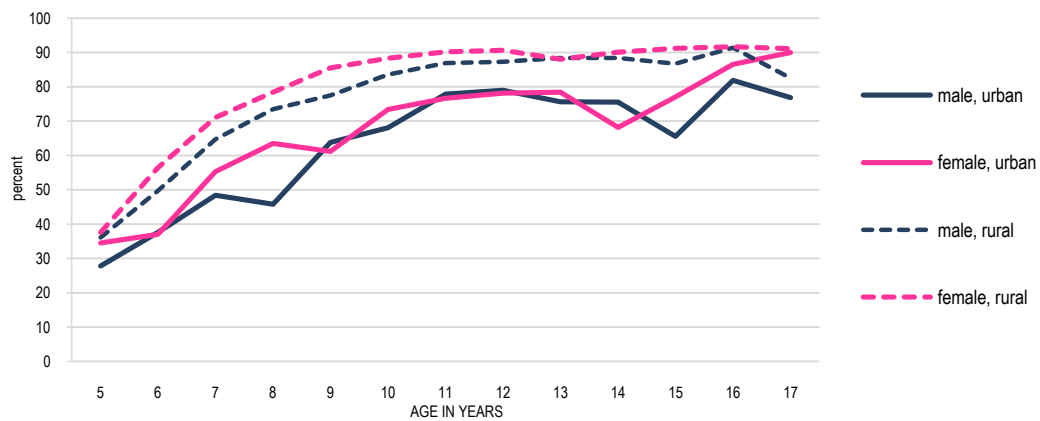
Figure 14. Distribution of 7-14 year-olds by activity category, including involvement in household chores



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

35. Children's involvement in economic and non-economic activities needs to be combined for a measure of children's total participation in work. Developing such a combined measure, however, is not straightforward, as it requires decisions concerning how a unit of time in non-economic activity should be weighted vis-à-vis a unit of time in economic activity. This remains an area of some debate, as underlying it is the question of whether housework has similar implications on child welfare as work in economic activity.<sup>29</sup>

Figure 15. Children's total work involvement, by age, sex and place of residence<sup>(1)</sup>



Note. (1) Total work=children in economic activity, children in household chores (including water and firewood collection), and children combining economic activity and household chores

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS 2005/06.

36. Figure 15 provides estimates of children's total involvement in work by simply combining involvement in economic activity and household chores as defined in the UNHS 2005-06 survey questionnaire, i.e., children performing some form of economic activity during the week prior to the survey and/or some time on household chores in the week prior to the survey. Eighty-three percent of Ugandan 7-14 year-olds, 5.4 million in absolute terms, was involved in some form of work using this measure in the 2005-06 reference period. Girls' work involvement using this combined measure exceeds that of boys at almost every age and in both rural and urban areas. This again underscores that using economic activity alone as the measure of work understates girls' work involvement relative to boy's work involvement.

<sup>29</sup> In line with the international definition of employment, one hour spent on economic activity during the reference week is widely used as the threshold for classifying a child as economically active. But, a similar statistical standard for housework unfortunately does not yet exist. As housework is very common for both boys and girls, and some housework is considered a normal and even beneficial part of childhood in most cultures, the one hour per week threshold would seem too low for measuring housework involvement. But further research is needed on how time on housework affects health and education outcomes in order to determine what the appropriate time threshold should be.

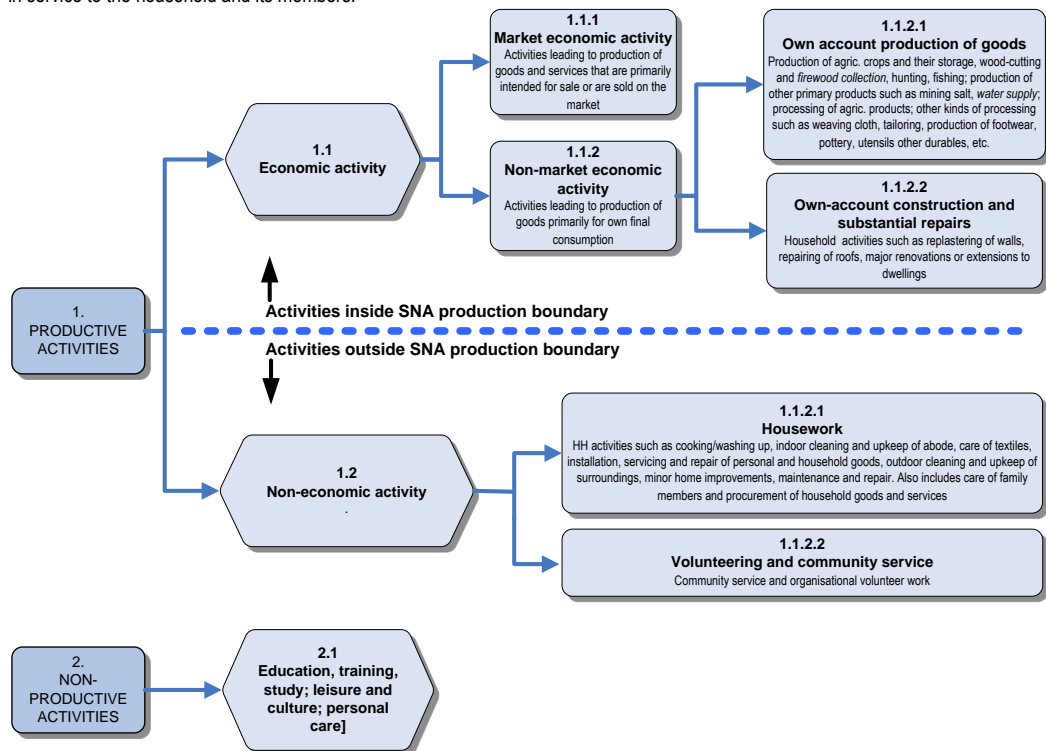
### 3. CHILD LABOUR

37. This section looks at the extent to which children’s work constitutes “child labour”, i.e., the extent to which work is injurious, negative or undesirable to children,<sup>30</sup> information critical for policy design and targeting purposes. Estimates of child labour are presented based to the extent possible on national child labour legislation.

**Box 2. Children’s work and child labour: a note on terminology**

Terminology and concepts used for categorising children’s work and child labour (and in distinguishing between the two) are inconsistent in published statistics and research reports, frequently creating confusion and complicating cross-country and longitudinal comparisons. In this study, “children’s work”, is used broadly to refer to all productive activities performed by children. Productive activities, in turn, are defined as all activities falling within the general production boundary, i.e., all activities whose performance can be delegated to another person with the same desired results. This includes production of all goods and the provision of services to others within or outside the individual’s household.

The study distinguishes between two broad categories of children’s work – economic activity and non-economic activity. The definition of “economic activity” used in the study derives from the System of National Accounts (SNA) (rev. 1993), the conceptual framework that sets the international statistical standards for the measurement of the market economy. It covers all market production and certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. “Non-economic activity” is defined as any productive activity falling outside the SNA production boundary. It consists mainly of work activities performed by household members in service to the household and its members.



The term “child labour” is used to refer to the subset of children’s work that is injurious, negative or undesirable to children and that should be targeted for elimination. It can be either economic or non-economic in nature, though most published estimates refer only to the former. Three main international legal standards – the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) and ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) – provide the legal definition of child labour and a framework for efforts against it. There is not an agreed international statistical definition of child labour, as child labour is defined by national legislation within the framework of the international legal standards.

<sup>30</sup> 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.

38. Child labour legislation falls directly under the administration of the Ministry of Gender, Labour, and Social Development. The major labour laws are the Employment Act 2006, No. 6 and the Occupational Safety and Health Act No. 9, 2006. Section 32

39. (4) of the Employment Act (2006) prohibits the employment of children in any work that is injurious to the child’s health, dangerous or hazardous or otherwise unsuitable. Section 32 (1) of the Act states that “... a child under the age of 12 years shall not be employed in any business, undertaking or workplace.” Clause (2) of Section 32 states that “... a child under the age of 14 years shall not be employed in any business, undertaking or workplace, except for light work carried out under the supervision of an adult aged over 18 years, and which does not affect the child’s education.” The Occupational Safety and Health Act No. 9, 2006, provides for the inspection of work places, identification of hazards at the work place and other connected matters.

Figure 16. Distinction between child labour and other forms of child work

| AGE GROUPS  | FORMS OF WORK  |                               |   |
|-------------|--|-------------------------------|---|
|             | Non-hazardous work<br>(in non-hazardous industries and occupations<br>and not for excessive hours) |                               | Hazardous work (in specified hazardous<br>industries and occupations) or excessive<br>hours |
|             | Light work   | Regular<br>("non-light") work |   |
| 5-11 years  | CHILD LABOUR<br>TO BE ELIMINATED   |                               |   |
| 12-13 years | PERMITTED<br>FORMS OF<br>WORK  |                               |   |
| 14-17 years |  |                               |   |

Source: ILO/IPEC

40. Therefore, for an estimate of child labour in accordance with national legislation, it is necessary to look at all at-work 5-11 year-olds, all at-work 12-13 year-olds except those in light work, and all 14-17 year olds in hazardous work or working excessive hours (Figure 16).<sup>31</sup> Child labour based on these criteria is common in

<sup>31</sup> A draft list of hazardous forms of labour was compiled following the adoption of the National Labour Policy in 2006. However, owing to data difficulties, the operational definition of hazardous work adopted by ILO/IPEC in its global estimates on child labour is utilised in the calculation of hazardous work presented in Table 11 above (Every child counts, new global estimate on child labour, ILO, Geneva, April 2002.)

Uganda. Over 1.4 million children below the absolute minimum working age of 12 years are engaged in economic activity. An additional 238,000 (12-13 year-old) children in non-light economic activity are below the minimum age for this type of work.<sup>32</sup> Almost five percent of children aged 14-17 years are working in some hazardous forms of work or are working excessive hours. Putting these groups together yields an estimate of over 1.76 million 5-17 year-olds in child labour, 17 percent of this age group (Table 11). It should be stressed that this is a lower bound estimate, as it does not include involvement in the “unconditional worst forms” (Details annex II) of child labour such as child trafficking (0). This child labour estimate also does not include children in non-economic activity, as there remains disagreement about whether non-economic activity should be considered in child labour estimates, and, if so, beyond what time threshold (Box 4).

