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

1.

Understanding Children's Work Country Report Series, March 2003

Understanding Children's Work in Yemen

Report on child labour

March 2003

Understanding Children's Work in Yemen

Country report
March 2003

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

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ABSTRACT

The current report was developed under the aegis of a joint ILO/World Bank/UNICEF project "Understanding Children's Work" in Yemen. It provides an overview of the child labour phenomenon in Yemen - its extent and nature, its determinants, its consequences on health and education, and national responses to it. The report serves two important UCW project objectives in the country. First, it helps provide a common analytical understanding of child labour, that can be used to inform the current activities of the three partner agencies and Government, and that can be used to develop joint interagency strategies for future co-operation with the Government in the field of child labour. Second, through close involvement of local counterparts in its development, the paper contributes to a broader effort to build national capacity in collecting and using child labour data for policy development. The statistical information presented in the paper is drawn primarily from two recent household surveys - the 1998 Yemen Household Budget Monitoring Survey (YHBS 1998) and the 1999 Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey (YPMS 1999), both conducted by the Central Statistical Office. The first involved a stratified sample of 10,000 households and the second a stratified sample of 54,000 households. An ILO/IPEC rapid assessment conducted in 2000 is the primary source of qualitative information on the nature and hazards of child labour. The review also draws on a number of smaller-scale studies, qualitative as well as quantitative, Government and NGO reports, agency documents and other information sources. In the regression, the income data have been imputed to the National Poverty Survey 1999 using the information from the Household Budget Survey 1998, since the expenditure/income data in NPS are not satisfactory. As for the descriptive statistics on child labour, they were cross-checked with results from labour force surveys and found consistent

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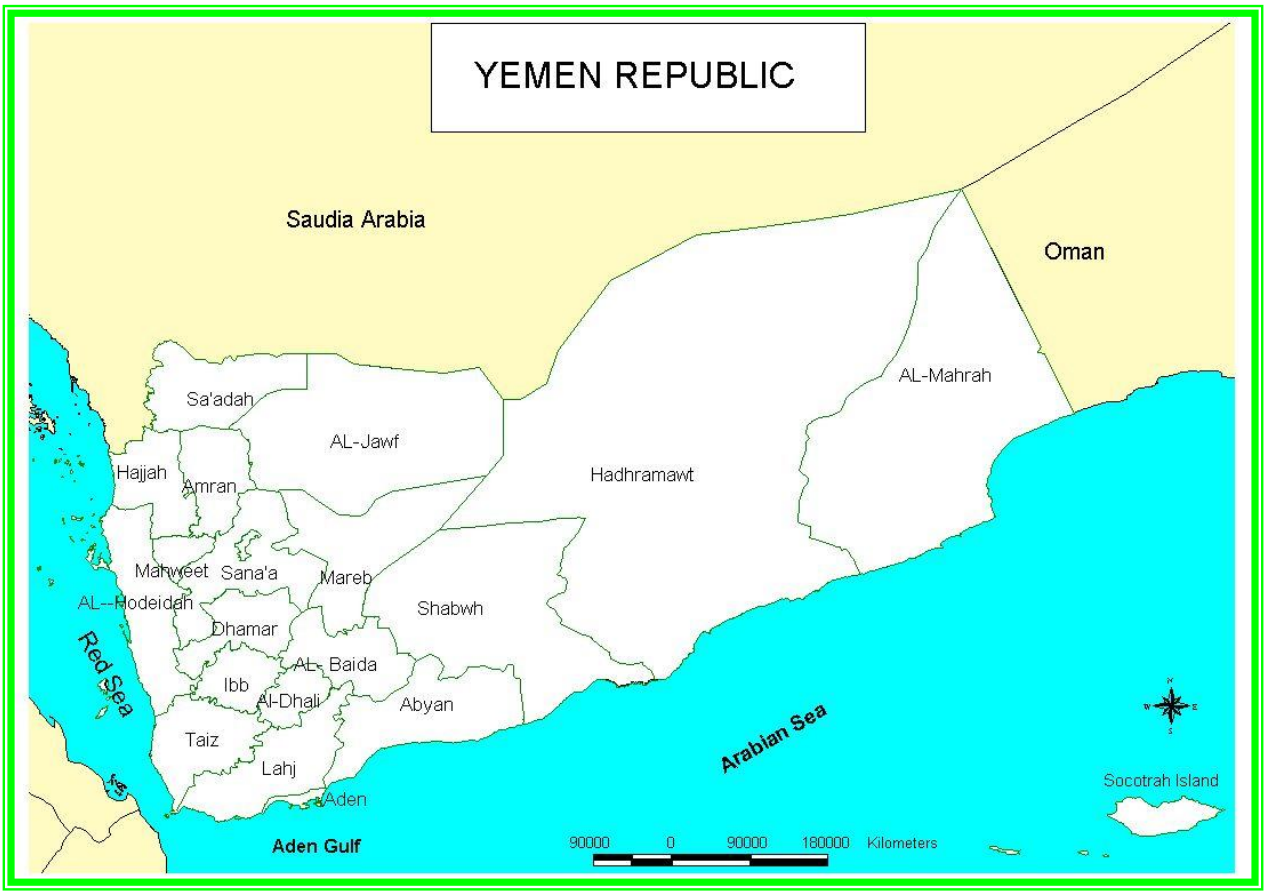
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

1. **The current report was developed under the aegis of a joint ILO/World Bank/UNICEF project "Understanding Children's Work" in Yemen.**[1] 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[2] that negatively affects children and the country's future. The report serves two important UCW project objectives in Yemen: 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.

Extent of children's work

2. **According to Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey (YPMS) 1999, an estimated 700,000 children aged 6-14 years – 12% of this age group – are engaged in work.** Actual numbers of child workers are likely even higher, as household surveys such as YPMS are ill-suited to capture so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour.

3. A large portion (37%) of the remaining children in the 6-14 age group are neither involved in work nor attend 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, i.e., either work or household chores. 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.

4. **Girls are more likely than boys to be involved in work and are much less likely than boys to attend school.** Girls are also almost twice as likely as boys to be reported as involved in 'no activities', of whom some in reality perform unreported work or household chores. Work prevalence is highest among older children, but the absolute number of very young Yemeni children engaged in work is nonetheless significant. Some 120,000 children aged 6-8 years are economically active.

5. **The prevalence of children engaged in work appears to be rising in Yemen.** The 16.5% estimate of work prevalence among 10-14 year olds from YPMS 1999 compares with an estimate of 13.9% from YHBS 1998, an estimate of 11.8% from the 1997 Yemen Demographic and Health Survey, and an estimate of 10.5% from the 1994 Population Census. However, differences in survey methodologies mean that caution must be exercised in reading too much into comparisons of the survey results. Population censuses, for example, systematically underestimate children's work, meaning that the 1994 baseline estimate of 10.5% is probably too low. At a

[1] Report compilation was guided by the UCW Project Coordinator, Furio Rosati, and undertaken by a core team comprised of Lorenzo Guarcello and Scott Lyon (UCW Project), Vijay Gupta and Willem Keddeman (international consultants), and Iqbal Kaur (World Bank). Background research and data analysis were carried out by Mohammed Al-Maitami (local consultant), and Tariq Al Madhagi and Anwar Farham (Central Statistical Office). The core team received valuable inputs from Thaira Shalan (UNICEF) and Samira Bindi (ILO). The team also consulted with Leo De Vos (UNICEF), Sule Caglar (ILO), and Jacques Baudouy, Amit Dar and Bona Kim (World Bank).

[2] See section 3.1especially Box 1 for an explanation of the concepts of acceptable forms of work, and child labour that is to be eliminated.

minimum, however, it can be safely concluded that there has been no reduction in the prevalence of children's engagement in work in the last eight years.

Characteristics of children's work

6. **Children's work is overwhelmingly rural: the prevalence of children involved in work in rural areas is more than five times that of urban areas; rural child workers account for 94% of total child workers.** The overwhelming majority of Yemeni working children are found in the agriculture sector and work for their families.

7. **Working children put in an average of almost 38.5 hours of work per week, i.e., almost as much as a full-time adult worker in the industrial world.** This total, however, is not in violation of the Yemeni Labour Code, which sets 42 hours per week, spread out over a six-day period, as the maximum acceptable limit. Thirteen and 14 year-old working children put in the longest hours (40.6 hours per week), but even six and seven year-old working children put in a 34-hour workweek on average. Working children who also attend school work an average of 35 hours per week, fewer than their out-of-school counterparts, but still undoubtedly too many to be able to effectively perform in school.

8. **Preliminary findings from an outgoing ILO/IPEC rapid assessment points to a variety of work-related abuses, hazards and unconditional worst forms of child labour encountered by children.** Sector-specific work hazards identified by the assessment included: agriculture: chemicals from use of pesticides, lengthy exposure to extreme cold and heat, handling heavy agricultural equipment and carrying heavy loads; construction: chemical toxins, handling paints; car repair workshops: respiratory problems from inhaling fumes, physical injuries, burns, electrocution; machine welding: lead poisoning, extreme heat; and restaurants: sexual abuse.

9. **Available information, though frequently sketchy, suggests that various so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour occur in Yemen.** Recent press reports indicate that the phenomenon of child trafficking exists in Yemen, albeit to an unknown extent. Although Yemen's laws specify 18 as the minimum recruitment age, there are indications of under-18s in Government armed forces. In addition, children in the Yemeni countryside can be seen carrying weapons and acting as guards on Qat farms. In a small-scale survey by Radda Barnen in 1997, a significant percentage of children claimed that they were sexually exploited. Street children are in evidence in Yemen's urban centres, although the total extent of the phenomenon in the country is not known.

Consequences of work on child welfare

10. **Only about one-third of 10-14 year-old working children manage to attend school.** Attendance is especially low for working girls – just 14% of working girls go to school compared to 59% of working boys.

11. **Working children do not report significantly more health problems than children attending school or children in no activities.** Around 12.5% of full-time working children reportedly experienced health problems compared to 11.2% of full-time students and 12.3% of children involved in no activities. Reported ill-health was slightly higher for children combining school and work, at 13.7%. 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.