Table 11. Lower-bound estimate of child labour involvement

| Sex    | (a)<br>children aged 5-11<br>years in economic<br>activity |           | (b)<br>children aged 12-13<br>years in economic<br>activity <i>excluding</i><br>those in light<br>economic activity <sup>(i)</sup> |         | (a)&(b)<br>Total in child labour,<br>5-13 years |           | (c)<br>Children aged 14-17<br>years in hazardous<br>work or working<br>excessive hours <sup>(ii)</sup> |         | (a)&(b)&(c)<br>Total in child labour,<br>5-17 years <sup>(iii)</sup> |           |
|--------|--|-----------|--|---------|---|-----------|--|---------|--|-----------|
|        | % of total<br>age group                                    | No.       | % of total<br>age group  | No.     | % of total<br>age group                         | No.       | % of total<br>age group  | No.     | % of total<br>age group  | No.       |
| Male   | 24.3   | 744,377   | 17.8   | 147,818 | 22.9  | 892,195   | 6.0  | 73,805  | 18.9   | 966,000   |
| Female | 21.8   | 665,985   | 11.1   | 90,371  | 19.5  | 756,356   | 3.5  | 42,095  | 15.7   | 798,451   |
| Total  | 23   | 1,410,362 | 14.5   | 238,189 | 21.2  | 1,648,551 | 4.8  | 115,900 | 17.3   | 1,764,451 |

Notes: (i) National child labour legislation allows light work for 12-13 year-olds. The definition of “non-light” work used in ILO/IPEC global estimates (i.e., work equal to or exceeding 14 hours per week) in addition to work less than this time threshold in hazardous sectors, is therefore used in the calculation included in column B. (ii) Includes 14-17 year-olds in hazardous industries and occupations, and those working 43 or more hours per week. Hazardous work is identified following the procedure used in the ILO/IPEC Global Estimates. Hazardous industries in ILO/IPEC draft list are: mining, quarrying and construction. Exclusive of children also in hazardous industries. Hazardous occupations in ILO/IPEC draft list are: optical and elect equip operators; health associated professional; nursing midwife; protective services; forestry and related workers; fishery, hunters and trappers; miners, shot fires, stone cutters and carvers; building frame and related workers; building finishers; metal moulders, welders, and related workers; blacksmith, tool makers and related workers; machinery mechanics and fitters; electrical and electronic equip mechanics and fitters; precision workers in metal; potters, glass makers and related workers; mining and mineral processing plant operators; metal processing plant op.; glass, ceramics and related plant op.; wood processing & papermaking plant op.; chemical processing plant op.; power production and related plant operators; metal and mineral machine operators; chemical machine operators; rubber mach. op; wood products mach. op.; textile, fur, leather mach. op.; food mach. op.; assemblers; other mach. op.; motor vehicle driver; agric and other mobile plant op.; ships' deck crew and related workers; street vendors and related workers; shoe cleaning other street services; messengers, porters, doorkeepers, and related workers; garbage collectors and related workers; agric. fishery and related workers; mining and construction labourers; and transport and freight handlers. Exclusive of children in hazardous industries and/or in hazardous occupations, excessive hours defined as  $\geq 43$  hours per week (iii) Does not include children in unconditional worst forms.

Source: UCW calculation based on Uganda NHS 2005/06

<sup>32</sup> National child labour legislation allows light work for 12-13 year-olds. The definition of “non-light” work used in ILO/IPEC global estimates, i.e., work equal to or exceeding 14 hours per week, in addition to work less than this time threshold but in the nationally-identified hazardous sectors, is therefore used in the calculation included in this study. The 14-hours cut-off point is supported by ILO Convention No. 33, as well as research looking at the link between economic activity and schooling .

**Box 3. Child trafficking in Uganda**

According to the rapid assessment conducted by ILO/IPEC 2006, child trafficking was identified as one of the heinous human crimes, taking many forms in Uganda. The study identified that traffickers targets mainly children who have lost their parents and those living single in the city. The study showed that Traffickers were mostly relatives, peers and well-established individuals. Children are forcibly abducted even in non-war zone areas, others are tricked and a few move on their own. In some instances innocent children who move on their own fall into traps of traffickers when they move to other towns. The trafficked children are subjected to intolerable inhuman and degrading slavery activities including killing, smuggling drugs, drug conduit, sexual exploitation, without due regard to age and the circumstances these children are in. Currently, there is little information on child trafficking in Uganda to determine the magnitude of the problem.

The study also showed that cross border trafficking appeared to be increasing basing on several key informants who were interviewed, facilitated by the porous border point characterised with in and out flows of people, long distance drivers ferrying merchandise in and across borders, the uncontrolled lake Victoria fishing and ignorance among the community taking this to be a normal migration of people. Cross border trafficking was mainly driven by factors such as new employment opportunity, marriage proposals and the search for a better life. Uganda has a mixture of source, transit and destination in terms of cross border. Children who have been withdrawn usually suffer a myriad of psycho and social consequences including depression and trauma. Others are killed and will never see the relatives again.

Source: ILO/IPEC 2006

**Box 4. Non-economic activity and the estimation of child labour**

Non-economic activity also can adversely affect children's welfare, and could therefore also technically fall within the definitions of child labour set out in the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and ILO Convention No. 182. The question arises, however, of the appropriate time threshold for classifying non-economic activity as child labour. This, in turn, requires information on the relative impact of economic and non-economic activity on children's welfare (e.g., on their health, safety, and ability to attend and benefit from schooling). Data on work-related illness and injury in Uganda NHS 2005/06 were, however, insufficient to draw concrete conclusions concerning these issues.

**Table B1. Child labour among 5-13 year-olds, considering children in both economic and non-economic activity**

|     | Sex | (A)<br>% children aged 5-13 years in economic activity <i>excluding</i> those in light economic activity <sup>(1)</sup> | (B)<br>% children aged 5-13 years performing non-economic activity for >28 hours/week | (A+B)<br>% children aged 5-13 years in child labour <sup>(2)</sup> |
|-----|-----|---|---|--|
| %   | M   | 22.9  | 2.9   | 24.6   |
|     | F   | 19.5  | 8.3   | 25.8   |
|     | T   | 21.2  | 5.6   | 25.2   |
| No. | M   | 892,195   | 116,964   | 960,128  |
|     | F   | 756,356   | 335,685   | 1,002,552  |
|     | T   | 1,648,551   | 452,649   | 1,962,680  |

Notes: (1) Excluding 12-13 years in light economic activity in addition to work less than this time threshold in hazardous sectors. (2) The indicators presented in Table B1 do not explicitly deal with the group of children that combine HH chores and economic activity. A lower combined hours threshold for this group is needed, but further research is needed justify what this threshold should be.

Source: UCW calculation based on Uganda NHS 2005/06

Table B1 includes estimates of child labour incorporating non-economic activity performed beyond a weekly hours threshold of 28 hours. It indicates that incorporating non-economic activity beyond this threshold would have only a four percent upwards effect on child labour. This reflects the fact that (1) non-economic activity, is typically performed by female at high intensity levels and that (2) most children performing household chores intensively are not involved in economic activity.

## 4. CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN'S WORK

41. This section examines available data concerning the characteristics of children's work, and how these may differ by sex, age and residence. It looks in particular at two indicators - work sector and work modality – in an attempt to assess the degree to which there is specialisation among sub-groups in the occupations and jobs performed by children. This section also examines differences by sex in hours worked in economic activity and household chores. Hours worked are important indicators of work intensity, and provide insight into the possible health and educational consequences of work.

### 4.1 Types of work performed by children

42. Children's work is concentrated overwhelmingly in the agriculture sector. Indeed, almost 96 percent of total economically-active 7-14 year-olds work in agriculture, against three percent in services and just 1.3 percent in manufacturing. Within the agriculture sector, most working children are involved in the growing of cereals or other crops (89 percent) or in mixed farming (i.e., growing of crops and animal husbandry) (five percent). There is surprisingly little variation by age or sex in the economic activities performed by children. There are larger differences in the nature of children's economic activity by place of residence. While agricultural work accounts for almost all of children's economic activity in rural areas, working children in cities and towns are also found in the services sector and in manufacturing (Table 12).

Table 12. Sector and modality of child economic activity, by child age, sex and place of residence

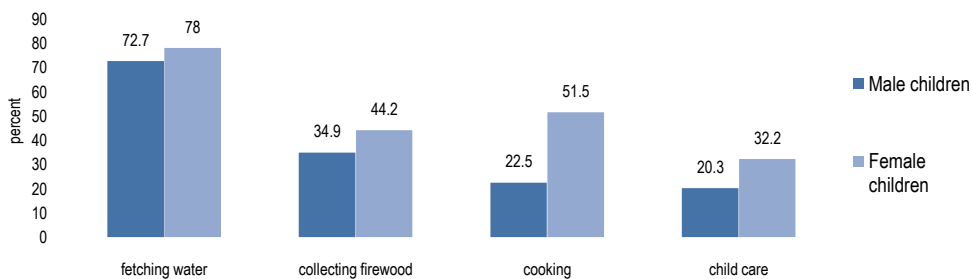
| Background characteristic |          | Sector      |           |          |       |       | Modality           |                      |               |       |
|---------------------------|----------|-------------|-----------|----------|-------|-------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------|-------|
|                           |          | Agriculture | Manufact. | Services | Other | Total | Own account worker | Unpaid family worker | Paid employee | Total |
| Total                     | 7-14     | 95.5        | 1.3       | 3.0      | 0.2   | 100.0 | 1.5                | 97.0                 | 1.5           | 100.0 |
|                           | 7 years  | 97.6        | 1.9       | 0.5      | 0.0   | 100.0 | 0.8                | 98.6                 | 0.6           | 100.0 |
| Age                       | 8 years  | 94.4        | 3.4       | 2.3      | 0.0   | 100.0 | 2.0                | 97.6                 | 0.4           | 100.0 |
|                           | 9 years  | 98.1        | 0.0       | 1.5      | 0.4   | 100.0 | 0.7                | 99.1                 | 0.2           | 100.0 |
|                           | 10 years | 97.2        | 0.6       | 1.9      | 0.3   | 100.0 | 1.1                | 97.3                 | 1.6           | 100.0 |
|                           | 11 years | 98.4        | 0.4       | 1.2      | 0.0   | 100.0 | 1.4                | 98.4                 | 0.3           | 100.0 |
|                           | 12 years | 94.4        | 0.9       | 4.7      | 0.0   | 100.0 | 1.7                | 96.9                 | 1.4           | 100.0 |
|                           | 13 years | 94.4        | 1.7       | 3.6      | 0.3   | 100.0 | 1.4                | 96.0                 | 2.6           | 100.0 |
|                           | 14 years | 92.0        | 2.5       | 5.2      | 0.3   | 100.0 | 2.1                | 94.7                 | 3.3           | 100.0 |
| Sex                       | Male     | 96.1        | 1.0       | 2.7      | 0.3   | 100.0 | 1.6                | 97.1                 | 1.4           | 100.0 |
|                           | Female   | 94.9        | 1.7       | 3.4      | 0.1   | 100.0 | 1.3                | 97.0                 | 1.7           | 100.0 |
| Residence                 | Urban    | 65.4        | 6.3       | 27.2     | 1.1   | 100.0 | 1.5                | 88.6                 | 10.0          | 100.0 |
|                           | Rural    | 97.1        | 1.1       | 1.7      | 0.1   | 100.0 | 1.5                | 97.5                 | 1.1           | 100.0 |