Determinants of children's work and schooling

12. **Yemen's difficult physical environment and adverse socio-economic conditions underlie the children's engagement in work in the country.** Children's work, defined for the purposes of this paper as any form of economic activity performed by children, is common in Yemen. Regression analysis using the YPMS 1999 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, girls are more likely to work full-time (by five percentage points) and much less likely to study full-time (25 percentage points), than boys;
- **Age:** The analysis shows that the probability of a child working increases with age;
- **School availability:** The presence of a basic cycle school in a village increases school enrolment by almost four percentage points; the effect of a Koranic school in a village also increases enrolment by about four percentage points, while the effect of secondary school in a village is slightly larger, increasing enrolment by almost five percentage points;
- **Water availability:** Access to a public water network has a dramatic effect on schooling, increasing the likelihood of enrolment by nine percentage points for all children, and by more than 11 percentage points for girls.
- **Poverty**: Work prevalence falls and school attendance rises progressively as household income goes up, but the income effect is relatively weak. For example, an increase in income of 10% has only negligible effects on the probability that a child goes to work;
- **Parents' educational status**: Children of educated fathers are five percentage points more likely to study full-time, and 0.5 percentage points less likely to work, than children of illiterate fathers. Children of educated mothers are two percentage points more likely to attend school, and one percentage point less likely to work, than children of illiterate mothers.
- **Household structure**: Each additional child aged 0-5 years increases the probability that a child works by 0.5 percentage points, and reduces the probability that a child goes to school but by about one percentage point.

National response to child labour

13. **The new Yemeni Child Rights Law, issued on 19 November 2002, updates and extends legal protections accorded to child workers, but still excludes children working for their families.** The law sets a general minimum working age of 14 years, and minimum working age of 15 years in industrial work (Article 133). The law does not apply, however, to children who work within the family environment, a category that accounts for the overwhelming majority (87%) of child workers. The government by its own admission lacks the resources to adequately enforce laws relating to child labour.

14. **The issue of child labour has not until recently occupied a prominent place on the country's development agenda.** Indeed, the country's main development plans – Yemen Strategic Vision 2025, Second Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development (2001-2005), Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2003-2005) – make almost no mention of child labour. These plans do, however, provide a

framework for national efforts addressing poverty, economic vulnerability, lack of schooling, low access to basic services and various other issues that underlie the child labour phenomenon. There is no overall national policy and programme framework dealing specifically with child labour in Yemen.

15. **Government's direct protection efforts are very limited, however, its commitment to education for all and strengthening safety nets is noteworthy.** Government direct action addressing child labour falls primarily within the ILO/IPEC program that focuses on progressive elimination of child labour, prioritising the urgent eradication of its worst forms and considering the special situation of the girl child. The programme specifically targets the removal of 3,000 children from dangerous work environments during the initial programme period. Government indirect protection can be summed up in its general efforts to reduce poverty, commitment to education for all, reaching out to the most disadvantaged through Social Fund for Development, Public Works, and cash transfers through the Social Welfare Fund. International (bilateral and multilateral donors) efforts primarily focus on basic education, strengthening social safety nets, and reaching out to the most disadvantaged.

Strategic options for addressing child labour

16. *It is beyond the scope of the report to provide detailed programme interventions or specific action plans, however general recommendations are made that will be developed, conditional on the approval by Government and the three partner agencies.* **On the basis of the analysis carried out in Yemen and of studies conducted in several other countries, it is evident that many policies that do not appear to be directly related to child labour in fact have a very significant bearing on the phenomenon. Some of the most important of these general policy considerations are as follows:**

- **Reducing household vulnerability**: Reducing household vulnerability will require extending and improving the effectiveness of the country's social safety net. As noted above, the three main components of the safety net – the Social Fund for Development, Social Welfare Fund, and the Public Works Project – currently have only modest capabilities for effectively reaching and protecting the poor.
- **Increasing school access and quality**: Expanding access in rural areas, especially for girls, reducing school costs, and improving quality system-wide can be achieved through ongoing education projects with some special provisions for children with special needs that paves way for integration rather than promoting social exclusion.
- **Improving access to basic services such as water**: Extending the water network to include a greater number of rural villages appears particularly important in this context in Yemen. Current Government efforts to expand access to potable water in rural areas need to be accelerated, with a particular emphasis on extending public water networks to communities where school attendance is low and child labour rates are high, especially for girls.
- **Promoting adult literacy:** The empirical evidence indicates that providing parents with basic literacy skills has an important impact on rates of school enrolment. This points to the importance of expanding adult literacy and education programs as a strategy for increasing school participation and reducing child labour rates.

- **Improving coordination**: In light of the multi-sectoral nature of child labour, and of the many general policies affecting it, a unit is needed that monitors the different policies and evaluates them in a coherent manner from a child labour perspective. Co-ordination among the sectoral ministries in addressing child labour is currently very weak, and such a unit would provide an important institutional framework mechanism for addressing this problem.

17. **Addressing child labour in rural areas:** This would entail two specific initial policy objectives: (1) increasing the school enrolment rate of child agricultural workers, and particularly of female agricultural workers, and at the same time (2) removing children from the most hazardous forms of agricultural work.

18. **Addressing child labour in urban areas:** Child labour in urban areas occurs on a much more limited scale, but poses greater dangers to children's health and well-being. School attendance is also very low for urban working children, but low enrolment is a reflection more of cost, relevance and quality issues rather than of physical access. This argues for immediate efforts aimed at (1) removing children from all urban workplaces, and at the same time at (2) increasing the ability and willingness of households to invest in their children's education. Given the serious hazards posed by urban work, strategies for accommodating school with work seem less appropriate in the urban context.