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS 2005/06

43. Almost all economically-active children work for their families as unpaid labour,

with little variation by age, place of residence or sex (Table 12). In all, 97 percent of child in economic activity work within the family. Most of the remaining economically active children are self-employed or are working as paid employees in formal entities (1.5 percent). Again, there is very little variation by age and sex, but some differences in work modality by rural or urban residence. Children living in urban areas are slightly less likely to work for their families, and slightly more likely to be involved in waged work and self employment, compared to their counterparts living in the countryside.

Figure 17. Main types of “non-economic” activities performed by children, by sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS 2005/06.

44. UNHS 2005-06 asked households about involvement in four types of household chores during the week preceding the survey. Responses, shown in Figure 17, indicate that water fetching is the most important type of household chore carried out by children.<sup>33</sup> However, collecting firewood, meal preparation and caring for younger siblings, are also commonly-performed forms of household chores. Gender considerations appear to play a role in the allocation of housework tasks; girls are more likely to be assigned responsibility in all four categories. Girls are also more likely to have to perform several chores simultaneously.

#### 4.1 Work intensity

45. Economic activity is typically very time intensive for Ugandan children. This is of particular concern because working hours are an important indicator of the likely harm caused by work involvement. Economically active children aged 7-11 years perform an average of almost 10 hours of economic activity each week. The subgroup that combines economic activity and schooling must log a similar number of hours (9.1), underscoring the additional constraint that work places on children's time for study. Work intensity increases with age, to 12.5 hours for the 12-14 years age range, and to 17 hours for the 15-17 years age range. Agricultural work is more time intensive than work in manufacturing but less time intensive than work in services, though the limited observations in the latter two sectors means that this comparison must be interpreted with caution (Table 13).

<sup>33</sup> It is worth noting that the technical classification of water fetching as an economic or non-economic activity remains an area of debate. A strict interpretation of the System of National Accounts (SNA) (rev. 1993) would place water fetching in the category of economic activity, and specifically own-account production (see Box 1 on terminology). However, in most published statistics on child economic activity and child labour, including ILO/IPEC global estimates, water fetching is not included as an economic activity.



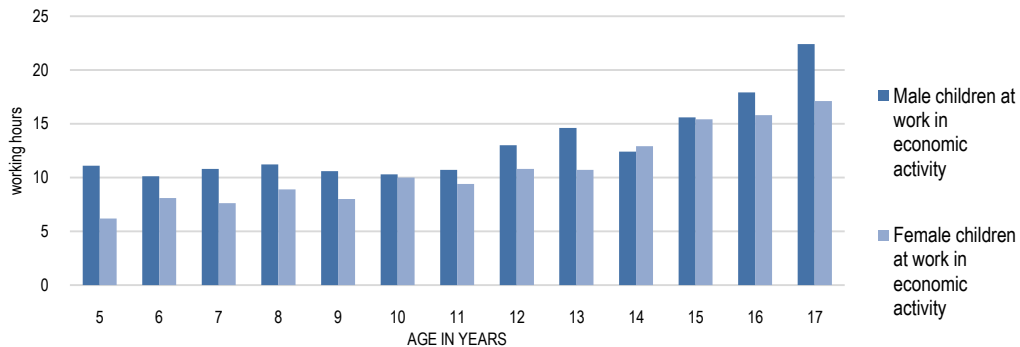
Table 13. Average weekly working hours by working status, age group, industry and modality

|          |                      | 7-11 years |                | 12-14 years |                | 15-17 years |                |
|----------|----------------------|------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|
|          |                      | Work only  | Work and study | Work only   | Work and study | Work only   | Work and study |
| Total    |                      | 21.1       | 9.1            | 24.7        | 11.2           | 27.6        | 12.4           |
| Sector   | Agriculture          | 21.4       | 9.0            | 21.6        | 11.0           | 22.5        | 11.7           |
|          | Manufacturing        | 14.5       | 11.6           | 8.1         | 19.6           | 46.4        | 23.9           |
|          | Services             | 18.6       | 14.8           | 46.2        | 12.3           | 55.0        | 36.3           |
| Modality | Self-employed        | 21.1       | 9.1            | 24.7        | 11.2           | 27.6        | 12.5           |
|          | Unpaid family worker | 17.5       | 10.5           | 19.5        | 19.0           | 32.8        | 17.5           |
|          | Paid employee        | 20.0       | 9.1            | 22.0        | 11.0           | 20.5        | 11.9           |

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

46. Paid employment and self-employment appear more time intensive than family work, but again data limitations mean that this comparison should be seen as only suggestive. Boys' work in economic activity is more time-intensive than that of girls across all ages (Figure 18).

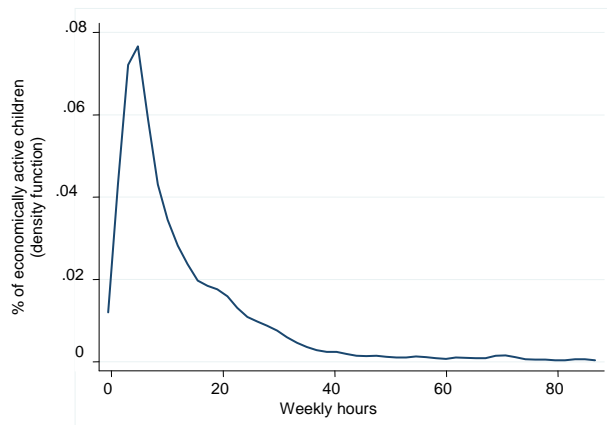
Figure 18. Average weekly working hours, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006.

47. The distribution of working children by weekly working hours indicates that while most working children are concentrated in the range of 10-15 hours per week, there is also a significant proportion of children in the "tail" of the distribution performing exceptionally long working hours, i.e., 30 or more hours per week (Figure 19). In absolute terms, 1.2 million children aged 7-11 years, 1.1 million children aged 12-14 years and 870,000 children aged 15-17 years log at least 30 hours of work per week. These are among the worst off working children, as their work responsibilities completely preclude their rights to schooling, study, leisure and adequate rest. Their prolonged exposure to workplace risks also undoubtedly increases their susceptibility to work-related sickness and injury, although data shortcomings make this difficult to demonstrate empirically. It is also worth recalling that these figures do not include time spent in household chores. If the non-economic activities that many children must perform were also considered, the numbers of children working beyond the 40 hours per week threshold would undoubtedly be much higher.

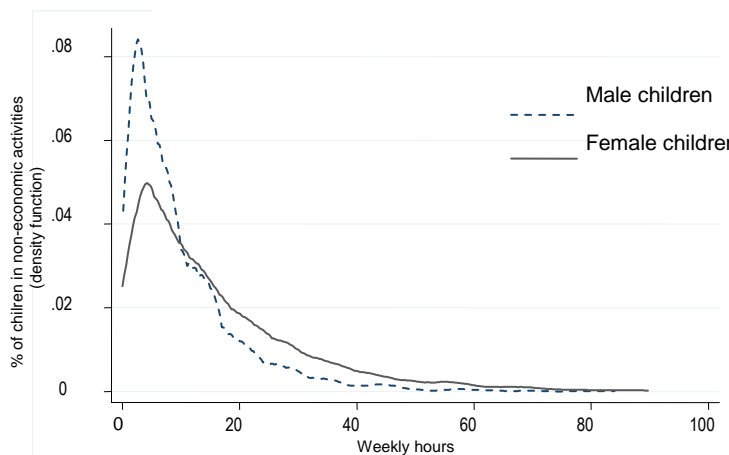
Figure 19. Distribution of economically active children aged 5-17 years by working hours change



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

48. Non-economic activity also appears very time intensive, especially for female children.<sup>34</sup> Over 12 percent of female children aged 5-17 years performing non-economic activity do so for at least 28 hours per week, and about eight percent do so for at least 35 hours per week.

Figure 20. Distribution of 5-17 year-olds performing non-economic activities, by weekly hours range and sex



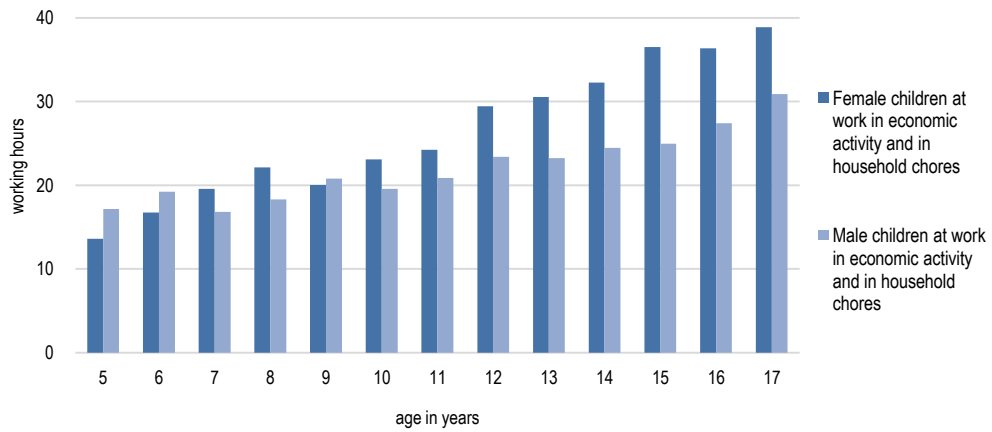
Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

49. As discussed above, children perform both economic activity and household chores in different combinations and therefore it is necessary to consider hours in economic activity and household chores together for a more complete picture of the

<sup>34</sup> However, UNHS 2005-06 recorded working hours only for four non-economic activities, meaning that estimates of hours spent in non-economic activity should be interpreted with caution.

time intensiveness of work (Figure 21). Particularly important in this context is the almost one-third of children performing double work duty, i.e., both household chores and economic activity simultaneously. Children aged 7-14 years from this group working an average of 18 hours per week on household chores put in an additional average of almost 10 hours per week on economic activity.

Figure 21. Average weekly hours of children performing economic activity and household chores, by age and sex



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

## 5. IMPACT OF WORK ON CHILDREN'S HEALTH AND EDUCATION

### 5.1 Children's work and health

50. Evidence relating to the health impact of work is limited in the Uganda context. UNHS 2005-06 contained general questions on the illness, but not on specific work-related illness and injury. These data on general illness suggest that children working in economic activity are actually healthier than children not involved in economic activity – even if the difference across activities is very small (Table 14).

Table 14. Children aged 7-14 with health problems, by activity status and sex

| Activity status  | Male | Female | Total |
|--|------|--------|-------|
| Involved in economic activity                              | 24.1 | 36.2   | 29.8  |
| Only attending school                                      | 31.5 | 30.4   | 31.0  |
| Involved in economic activity and attending school         | 29.9 | 31.3   | 30.6  |
| Not involved in economic activity and not attending school | 34.4 | 31.4   | 32.9  |
| Total  | 31.0 | 30.9   | 30.9  |

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

51. But these are findings that come up frequently in household surveys on children's work and are likely at least in part the product of measurement problems encountered when attempting to look at the work-health relationship. The health consequences of work, for example, may be obscured by the selection of the healthiest children for work, or by the fact that these health consequences may not become apparent until a later stage in a child's life. It must also be recalled that NHS 2005-06 did not capture unconditional worst forms of child labour, whose health consequences for children are undoubtedly most severe. More in-depth data are therefore needed before any concrete conclusions concerning the links between children's health and work can be drawn.

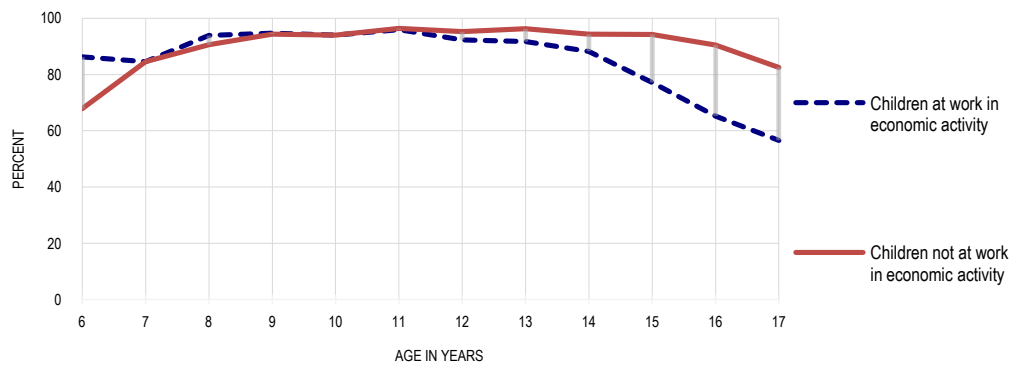
### 5.2 Children's work and education

52. Children's levels of educational attainment and literacy are generally low in Uganda, at least in part due to the exigencies of work. Almost 2.5 percent of 9-17 year-olds, over 165,000 in absolute terms, have never attended school. A further 422,000 out-of-school children from this age group did not complete the primary education level. These figures underscore the importance of expanding and accelerating on-going efforts in the area of remedial education. Children with little or no schooling will be in a weak position in the labour market and at much greater risk of joining the ranks of the unemployed and the poor. If left alone, these children and youth are likely to be in need of other (more costly) remediation policies at a later stage of their life cycle.

53. Involvement in work appears to interfere with children's ability to attend school, underscoring the importance of child labour as a barrier to achieving Education For All. As shown in Figure 22, the attendance of working children lags behind that of

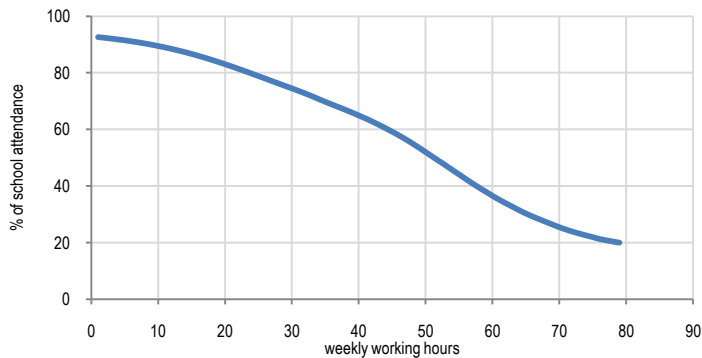
their non-working counterparts beyond the age of 11 years. The ability of working children to attend school appears to be conditioned somewhat by the sector in which they are found. Seventy-one percent of children in manufacturing attend school, against 47 percent in services and 86 percent in agriculture (not shown). Not surprisingly, it also depends on the time they must spend performing work. A simple Kernel regression illustrates that the likelihood of a working child attending school falls off sharply as the number of hours he or she must work each week increases (Figure 23). Working students do not, however, appear to lag behind their non-working counterparts in terms of grade progression (Figure 24).

Figure 22. School attendance rate, by children's work status and age



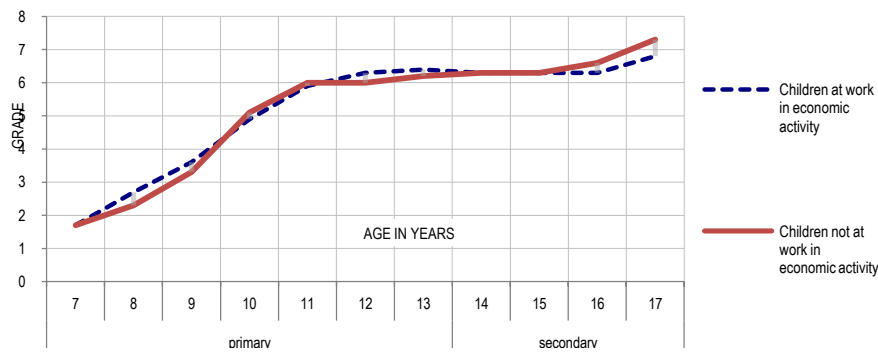
Source: UCW calculation based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

Figure 23. Work intensity and the probability of school attendance, Kernel regression results



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

Figure 24. Average grade completed of children currently attending school, by age and involvement in economic activity



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

54. School life expectancy provides another measure of children's ability to attend and persist in school.<sup>35</sup> Working students can expect to remain in education for fewer years at every age than non-working students; among children in their first year of the primary cycle, i.e., seven year-olds, the difference in school life expectancy is almost 2 years (Table 15). This again underscores the cost of child labour in terms of human capital development. Working children benefit from lesser time in school than other children, compromising their prospects for more gainful employment later in their lifecycles.

Table 15. School life expectancy, by children's involvement in economic activity and age

| Age | Children in Economic activity |        |       | Children not in economic activity |        |       | All children |
|-----|-------------------------------|--------|-------|-----------------------------------|--------|-------|--------------|
|     | Male                          | Female | Total | Male                              | Female | Total |              |
| 6   | 10.9                          | 10.6   | 10.8  | 12.6                              | 11.8   | 12.2  | 11.1         |
| 7   | 10.0                          | 9.8    | 9.9   | 11.9                              | 11.1   | 11.5  | 10.4         |
| 8   | 9.2                           | 8.9    | 9.0   | 11.1                              | 10.3   | 10.7  | 9.6          |
| 9   | 8.3                           | 7.9    | 8.1   | 10.2                              | 9.3    | 9.8   | 8.7          |
| 10  | 7.4                           | 7.0    | 7.2   | 9.2                               | 8.4    | 8.8   | 7.7          |
| 11  | 6.4                           | 6.0    | 6.2   | 8.3                               | 7.5    | 7.9   | 6.8          |
| 12  | 5.5                           | 5.1    | 5.3   | 7.3                               | 6.5    | 6.9   | 5.8          |
| 13  | 4.5                           | 4.2    | 4.3   | 6.4                               | 5.5    | 6.0   | 4.9          |
| 14  | 3.6                           | 3.3    | 3.4   | 5.4                               | 4.6    | 5.0   | 3.9          |
| 15  | 2.7                           | 2.4    | 2.5   | 4.4                               | 3.7    | 4.1   | 3.0          |
| 16  | 1.9                           | 1.6    | 1.8   | 3.5                               | 2.8    | 3.1   | 2.2          |

Source: UCW calculation based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

Note: the theoretical upper age limit of schooling is fixed at 19 years, the end of the upper secondary school

<sup>35</sup> School life expectancy (SLE) provides a measure of the total number of years of education that a child can expect to achieve in the future. Relatively higher school life expectancy indicates greater probability of spending more years in education, but expected number of years does not necessarily coincide with the expected number of grades of education completed, because of grade repetition. The formula of the SLE at an age  $a$  in year  $t$  is the following:

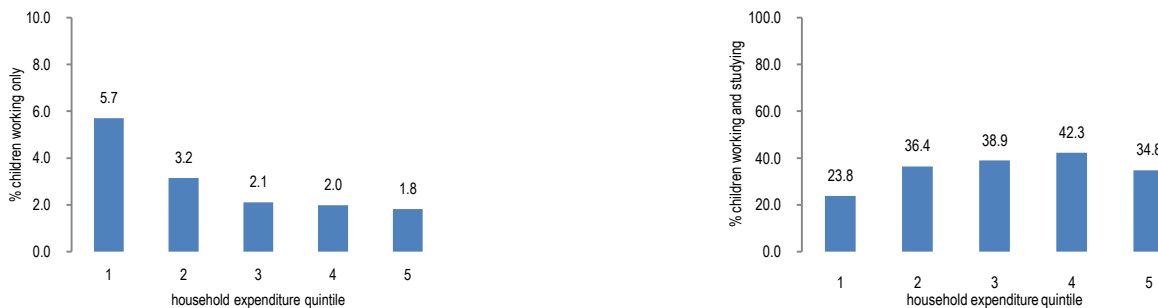
where:  $A_{it}$  is the school attendance rate of the population of age  $i$  ( $i=a, a+1, \dots, n$ ) in school year  $t$ ;  $n$  denote the theoretical upper age-limit of schooling;  $P_{it}$  is the population of age  $i$  in school-year  $t$ .