19. **Addressing unconditional worst forms of child labour.** While the general policy measures discussed above will contribute to reducing worst forms of labour, additional, more targeted actions are also needed. In an initial stage, these include: (a) filling the information gap on unconditional worst forms of labour, to inform policies addressing worst forms of child labour; and (b) strengthening grassroots organisation to enable them to better reach street children, who are most at risk of involvement in worst forms of work.

20. **Implementing legislative, enforcement and monitoring measures**. The shortcomings in legislative framework point to two overall priorities: (a) bringing national legislation into conformity with international child labour norms; and (b) strengthening the Government's ability to enforce and monitor this legislation.

1. INTRODUCTION [3]

1.1 Background

21. The Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project is guided by the Oslo Agenda for Action, unanimously adopted at the 1997 International Conference on Child Labour, which laid out the priorities for the international community to fight against child labour. The Agenda specifically identified the crucial need to address the lack of data on child workers, and called for stronger co-operation amongst international agencies involved in addressing child labour. Through a variety of data collection, research and assessment activities, the UCW project is broadly directed towards increasing global- and local-level understanding of children's work, its causes and effects, how it can be measured, and what works in addressing it. The project is also directed towards improving synergies between the three implementing partners – ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank – in order to increase the effectiveness of their co-operation in child labour issues.[4]

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

23. The statistical information presented in the paper is drawn primarily from two recent household surveys – the 1998 Yemen Household Budget Monitoring Survey (YHBS 1998) and the 1999 Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey (YPMS 1999), both conducted by the Central Statistical Office. The first involved a stratified sample of 10,000 households and the second a stratified sample of 54,000 households. An ILO/IPEC rapid assessment conducted in 2000 is the primary source of qualitative information on the nature and hazards of child labour. The review also draws on a number of smaller-scale studies, qualitative as well as quantitative, Government and NGO reports, agency documents and other information sources. In the regression, the income data have been imputed to the National Poverty Survey 1999 using the information from the Household Budget Survey 1998, since the expenditure/income data in NPS are not satisfactory. As for the descriptive statistics on children's work, they were cross-checked with results from labour force surveys and found consistent. However, as discussed in detail in subsequent sections, household surveys in general do not capture the totality of the work done by children.

24. Following this introduction, Section 2 briefly reviews the Yemeni national context –socio-economic trends, and human development challenges. Section 3 looks at data on the extent of children's work, broken down by age, sex, residence and region, as well as at trends in work by children. Section 4 examines key

[3] Throughout this report the term "children's work" is used instead of "child labor" except when it is contextually accurate -- i.e., 1) when preceded by "unconditional worst forms" or "worst forms" (since we cannot say "worst forms of work"); 2) when discussing the ILO program, which specifically targets child labor; 3) when discussing other programs (e.g. of employers. associations) that also appear to specifically target child labor; and 4) when discussing the Oslo Conference, which used the child labor terminology. This distinction does not arise in other languages. For more information, see Box 1 of Section 3.1.

[4] For further information, see the project website at www.ucw-project.org.

characteristics of children's work, including the sectors where child workers are concentrated, the intensity of work, work hazards encountered by children, and unconditional worst forms of labour that children face. Section 5 analyses the consequences of children's work on education and health. Section 6 looks at major determinants of decisions relating to work and schooling, using the results of a regression analysis. Section 7 outlines the national policy response to child labour. Finally, Section 8 looks at strategic options for accelerating and strengthening national action against child labour.

1.2 Report development process

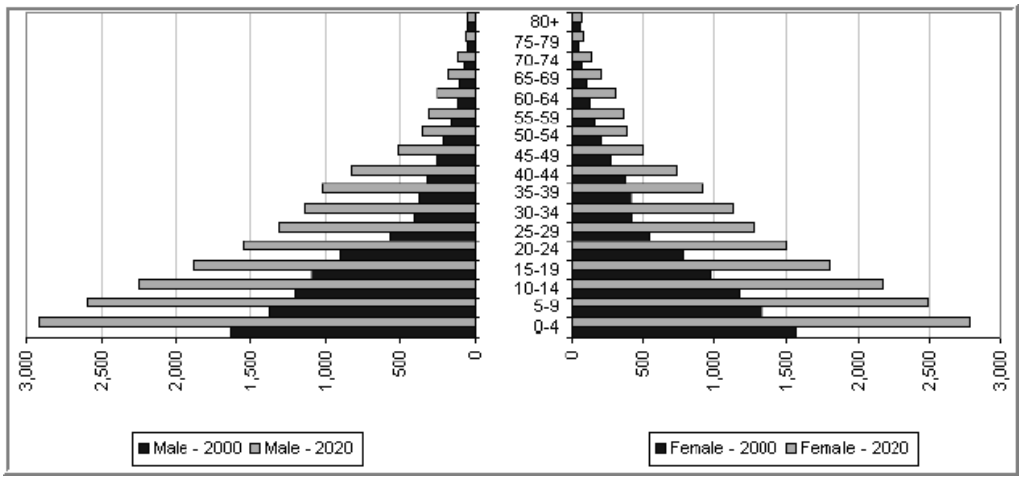
25. The report was developed under the overall auspices of a local working group established by the Government of Yemen and consisting of representatives from the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, Yemen Social Care Research Centre, Higher Council of Motherhood and Childhood, Social Fund for Development, Central Statistical Office, and local representatives of ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank. This local working group, headed by HE Abdulkarim Al-Arhabi, Minister of Social Affairs and Labour, developed the overall terms of reference for the report, and reviewed and provided feedback on the report contents. Background research and data analysis were carried out by local consultants and staff of the Central Statistical Office, in close co-ordination with the UCW project team. Two Central Statistical Office staff members travelled to the UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre in Florence, Italy to work with the UCW team on data analysis issues. Based on the background research and data analysis carried out by the local team, the first draft was compiled jointly by UCW and interagency staff. The report development process not only enhanced local ownership of the study but also facilitated interagency collaboration at the local level. This collaboration will guide the preparation of an action plan and facilitate the implementation of the report recommendations.

2. NATIONAL CONTEXT[5]

26. **Yemen covers an area of 528,000 square kilometres,** and is bounded by Red Sea to the west, the Gulf of Aden to the south, Oman to the east and Saudi Arabia to the north (see map). The country is characterised by great topographical variation. A narrow coastal plain is backed by hills and rugged mountains, while upland desert plains in the centre slope into the desert interior of the Arabian Peninsula. The mountainous geography keeps the population isolated and is a key impediment to providing access to water, schooling, roads and other basic services and infrastructure. Arable land constitutes only 3% of the total land mass, and is being diminished further by overgrazing, soil erosion and desertification. Natural fresh water supplies are extremely scarce, amounting to less than 130 cubic meters per capita per year, just 2% of the world average. The populous western highlands have groundwater supplies for no more than one or two generations, and in some major urban areas such as Sana'a, for much less time. Although the country's oil reserves are limited, Yemen has large natural gas reserves and significant deposits of gold, lead, zinc and other metals.

27. **The country's population of 18.7 million (mid-2002) is growing by about 3.4% annually,** placing a huge burden on the country's limited resources, and particularly its scarce water supplies. Population growth is fuelled by very high levels of fertility. Although fertility has fallen since 1990, Yemeni women still have an average of almost six children during their child-bearing years. Yemen's population age structure is very 'young', characteristic of a country experiencing rapid population growth. Almost one-half (47%) of the population is aged less than 15 years, and 18% is under the age of five years.[6] The youngest population cohorts will continue to grow rapidly in absolute terms over the next 20 years, even with a further fall in fertility (Figure 1). About 85% of the total population is concentrated in the western highlands. Three-quarters of the population is rural, much of it dispersed among more than 100,000 small and isolated settlements.

Figure 1. **Projected age distribution, 2000 and 2020**



Source: United States Agency fro International Development (USAID)

[5] This section is drawn primarily from World Bank, *Memorandum of the President of the International Development Association and the International Finance Corporation to the Executive Directors on a Country Assistance Strategy for the Republic Of Yemen*, June 2002.

[6] U.S. Bureau of the Census, International Data Base, 2002mid-year population.

28. **After twelve years of dramatic change, the country is by most measures better off than it was in 1990.** These changes included unification of north and south, return of at least 800,000 Yemenis from the Gulf, civil war, launching of a major program of economic and administrative reform, and wide swings in foreign exchange earnings as oil prices fluctuated. However, with a gross national product per capita of US$460, Yemen's people remain, on average, among the poorest in the world. Major constraints to sustainable employment-generating growth and good public services stand in the way of rapid improvements in the quality of life of the poor.

29. **The challenge of improving the quality of life can be understood by reference to basic indicators.** A large and rising proportion (37%) of workers are unemployed or underemployed. Basic health indicators – the infant mortality rate of 67 per 1,000, the under-five mortality rate of 95 per 1,000, and life expectancy of 61 years – are much improved since 1990 and better than the average of the poorest countries, but still unsatisfactory (Table 1). Malnutrition affects almost half of children under five. Education indicators, too, have improved but are very low – the adult literacy rate is only 45%, and the gross enrolment ratio for basic education is 62%. School quality is widely acknowledged to be poor. The gender gaps are among the widest in the world: girls' basic level school enrolment rate is 33 percentage points less than that of boys, child mortality is 15% percent higher for girls. Women and girls also have longer hours of work (usually unpaid), and much less freedom of female social and economic opportunity.

Table 1. ***Comparative Social Indicators***

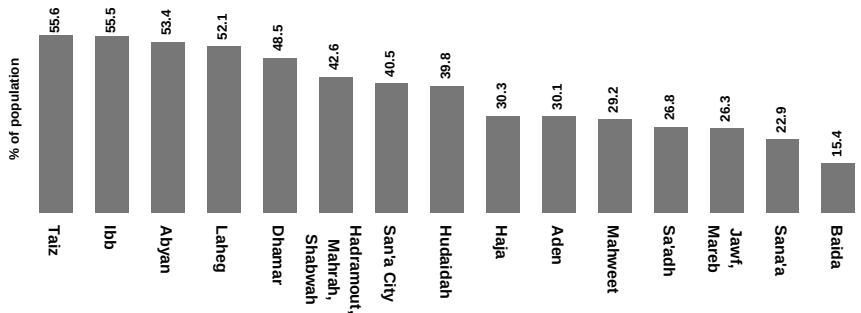
Indicator	Yemen 1990	Yemen 2000	Poorest countries(1)
Total fertility rate (births per woman)	7.7	6.0	5.0
Infant mortality (per 1000 live births)	107	67.4	94
Under-5 mortality (per 1000)	118	94.8	155
Life expectancy at birth (yrs)	52.8	61.1	51
Under-5 malnutrition (%)		46	36
Literacy rate (% of pop. 15+)	33	45	51
Female literacy rate (%)	13	24	41
Gross basic enrolment (%)	50	62	72
Female basic enrolment (%)	30	44	