## 6. WHY CHILDREN WORK

55. 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 at home. This section makes use of both descriptive and econometric evidence from UNHS 2005-2006 to identify some of the factors influencing parents' decisions concerning their children's time use.

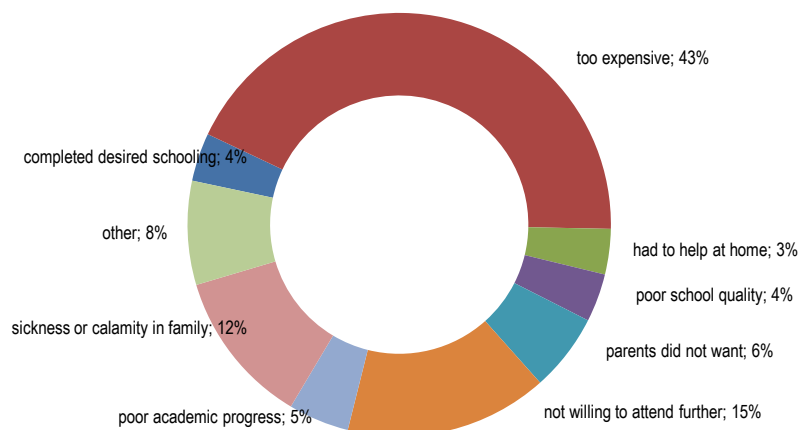
56. Descriptive evidence suggests that economic considerations play a major role in parents' decisions to involve their children in work. Simple correlations show a strong inverse relationship between household income, on the one hand, and child involvement in economic activity, on the other (Figure 25). This result underscores the fact that efforts to remove children from work are unlikely to be effective in the absence of accompanying efforts aimed at compensating parents for the wages or productivity they lose when their children no longer work. Families also commonly cite economic motives in explaining their decisions to keep their children from school: "too expensive" is mentioned in 43 percent of cases as the primary motive for a child not going to school (Figure 26).

Figure 25. Child involvement in economic activity by household expenditure quintile, age group 7-14



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

Figure 26. Distribution of out-of-school children by stated reason for not going



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

57. Multivariate analysis<sup>36</sup> permits a more precise identification of the factors influencing household decisions to involve their children in work or school. Detailed results of the analysis are provided in Table 20 in the annex to this report; some of the key qualitative inferences from the analysis are presented below.

58. *Child age and sex.* The analysis shows that the probability of a child working increases with age. The available information is insufficient to provide a precise idea of the relative importance of the two most probable reasons for this, i.e., the rising opportunity cost of schooling as a child grows older, or the lack of access to schooling at the post-primary level. Parents' decisions concerning whether to involve their children in school or work do not appear strongly influenced by gender considerations in Uganda. Holding constant household income, parents' education and other relevant factors, female are less likely to attend school than their male counterparts. It is worth noting, however, that these results do not extend to involvement in household chores, a variable not included in the multivariate analysis. The descriptive evidence presented above suggests that gender considerations are an important factor in the assignment of responsibility for chores in the household.

59. *Education of the parents.* The effect of an increase of parents' education levels on the reduction of child labour is strong and positive. Holding income constant and other factors constant, children from households where the father has basic education are almost one percentage points less likely to work full-time, and two percentage points more likely to attend school full-time, than children from households where the father is illiterate. Similar results when the education of the mother is taken into consideration. Raising the education of the parents from basic to higher education appears to have a similar impact on whether children work or attend school. The effect on the probability that a child will attend school full time is stronger as the level of education of the mother increases compared to the level of education of the father. It is worth reiterating that these results are obtained holding income constant, i.e., independent of any disguised income effect. Another possible explanation is that more educated parents might have a better knowledge of the returns to education, and/or be in a position to help their children exploit the earning potential acquired through education.

60. *Household income.* The level of household income appears to play an important role in decisions concerning children's work and schooling, even when controlling for exposure to shocks. For example, as the level of income increases by 10 percent, it will reduce the probability of a child working full-time in economic activity by 1.6 percentage points and raise the likelihood of him or her of combining work and school by more than five percentage points. The results again underscore that children's earnings or productivity play an important role in household survival strategies among low-income families, and point to the need for some form

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<sup>36</sup> A bivariate probit model was used to jointly determine the correlated decisions on child schooling and work. A simple economic model of household behaviour is used to guide the empirical specification. For detailed information on the model, see A.Cigno and F.C.Rosati, *The Economics of Child Labour*, OUP 2005. 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).



compensatory income or earnings schemes as part of a broader effort for encouraging school attendance and discouraging children's work among poor households.

**61. Exposure to shocks.** Natural disaster and socio-economic shocks are common in Uganda and their impact on children's involvement in work and schooling is therefore of considerable policy interest. Over 70 percent of 7-14 year-olds, 4.8 million children in absolute terms, belonged to a households experiencing some form of shock during the five year prior the survey. Drought was the most common type of shock; about 48 percent of children belonged to households hit by this type of shock, followed by floods and the death of household member, pest attack, civil strife and robbery, livestock epidemic, and other shocks (Table 16 and Figure 27). Shocks arising from the death of a household member, in turn, are closely related to the HIV/AIDS crisis afflicting the country (HIV/AIDS was not included in the UNHS 2005-2006 questionnaire as a separate category of shock).

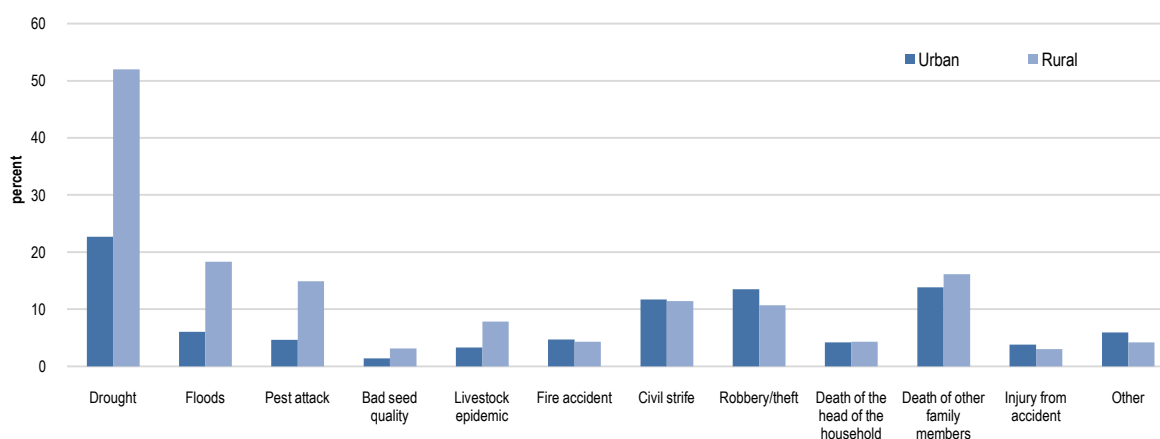
Table 16. Occurrence of shocks, children aged 7-14 years, by type of shock<sup>(a)</sup> and residence

|        |                         | Natural disaster | Epidemics | Social shocks | Family shocks | At least one shock |
|--------|-------------------------|------------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Sex    | Male                    | 51.4             | 18.4      | 21.4          | 21.4          | 70.1               |
|        | Female                  | 51.1             | 18.9      | 20.7          | 21.3          | 70.1               |
| Area   | Urban                   | 24.6             | 7.2       | 24.5          | 20.0          | 53.1               |
|        | Rural                   | 55.4             | 20.4      | 20.5          | 21.6          | 72.8               |
| Region | Central without Kampala | 39.0             | 20.0      | 12.5          | 23.1          | 60.8               |
|        | Eastern                 | 47.4             | 20.9      | 14.2          | 27.2          | 67.3               |
|        | Northern                | 67.3             | 22.0      | 53.6          | 13.6          | 88.9               |
|        | Western                 | 56.2             | 12.2      | 11.7          | 19.6          | 68.6               |
| Total  |                         | 51.3             | 18.6      | 21.1          | 21.4          | 70.1               |

Notes: (a) Shocks are defined as follows: 1. Natural disaster: occurrence of drought, floods; 2. Epidemics: pest attack, bad seed quality, livestock epidemic; 3. Social shocks: civil strife, robbery/theft, fire accident; and 4. Family shock: death of the head of the household, death of other family members, injury from accident.

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

Figure 27. Major shocks experienced by children aged 7-14, by area of residence



Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

62. Results of the multivariate analysis indicate that shocks have a strong influence on child labour and school attendance. Children belonging from family hit by natural disaster are less likely to attend school full-time and more likely to combine work and school (Table 20). A natural disaster appears to have the strongest impact, raising the probability of work and study involvement by five percentage points, and reducing the likelihood of full-time school attendance by almost 6.5 percentage points. These results suggest that child labour forms an important part of a household's strategy for dealing with risk, making them less vulnerable to sudden losses of income arising from individual or collective shocks. They point to the need for policies aimed at reducing household vulnerability as part of a broader effort against child labour. Particularly important in this context is helping household dealing with the impact of HIV/AIDS. Although HIV/AIDS was not looked at explicitly in the shocks analysis, exposure to the disease severely undermines the ability of households to cope with the effects of other forms of shocks.

63. Table 17 shows the impact of exposure to shocks on children's time use by household income quintile. Children belonging to poorest household hit by a natural disaster are more likely to be exclusively in economic activity compared to children belonging to richest household, underscoring the greater vulnerability of the first group of children.

Table 17. Impact of exposure to shocks on children's time use, difference in average predicted probability calculated after bivariate probit estimation

| Type of shock    | Lowest income quintile        |                   |                  |                 | Highest income quintile       |                   |                  |                 | Total                         |                   |                  |                 |
|------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|-----------------|
|                  | Economic activity exclusively | Study exclusively | Neither activity | Both activities | Economic activity exclusively | Study exclusively | Neither activity | Both activities | Economic activity exclusively | Study exclusively | Neither activity | Both activities |
| Natural disaster | 4.5                           | -7.6              | 0.3              | 5.5             | 0.2                           | -7.8              | 0.1              | 7.3             | 1.0                           | -8.0              | 0.1              | 6.9             |
| Epidemic         | -0.5                          | -5.2              | -0.4             | 5.8             | 1.7                           | -3.5              | -1.9             | 5.4             | -0.1                          | -4.9              | -0.9             | 5.9             |
| Social shock     | 5.1                           | 0.4               | 2.7              | -3.9            | 0.5                           | 2.6               | 0.6              | -3.7            | 0.7                           | 2.0               | 1.4              | -4.0            |
| Family shock     | 1.8                           | 0.0               | -1.6             | 2.2             | -0.4                          | -1.3              | -0.3             | 1.9             | -0.5                          | -0.9              | -0.8             | 2.1             |

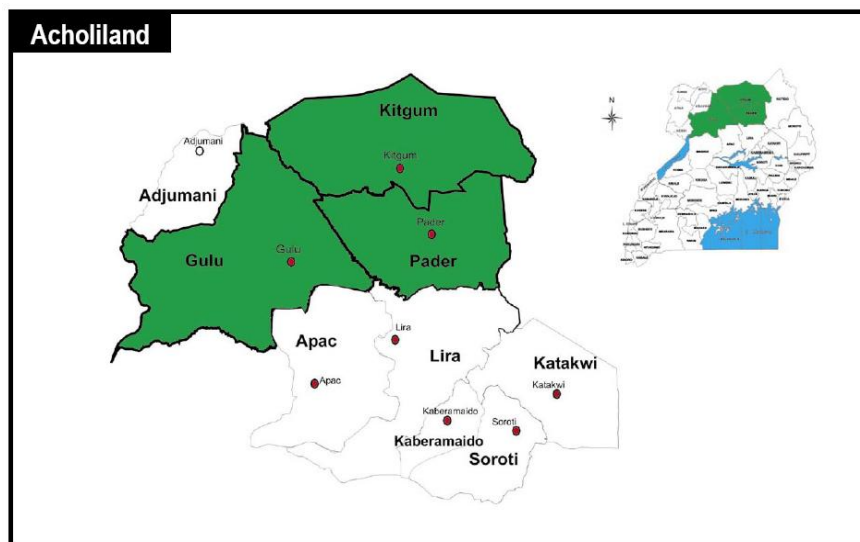
Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS, 2005-06

64. *Place of residence.* Children's living location has a strong influence on their time use, highlighting the importance of targeted, area-specific approaches to reducing child labour and raising school attendance. Holding other factors constant, children living in rural areas are 21 percentage points less likely to attend school full-time, and 21 percentage points more likely to combine work and school, compared to their counterparts living in cities and towns. The likelihood of school attendance and child labour also depends to a large extent on the region where they live. Again holding other factors constant, a child living in Eastern region, for example, faces a 11 percentage point greater probability of being out of school and a 15 percentage point greater probability of combining work and school, compared to a child living in Northern region. Other inter-provincial differences in the likelihood of child labour and school attendance are similarly large.

65. *Orphan hood.* As noted above, Uganda suffers very high child orphan rates and

understanding how orphan hood affects children's involvement in school and child labour is therefore another area of particular policy interest. This question is taken up through estimation of an econometric model,<sup>37</sup> again using the Uganda NHS 2005-06 dataset.<sup>38</sup> Estimation results, presented in Table 21 in the annex to this report, suggest that orphans are at significantly greater risk of being denied education, with the effect largest for children who have lost both parents. Surprisingly, double orphanhood are associated with a *lower* risk of involvement in economic activity, while the link between single orphanhood and work in economic activity is not significant. Double orphans children are significantly more likely to be absent from both school and economic activity; this raises the possibility that double orphans more than other children are kept at home, away from school and the workplace, to perform household chores. The impact of being a child not residing with his or her (living) parents roughly mirrors that of being a double orphan, i.e., they are less likely to be in economic activity or in school, and more likely to be left at home, presumably carrying out chores associated with the functioning of the household.

Figure 28. Northern Uganda internally displaced persons



Source: Northern Uganda Internally displaced persons Profiling study, 2005. Department of Disaster Preparedness and Refugees

**66. Internally displaced persons.** In northern Uganda, nearly two decades of conflict have resulted in the internal displacement of up to two million persons. In September 1996, much of the rural population of Gulu District was relocated into what were termed 'protective camps'.<sup>39</sup> Since 1996, the total population of persons living in the camps has increased rapidly. According to the UNHS 2005-2006, about 1.5 million

<sup>37</sup> Conditional (fixed effect) logit model.

<sup>38</sup> Since there are many counterfactuals, we are looking at the variation within household. For example, let  $y=1$  indicates that a child attends school and  $y=0$  that he/she does not. In our case conditional (fixed effect) logit provides matching of children with  $y=1$  to those with  $y=0$  within each household, as explanatory variables we use the age and orphan status of a child. Note, that conditional logit models can not include observations unless there are variations in the dependent variable within group (household in our case).

<sup>39</sup> Northern Uganda Internally displaced persons Profiling study. Department of Disaster Preparedness and Refugees, 2005; *Internally displaced persons health and mortality survey, Uganda, 2005*.

people are displaced in Gulu, Kitgum, Lira and Pader districts, the most affected by violence, representing the 5.5 percent of the total population of Uganda. The IDP population is very young: about 60 percent of people living in the camps are aged less than 15 years.

*Table 18. Children living in the camps, 7-14 years age group, by activity status*

| Activity   | Uganda | IDP   | Total |
|------------|--------|-------|-------|
| Work only  | 2.96   | 2.98  | 2.96  |
| Study only | 55.86  | 75.68 | 57.06 |
| Work-study | 36.82  | 11.41 | 35.29 |
| Idle       | 4.36   | 9.93  | 4.70  |

Source: UCW calculations based on UNHS 2005-2006

67. About three-quarters of children aged 7-14 years living in the camps were attending school full-time in the 2005-06 reference year. The education system established by the government requires that all camps have a school.<sup>40</sup> Eleven percent of children of the same age group were combining work and school, while only three percent of children were involved in economic activity exclusively (Table 18). The descriptive evidence is confirmed by the regression analysis. Children living in the camps are about 20 percentage points more likely to attend school full time or to combine work and school compared to their counterparts living in the rest of the country (Annex, Table 20).

<sup>40</sup> Although some of them are still not officially recognised and are therefore referred to as 'bush-schools'. These are schools established by a former teacher or another camp inhabitants with some level of higher education. (Northern Uganda Internally displaced persons Profiling study. Department of Disaster Preparedness and Refugees, 2005)

## 7. POLICY IMPLICATIONS

### 7.1 Identifying an appropriate policy mix: General considerations

68. The progressive elimination of child labour in Uganda as elsewhere requires a policy response targeting three broad groups: (1) children at risk of involvement in child labour; (2) children already harmed by exposure to child labour; and (3) children in the worst forms of child labour requiring immediate, direct action. Empirical analysis conducted for this study (see Section 7), as well as policy experience in Uganda and elsewhere, points to a number of general strategies for reaching these groups. Better access to schooling and other basic services, combined with mechanisms to reduce social risk, are particularly important to preventing children from entering child labour, and to stopping children already in work from moving to more hazardous forms or leaving school prematurely. Remedial schooling and other “second chance” learning opportunities is important to overcoming work-related harm to children’s welfare. Better formal workplace inspection instruments, together with expanded grassroots level monitoring, are needed to guide “direct action” to remove and rehabilitate children in unconditional worst forms of child labour.

69. Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour also requires a supportive national political, legal and institutional environment. Political commitment is needed to ensure that child labour is mainstreamed into broader development plans and programmes. This may include, for example, integrating child labour as an explicit concern in Millenium Development Goals, Education for All plans, and poverty reduction strategy plans. Labour legislation consistent with international child labour standards is necessary both as a statement of national intent and as legal and regulatory framework for efforts against child labour. As child labour is an issue that cuts across sectors and areas of ministerial responsibility, progress against it requires that institutional roles are clearly delineated, and that effective coordination and information-sharing structures are in place.

70. In summary, "prevention" measures are needed both to reduce the flow of vulnerable children into child labour and to stop children already in work from moving to worse forms or leaving school, while "second chance" measures are needed to avoid large numbers of children entering adulthood in a disadvantaged position, permanently harmed by early work experiences. “Direct action” is needed to identify and withdraw the children in unconditional worst forms, a group facing immediate and severe threats to survival, safety and development. existing stock of child labourers. The effective implementation of both prevention and protection measures requires political commitment, reliable information, an appropriate legal and regulatory framework, functioning coordination structures, capable institutions and a mobilised society, i.e., an "enabling environment".

### 7.2 Preventive measures

71. Prevention measures designed to stem the flow of children into work constitute the most important component of a policy response to child labour. Clearly, sustainable reductions in child labour cannot be attained without addressing the factors causing children to enter work in the first place. As children are rarely

responsible for their own choices, the design of preventive measures requires an understanding of factors influencing household decisions relating to schooling and work. A model of these household decisions was estimated in Section 7, making use of the UNHS 2005-2006 dataset. The implications of the estimation results for prevention policies are summarised in (Table 19) and discussed in more detail below. The following discussion also draws on international evidence and policy experience.