Notes: (1) Most recent figure
Source:Central Statistical Office and World Bank

30. **Economic growth in the 1990s was impressive by historical and regional standards despite the impact of three major shocks** (drought in 1990-91, the Gulf war, and the 1994 civil war). GDP growth averaged 4. 1% during 1991-94, picked up to 8.3% during 1995-97, and decelerated to 4.6% during 1998-2000. For the whole decade, GDP grew by an annual average of 5.5%. However, with population growth rates of almost 4% during 1990-2000, per capita GDP growth over the decade was limited, rising by an annual average of only 1.5%. Much of the rise in overall GDP growth has been driven by the expansion of Yemen's oil sector, where production increased from an average of 350,000 b/d in 1994 to 450,000 b/d in 2000, a rise of some 30%. The gradual depletion of the country's limited oil reserves – oil production is expected to begin to fall in 2003 – clouds the country's future growth prospects. In 1995, the Government embarked on a programme for economic reforms and stabilisation. The programme aimed to enhance the foundations of a market-based and private sector-led economy and focused on stabilisation, price and trade liberalisation, strong fiscal adjustments and reform of the exchange rate regime.

31. **Growth has not translated into reduced levels of poverty.** According to the 1998 household budget survey (YHBS 1998), about 42% of the population lives below the poverty line (45% in rural areas, 31% in urban areas), and 18% of the population cannot afford adequate nutrition. Since a sizeable part of the population lives just above the poverty line, a moderate shock could increase the incidence of poverty dramatically. The Gini coefficient of 34.4 indicates that income inequality is less severe in Yemen than in many other countries in the region. Poverty is mostly a rural phenomenon: 77% of the total population, and 83% of the poor, live in rural areas. There are major disparities in poverty rates by region. About half of the poor are in 4 (out of 20) governorates: Taiz, Ibb, Sana'a region and Hodeidah. The incidence of poverty is lowest in Baida and in the city of Sana'a (Figure 3). Based on regression analysis, the key factors affecting the risk of being poor is lack of education, followed by geographic location. This confirms the need for poverty reduction strategies to emphasise education and take into account the economic potentials of the areas where the poor are concentrated.

Figure 2. **Poverty prevalence by region**



Source: *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey, 1999*.

32. **Access to basic services is very limited for much of the population.** Less than 20% of rural inhabitants have access to potable water and even fewer to safe sanitation (as compared with about 80% water access and 60% sanitation access in urban areas). Low water coverage is exacerbated by the poor state of repair of the water supply systems. About half of the piped rural water supply systems are either not working or not providing quality drinking water, and, at best, 10% of all wells and boreholes are adequately protected to yield safe water. Much of the population is also cut off from other basic services and infrastructure. Only 10% of the road network is paved, and much of the network (with the exception of most main highways) is in poor or very poor condition. Electricity reaches only about 35% of the population and generating capacity is falling behind demand. Telecommunications penetration, although increasing very rapidly, is still quite low (telephone line density is only 19 per 1000 people, and internet access less than one per 1000 people, about one-tenth that of Egypt).

33. **Yemen has seen important progress in the last decade in raising school enrolment rates.** The basic level gross enrolment rate was estimated at 62% in 2000, up from 50% in 1990. But the fact that over two million basic school-aged children remain out of school underscores that fact that expanding enrolment remains a huge challenge. This is especially the case for girls, whose level of enrolment in basic school is less than half that of boys. The large gender gap in enrolment stems from numerous factors: concerns about girls' contact with men and boys; a shortage of

women teachers; the lack of separate sanitation facilities in schools; the priority given to boys' education and parents' perception of girls' education; the distance to schools in rural areas; and the costs of uniforms and school supplies.[7] Improving the quality of schooling also continues to be a challenge, although recent Government efforts to update school curricula and textbooks and expand teacher training are beginning to redress this. Inadequate school buildings, shortages of textbooks and other teaching materials, and frequent teacher absenteeism are among the many quality-related challenges facing primary education.

34. **Yemen has also seen progress in improving health indicators.** As noted above, life expectancy has risen, and infant and under-five mortality have fallen, significantly since 1990. But levels of life expectancy remain unacceptably low, and rates of child death unacceptably high. Preventable problems such as diarrhoeal disease, acute respiratory infections and malaria, acting in concert with malnutrition, continue to pose substantial threats to the survival of children. Improving access to and the quality of the public health care system are major challenges in Yemen. Government healthcare facilities are understaffed, poorly equipped and short on supplies. Chronic under funding problems are made worse by the fact that most healthcare spending is allocated to salaries. According to World Bank figures, two-thirds of the total healthcare budget goes to pay wages. Travel time and costs of seeking medical care are serious access obstacles for all households in rural areas. Although health care is ostensibly free, patients often must themselves often supply items such as bandages, drips and medication.

35. **Despite important economic and social progress, Yemen's national context remains one conducive to child labour.** High levels of fertility and consequent high dependency ratios, widespread poverty, frequent exposure to collective shocks, low levels of access to basic services, and problems of school access and quality, all represent important motivations for households to involve their children in work rather than to invest in their schooling.

[7] UNICEF Yemen, *Country Note – Yemen*, UNICEF Executive Board document no. E/ICEF/2001/P/L.49, 2001.

3. EXTENT OF CHILDREN'S WORK IN YEMEN

3.1 Children's work defined

36. **For the purposes of this paper, "children's work" is defined as any form of economic activity performed by children.** Economic activity, in turn, as defined by the UN System of National Accounts (1993 Rev. 3), is a broad concept that encompasses most productive activities by children, including unpaid and illegal work, work in the informal sector, and production of goods for own use.[8] This operational definition of work by children does *not* include household chores, which are non-economic activities, and therefore outside the 'production boundary', according the UN System of National Accounts (1993 Rev. 3). But this distinction between work and chores is essentially technical, as both can interfere with school and leisure, and both can pose health risks.[9] Data on economically active children have often been used as a proxy for those on child labour that needs elimination.

Box 1. **Child work, or children's work, versus child labour**

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

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

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

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

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

ILO Conventions No. 138 (Minimum Age) and No. 182 (Worst Forms) target as child labour 1) *all forms of work* carried out by children below a minimum cut-off age (at least 12 years in less developed countries, as is the case in Yemen), 2) *all forms except 'light work'* carried out by children below a second higher cut-off age (at least 14 years in less developed countries, including Yemen), and 3) *all 'worst forms' of child labour,* including hazardous types of work, carried out by children of any age under 18.[10]

The Government of Yemen, as reflected in the Yemeni Child Rights Law adopted in 2002, views as illegal child labour all work performed by children aged less than 14, as well as all industrial work performed by children aged less than 15 years. The law does *not*, however, consider work performed by children in family enterprises as child labour, regardless of age.

[8] In Yemen, on the other hand, Labour Act 1995 defines working children simply as working persons under the age of 15. The law does not specify a minimum working age.

[9] YPMS 1999 unfortunately did not collect information concerning involvement in household chores, and therefore household chores are not dealt with in this report.

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

37. Not all work by children is equivalent to child labour that must be singled out for elimination. Child labour is a narrower concept that refers only to negative or undesirable forms of work that should be eliminated (see Box 1). This report does not attempt to draw a clear statistical line between benign forms of work, on one side, and child labour, on the other. There are two main reasons for this. First, and most importantly, there is no clear legal consensus concerning what specific types of work constitute child labour (see Box 1). Second, even assuming such a consensus, drawing this line would require detailed information about the work tasks and work conditions of children in each of industrial sectors in which they are found. This information was not collected by YPMS 1999 or the other major household surveys conducted recently in Yemen. The report therefore attempts to instead provide the information, and identify the data gaps that need to be filled, in order that the Government is able to draw this line, based on national laws and guided by international child labour norms.

38. Unless otherwise indicated, the discussion on the prevalence of children engaged in work refers to the 6-14 years age group. The upper bound of 14 years is consistent with consistent with the ILO Convention No. 138 on Minimum Age,[11] which states that the minimum age for admission to employment or work should not be less than 15 years (Art. 2.3).[12] Fourteen years is also the age at which the nine-year basic schooling cycle ends, and can be considered the threshold age after which children begin to exercise a degree of control over their time allocations, i.e., the age at which children begin to become "free agents". The lower bound of six years coincides with the age at which children start formal schooling.

3.2 Total prevalence of work by children

39. **Work by children is common in Yemen**. An estimated 700,000 children aged 6-14 years – 12% of this age group – are engaged in work.[13] But this estimate, based on YPMS 1999, likely understates children's actual involvement in work-related activities. There are two main reasons for this. First, household surveys such as YPMS 1999 are ill-suited to capture so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour,[14] because of the unlikelihood that these morally repugnant or dangerous activities are reported by a household member to a survey interviewer, even if the child in question is still part of the household. Indeed, households may not even be aware that their children are involved in these activities. Unconditional worst forms of child labour are discussed further in section 4 of this report. Second, YPMS 1999 did not examine children's involvement in household chores.

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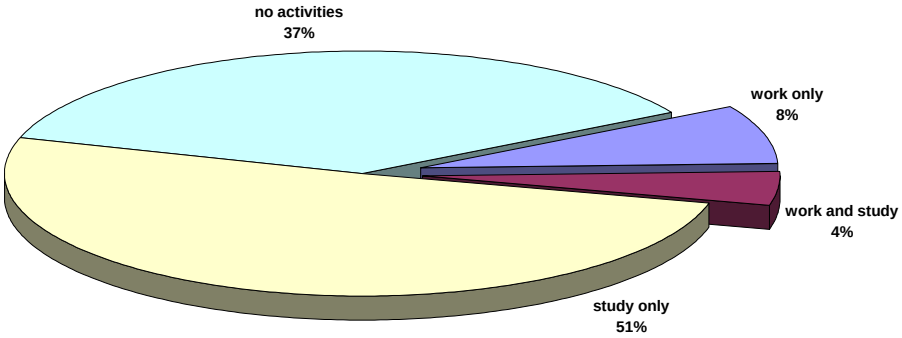
[11] The Convention sets a general minimum age of 13 years for light work. In countries where the economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed the Convention sets a minimum age of not less than 14 years for general work, and 12 years for light work, for an initial period. Yemen has at the time it ratified the Convention specified 14 years as the applicable general age for admission to employment.