Table 19. Policy implications from empirical findings on child labour

| Empirical result  | Implication for policy  |
|---|---|
| 1. Negative relationship between household income levels and children's involvement in economic activity                      | Need for compensatory income or earnings schemes for families dependent on their children's income or productivity  |
| 2. Negative relationship between work involvement and school attendance and school survival                                   | Need to integrate child labour concerns into broader efforts towards Education For All.   |
| 3. Parents education, especially mother's, reduces child labour   | Need to develop and expand efforts in promoting good parenting, functional literacy and numeracy, work-related skills training and basic education equivalency programmes |
| 4. Orphaned children less likely to attend school, and more likely to be left at home, presumably performing household chores | Need to target orphans and other vulnerable children with second chance learning and other special support programmes   |
| 5. Region and residence strong determinant of child labour  | Need for targeted, area-specific approaches to reducing child labour and raising school attendance.   |
| 6. Exposure to shocks positively associated with child labour.  | Need for policies aimed at reducing household vulnerability; particularly important in this context is helping household dealing with the impact of HIV/AIDS.             |

**72. Reducing household vulnerability:** The empirical results indicated that 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. Widespread poverty, a very limited social protection net and the impact of the HIV/AIDS crisis mean a very high degree of household vulnerability in Uganda. Reducing household vulnerability by expanding social protection is therefore a critical priority in the country. Developing and strengthening community-based social safety mechanisms is likely to yield needed benefits to vulnerable households in the short-term. Community-based measures such as micro health insurance plans, community savings groups, and micro-credit initiatives should be promoted and expanded, especially targeting poorest and HIV/AIDS-affected households.

**73. Reducing barriers to school access:** 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 empirical results indicated that Ugandan working children are less likely to be attending school, and, if enrolled in school, are more likely to drop-out prematurely. There is therefore a need to address

the access and quality issues influencing parents' decisions to enrol and keep their children in school rather than in work, within the broader education reform framework. Results elsewhere suggest that school incentive schemes that provide cash or in-kind subsidies to poor children conditional on school attendance offer one possible route in this context. Flexible schooling measures, such as adaptive school calendars and scheduling, have had success elsewhere in reducing drop-out through making school more accommodating of the exigencies of light work.

**74. Adult education:** Empirical evidence in Uganda indicating the parents' education and particularly mothers' education, has a significantly positive effect on children's time use, making it less likely that children are involved in work at a young age and more likely that they are in school. Developing and expanding efforts in promoting good parenting, functional literacy and numeracy, work-related skills training and basic education equivalency programmes are all important in this context.

### 7.3 "Second chance" measures

**75.** "Second chance" policies are critical to avoiding large numbers of children entering adulthood in a disadvantaged position, permanently harmed by early work experiences. They are needed to reach former working children and other out-of-school children with educational opportunities, as part of broader efforts towards their social reintegration. Second chance programmes are based on the premise that working children are often difficult to insert directly (back) into the formal education system because of their age, different life experiences and lack of familiarity with the school environment. Their lack of formal education also frequently leaves working children too far behind their peers academically to catch up on their own. Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment indicates that such programmes are particularly relevant in the Ugandan context: over 165,000 of 9-17 year-olds have never attended school, and a further 422,000 out-of-school children from this age group did not complete the primary education level.

**76.** Second chance education programmes offer children who have never enrolled in school, or who have dropped out, a "bridge" to successful integration or (re-integration) in the formal school classroom. They are critical to ensuring that these children, once in school, remain there, and are able to learn effectively. Programming experience elsewhere points to three main options for reaching disadvantaged, out-of-school children with opportunities to ease their transition back to the formal school system: (a) mainstreaming, providing returning children and working children with special remedial support within the regular classroom context; (b) school-based "catch-up" education, involving separate, intensive courses making use of school facilities; and (c) non-formal "bridging" education, involving intensive non-formal courses designed to raise academic proficiency.

### 7.4 Direct action: removal, recovery and reintegration

**77.** Given the large size of the child labour population and the country's limited resources, the prioritisation of direct action measures aimed at identifying and withdrawing children from child labour is critical. Direct action is needed to ensure the removal, recovery and reintegration of working children whose rights are most compromised, i.e., those facing the greatest degree of hazard and/or exploitation. This

refers, first and foremost, to children in so-called “unconditional worst forms of child labour” (activities against fundamental human rights) and those in hazardous forms of work (activities compromising children’s safety, health or moral development). Hazardous work and unconditional worst forms of child labour are identified in the Uganda National Child Labour Policy (2006) and draft list of hazardous forms, providing a starting point for targeting.

**78.** Immediate, direct action is needed to rescue children from unconditional worst forms of child labour and provide them with the support and follow-up needed for their recovery and reintegration. Such action is relevant above all in cases of trafficked children, children subjected to commercial sexual exploitation, and children facing other extreme forms of hazard or exploitation in the workplace. The effective identification and follow-up of these groups depends, first and foremost, on mobilising and capacitating the local State and non-governmental actors that operate closest to where these frequently-hidden forms of child labour occur. Follow-up actions ensuring that rescued children are provided a full range of needed social services (e.g., emergency shelter, needs assessment and referral, medical care, psycho-social counselling, legal support, family tracing and assessment, post reintegration follow-up, etc.) are also critical. Regulatory frameworks need to define minimum standards of care for former child labourers and other vulnerable children, and to specify the respective roles of the various State and private actors in meeting these care needs.



## ANNEX I: DETAILED ECONOMETRIC RESULTS

Table 20. Determinants of children's work and schooling, marginal effect after bivariate probit estimation

| Explanatory variables        |   | Work only |       | Study only |        | Work and study |       | Inactive |       |
|------------------------------|---|-----------|-------|------------|--------|----------------|-------|----------|-------|
|                              |   | dy/dx     | z     | dy/dx      | z      | dy/dx          | z     | dy/dx    | z     |
| Child age and sex            | Age   | -0.0294*  | -4.14 | -0.0755*   | -2.06  | 0.1507*        | 4.21  | -0.0458* | -5.84 |
|                              | Age squared                                     | 0.0015*   | 4.54  | 0.0010     | 0.62   | -0.0045*       | -2.74 | 0.0020*  | 5.53  |
|                              | Female  | 0.0026    | 0.81  | -0.0302    | -1.84  | 0.0278         | 1.73  | -0.0002  | -0.05 |
| Household characteristics    | Household size                                  | 0.0008    | 0.64  | -0.0013    | -0.21  | -0.0004        | -0.07 | 0.0009   | 0.63  |
|                              | Siblings 0-4                                    | -0.0013   | -0.62 | 0.0098     | 0.91   | -0.0079        | -0.75 | -0.0006  | -0.24 |
|                              | Siblings 5-17                                   | 0.0023    | 1.46  | -0.0208*   | -2.75  | 0.0180*        | 2.43  | 0.0005   | 0.29  |
|                              | Youth 18-24                                     | -0.0015   | -0.78 | 0.0082     | 0.85   | -0.0057        | -0.61 | -0.0010  | -0.45 |
|                              | Sex of HH head (female)                         | 0.0044    | 1.49  | 0.0031     | 0.18   | -0.0134        | -0.81 | 0.0058   | 1.82  |
| Mother's level of education  | Primary or less                                 | -0.0101*  | -4.27 | 0.0209     | 1.68   | -0.0005        | -0.04 | -0.0104* | -3.99 |
|                              | Less than secondary                             | -0.0134*  | -4.72 | 0.0661*    | 3.47   | -0.0412*       | -2.2  | -0.0115* | -3.3  |
|                              | Secondary or higher                             | -0.0143*  | -3.39 | 0.0941*    | 2.87   | -0.0683*       | -2.13 | -0.0115  | -1.91 |
| Father's level of education  | Primary or less                                 | -0.0098*  | -4.02 | 0.0189     | 1.36   | 0.0012         | 0.09  | -0.0103* | -3.82 |
|                              | Less than secondary                             | -0.0138*  | -5.55 | 0.0338*    | 2.05   | -0.0059        | -0.36 | -0.0141* | -5.11 |
|                              | Secondary or higher                             | -0.0203*  | -8.39 | 0.0493*    | 2.31   | -0.0077        | -0.37 | -0.0212* | -7.93 |
| Household income             | Log of expenditure                              | -0.0160*  | -6.99 | -0.0127    | -1.17  | 0.0504*        | 4.77  | -0.0217* | -8.6  |
| Orphanhood                   | Double orphan                                   | 0.0278*   | 3.11  | -0.0637*   | -2.34  | 0.0114         | 0.43  | 0.0245*  | 2.7   |
|                              | Maternal orphan                                 | 0.0147    | 1.15  | -0.0927*   | -2.21  | 0.0735         | 1.77  | 0.0044   | 0.42  |
|                              | Paternal orphan                                 | 0.0146*   | 2     | -0.0205    | -0.76  | -0.0104        | -0.4  | 0.0163*  | 1.98  |
|                              | Fostered  | 0.0167*   | 3.12  | -0.0405*   | -2.12  | 0.0084         | 0.45  | 0.0153*  | 2.71  |
|                              | Single orphan and fostered                      | 0.0223*   | 3.05  | -0.0463    | -1.92  | 0.0026         | 0.11  | 0.0213*  | 2.75  |
|                              | Both parents alive but staying with one of them | 0.0120*   | 2.52  | -0.0079    | -0.42  | -0.0189        | -1.03 | 0.0149*  | 2.69  |
| Exposure to shocks           | Natural disaster                                | 0.0075*   | 3.05  | -0.0649*   | -5.31  | 0.0553*        | 4.62  | 0.0020   | 0.76  |
|                              | Epidemics                                       | -0.0024   | -0.79 | -0.0381*   | -2.45  | 0.0472*        | 3.08  | -0.0067* | -2.27 |
|                              | Social shocks                                   | 0.0068*   | 1.99  | 0.0138     | 0.89   | -0.0315*       | -2.09 | 0.0109*  | 2.7   |
|                              | Family shocks                                   | -0.0044   | -1.61 | -0.0055    | -0.39  | 0.0160         | 1.15  | -0.0060* | -2.04 |
| Access to basic services     | Water   | 0.0018    | 0.21  | 0.0100     | 0.28   | -0.0153        | -0.43 | 0.0036   | 0.37  |
|                              | Electricity                                     | -0.0026   | -0.52 | 0.1770*    | 7.47   | -0.2072*       | -10.4 | 0.0328*  | 2.55  |
| Internally Displaced persons | IDP   | -0.0169*  | -7.33 | 0.2031*    | 7.45   | -0.1789*       | -6.71 | -0.0073  | -1.61 |
| Place of residence           | Rural   | 0.0119*   | 4.72  | -0.2160*   | -14.65 | 0.2144*        | 15.47 | -0.0104* | -2.13 |
|                              | Region: Central                                 | -0.0029   | -0.82 | -0.1496*   | -7.48  | 0.1693*        | 8.56  | -0.0168* | -5.4  |
|                              | Region: Eastern                                 | -0.0132*  | -4.58 | -0.1186*   | -6.31  | 0.1566*        | 8.42  | -0.0247* | -8.62 |
|                              | Region: Western                                 | -0.0079*  | -2.59 | -0.0248    | -1.28  | 0.0446*        | 2.34  | -0.0119* | -3.78 |

Note. Mother's and Father's level of education: comparison variable no education; Orphan hood: comparison variable "non orphan"; region of residence: comparison variable "Northern"

\*significant at 5%

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda National Household Survey, 2005-2006

*Table 21. Impact of orphanhood on children's involvement in school and economic activity , results of conditional (fixed effects) logistic regressions with robust standard errors*

| Explanatory variables |               | Attending school |       | Involved in economic activity |       | Neither  |       |
|-----------------------|---------------|------------------|-------|-------------------------------|-------|----------|-------|
|                       |               | Coef.            | z     | Coef.                         | z     | Coef.    | z     |
| Child age and sex     | Age           | 3.0262*          | 8.70  | 2.1737*                       | 6.63  | -2.7009* | -6.44 |
|                       | Age squared   | -0.1369*         | -8.26 | -0.0665*                      | -4.43 | 0.1084*  | 5.35  |
|                       | Female        | -0.2102          | -1.29 | 0.7164*                       | 5.03  | 0.0894   | 0.46  |
| Orphanhood status     | Foster        | -1.8714*         | -4.96 | -0.1814                       | -0.62 | 1.4135*  | 3.19  |
|                       | Single orphan | -0.0036          | -0.01 | -0.2773                       | -0.62 | 0.4677   | 0.56  |
|                       | Double orphan | -1.9767*         | -4.22 | -0.7967                       | -1.84 | 2.3994*  | 3.24  |

Source: UCW calculations based on Uganda NHS, 2005-06

\*significant at 5%

## ANNEX II DEFINITION AND MATRIX OF HAZARDOUS WORK

### Definition of hazardous work:

According to the National Child Labour Policy (2006), hazardous work refers to work, which by its nature or circumstances in which it is performed, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

- Hazardous work is found when:
- Children are exposed to dangerous machinery, equipment and tools
- Children carry heavy loads beyond their capacity
- Children work in unhealthy environments that expose them to hazardous substances, infectious diseases, excessive noise, temperature or vibrations
- Children are exposed to harassment or physical/psychological/sexual abuse
- Children work underground, in water, or at heights
- Children are unreasonably confined to the premises of the employers
- Children work under strenuous conditions such as work for long hours

The matrix below lists hazardous occupations and their consequences on the health of children. The matrix has been divided into two sections:

- The first section includes those activities which constitute ***unconditional worst forms of child labor***, ie. Activities that are inherently damaging to the child's development. These activities are always hazardous, under any circumstances.
- The second section includes those activities which are conditionally hazardous. These activities are likely to be hazardous to the child, but under certain circumstances may be acceptable. The age of the child, the particular circumstances of the child's activities, and the child's working conditions must be considered to determine if the activity is hazardous.

Table A: UNCONDITIONAL HAZARDOUS WORK

| Sectors                        | Activities   | Hazardous condition   | Risks and possible consequences <sup>41,42</sup>  |
|--------------------------------|--|---|---|
| Trafficking                    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Domestic work</li> <li>• Commercial sexual exploitation</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Loss of identification</li> <li>• Separation from family</li> <li>• Physical and sexual abuse</li> <li>• Bondage</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS)</li> <li>• Emotional/psychological trauma</li> <li>• Impaired moral development</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Loss of dignity/self-esteem</li> </ul>  |
| Commercial sexual exploitation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Providing sexual services</li> <li>• Engagement in child pornography</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Involuntary (forced) labour</li> <li>• Exposure to physical violence</li> <li>• Sexual abuse</li> <li>• Exposure to drugs</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS)</li> <li>• Unwanted pregnancy and abortion</li> <li>• Emotional/psychological trauma</li> <li>• Impaired moral development</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Loss of dignity/self-esteem</li> </ul>         |
| Armed conflict                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Children abducted to join fighting forces</li> <li>• Children conscripted to join the military</li> <li>• Portering supplies</li> <li>• Spying to gather information</li> <li>• Sexual slavery</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exposure to violence (target and perpetrator)</li> <li>• Sexual and physical abuse</li> <li>• Isolation from family</li> <li>• Using dangerous weapons</li> <li>• Deprivation of food/water</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emotional/psychological trauma</li> <li>• Impaired moral development</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Injuries/disability</li> <li>• Sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS)</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Stunted growth and deformity</li> </ul> |

<sup>41</sup> Any other sectors/activities that could deny children the right to education by preventing their attendance at school are considered hazardous. Consequences of denial of education might include limited cognitive development, lack of basic literacy/numeracy skills, and limited opportunities for future productive employment.

<sup>42</sup> Any hazardous activity could potentially cause the death of the child. The ultimate consequence of hazardous work, across sectors, is death.

Table B: **CONDITIONAL HAZARDOUS WORK**

| Sectors                      | Activities   | Conditions under which the work is hazardous   | Risks and possible consequences  |
|------------------------------|--|--|--|
| <b>Agriculture</b>           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• From Digging, Planting, Growing, Harvesting, Processing, and Marketing:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Tobacco</li> <li>○ Tea</li> <li>○ Rice</li> <li>○ Sugar cane</li> <li>○ Maize milling</li> <li>○ Cotton</li> <li>○ Horticulture</li> </ul> </li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Noise and vibration</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> <li>• Exposure to dust, fumes</li> <li>• Exposure to hazardous chemicals (pesticides)</li> <li>• Exposure to extreme temperatures</li> <li>• Using tractors and dangerous machinery</li> <li>• Long hours of work</li> <li>• Exposure to smoking</li> <li>• Animal attack</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Loss of hearing</li> <li>• Poisoning (acute and chronic)</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Long term health problems</li> <li>• Respiratory diseases</li> <li>• Musculoskeletal injuries</li> </ul>    |
|                              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Subsistence farming</li> <li>• Hunting</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Long hours</li> <li>• Animal attack</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> <li>• Use of sharp objects</li> <li>• Walking long distances</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Injury from animal attack</li> <li>• Accidents</li> <li>• Musculoskeletal injuries</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> </ul>   |
|                              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Animal herding</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Animal attacks</li> <li>• Long hours</li> <li>• Isolation</li> <li>• Walking long distances</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Psychological stress</li> <li>• Injury from animal attack</li> <li>• Accidents</li> <li>• Infection with animal diseases</li> </ul>  |
| <b>Fishing</b>               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Paddling boats/canoes</li> <li>• Loading boats/canoes</li> <li>• Fishing</li> <li>• Smoking fish</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Long hours</li> <li>• Work at night</li> <li>• Sudden shifts in weather</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> <li>• Animal attacks</li> <li>• Travelling across deep water</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Drowning</li> <li>• Water-borne diseases</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> </ul>  |
| <b>Domestic work</b>         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• cleaning</li> <li>• cooking</li> <li>• washing</li> <li>• child minding</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Handling sharp instruments</li> <li>• Working with machinery and tools</li> <li>• Working long hours</li> <li>• Isolated from family</li> <li>• Handling fire and hot objects</li> <li>• Sexual harassment/abuse</li> <li>• Inadequate food</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Musculoskeletal injuries</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Emotional/psychological stress or trauma</li> <li>• Burns</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Stunted physical development</li> </ul>                                |
| <b>Construction</b>          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Brick making</li> <li>• Portering</li> <li>• Carpentry work</li> <li>• Building</li> <li>• Road construction</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exposure to chemicals</li> <li>• Exposure to fumes, dust</li> <li>• Exposure to fire and excessive heat</li> <li>• Working long hours</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> <li>• Excessive noise/vibration</li> <li>• Exposure to dangerous tools</li> <li>• Exposure to dangerous heights and depths</li> </ul>                              | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Burns</li> <li>• Musculoskeletal injury</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Respiratory diseases</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Loss of hearing</li> <li>• Stunted growth and deformity</li> </ul>                           |
| <b>Mining</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sand harvesting</li> <li>• Quarrying</li> <li>• Stone crushing</li> <li>• Digging in caves/tunnels</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exposure to fumes, dust</li> <li>• Exposure to fire and excessive heat</li> <li>• Working long hours</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> <li>• Falling rocks or objects</li> <li>• Excessive noise/vibration</li> <li>• Working at heights or below ground</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Burns</li> <li>• Musculoskeletal injury</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Respiratory diseases</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Loss of hearing</li> </ul>   |
| <b>Urban informal sector</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Working in markets</li> <li>• Hawking</li> <li>• Street vending</li> <li>• Begging</li> <li>• Scavenging and stealing</li> <li>• Welding</li> <li>• Cross-border smuggling</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exposure to drugs</li> <li>• Exposure to chemicals</li> <li>• Exposure to physical and sexual abuse</li> <li>• Traffic accidents</li> <li>• Working long hours</li> <li>• Working at night</li> <li>• Carrying heavy loads</li> <li>• Unsanitary conditions</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Emotional/psychological stress</li> <li>• Injuries</li> <li>• Fatigue</li> <li>• Loss of self-esteem</li> <li>• Drug addiction</li> <li>• Loss of hearing</li> <li>• Damage to eyesight</li> </ul> |
| <b>Entertainment</b>         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hotels/bars/restaurants</li> <li>• Casinos</li> <li>• Video parlors</li> <li>• Night clubs</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sexual harassment/abuse</li> <li>• Long hours</li> <li>• Work at night</li> <li>• Work with knives/sharp objects</li> <li>• Exposure to immoral behaviour</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Emotional/psychological stress</li> <li>• Sexually transmitted diseases (including HIV/AIDS)</li> <li>• Cuts and wounds</li> <li>• Impaired moral development</li> <li>• Loss of dignity/self-esteem</li> </ul>               |