[12] It should be noted, however, that the stipulations contained in ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 relating to hazardous work, excessively long work hours and unconditional worst forms, also extend to children aged 15-17 years. Likewise, the Convention on the Rights of the Child applies to all persons under the age of 18.

[13] UCW calculations based on the Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey 1999. Eight percent of total 6-14 years-olds work without going to school, while only 4% combine school and work.

[14] As defined by ILO Convention No. 182. Categories considered by ILO Convention No. 182 as unconditional worst forms include: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; and (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties.

Figure 3. **Distribution of Yemeni children by activity status**



Source: *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999.

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

Type of Activity	Residence	Male		Female		Total[2]	
		%	No.[1]	%	No.[1]	%	No.[1]
Work only	Urban	1.5	9.6	1.1	7.0	1.3	16.6
	Rural	6.1	131.3	13.9	277.8	9.9	409.1
	Total	5.0	140.8	10.8	284.8	7.9	425.6
Study only	Urban	78.6	512.8	73.8	465.2	76.3	978.0
	Rural	57.7	1,236.4	27.3	546.1	43	1,782.5
	Total	62.6	1,749.3	38.4	1,011.3	50.9	2,760.5
Work and study	Urban	2.5	16.0	0.6	3.8	1.5	19.8
	Rural	7.4	159.2	2.4	47.7	5.0	206.9
	Total	6.3	175.2	2.0	51.5	4.2	226.6
No activities[3]	Urban	17.5	113.9	24.5	154.2	20.9	268.1
	Rural	28.7	614.2	56.4	1,128.9	42.1	1,743.1
	Total	26.1	728.1	48.8	1,283.1	37.1	2,011.2
Total work[4]	Urban	3.9	25.5	1.7	10.8	2.8	36.4
	Rural	13.6	290.5	16.3	325.5	14.9	615.9
	Total	11.3	316.0	12.8	336.3	12.1	652.3
Total study[5]	Urban	81.1	528.8	74.4	469.0	77.8	997.8
	Rural	65.2	1,395.6	29.7	593.7	48.0	1,989.4
	Total	68.9	1,924.4	40.4	1,062.8	55.1	2,987.2

Notes: (1) Numbers expressed in thousands; (2) Totals may not add up due to rounding; (3) 'No activities' refers to children who neither attend school nor work; (4) 'Total work' refers to children that work only and children that work and study; (5) 'Total study' refers to children that study only and children that work and study.
Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999

Although, as noted above, household chores do not fall within the formal definition of work, their implications for child welfare are similar to those of work. Indeed, household chores such as fetching water can conflict with formal education just as much as, or in the case of girls even more than, work activities such as bringing in the harvest or helping in the family enterprise.

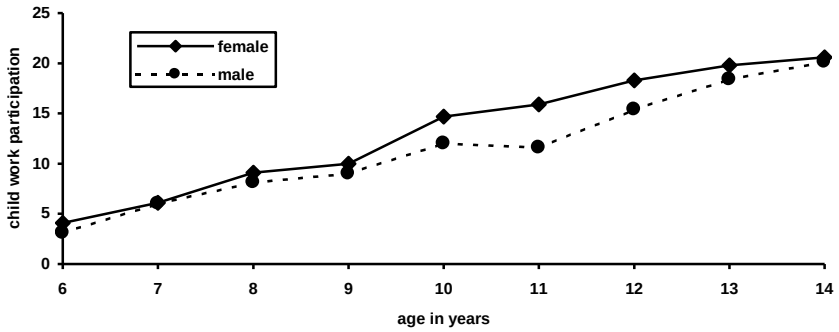
40. **A large portion (37%) of the remaining children in the 6-14 age group is reportedly involved in no activities** (Figure 4). This group requires further investigation, but it stands to reason that many from this group are in reality also

performing functions that contribute in some way to household welfare, i.e., either working or doing household chores.[15] 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 than many forms of work offer. Research elsewhere suggests that this is also the group that is most at risk of entering work should a household be faced with a sudden loss of income or other type of shock.[16] Reportedly idle children are therefore also an important target group.

3.3 Prevalence of work by children by gender and age

41. **Girls are more likely than boys to be involved in work, and are much less likely than boys to attend school.** Girls' work participation rate is 12.8%, 1.5 percentage points greater than that for boys. However, the actual gender gap in work involvement is probably greater, as girls are almost twice as likely as boys to be reported as involved in 'no activities' (49% versus 21%), a category which also likely captures unreported work or involvement in household chores (see above). Girls' involvement in schooling, on the other hand, is far lower than that of boys. Among working children, 56% of boys are in school against only 16% of girls. Among non-working children, the school enrolment rate is 71% for boys compared to only 44% for girls (Table 2). Redressing this gender imbalance in school enrolment constitutes a key national policy priority (section 7).

Figure 4. **Child work prevalence, by age and sex**



Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999

42. **Children's involvement in work increases with age** (Figure 4). This is a likely reflection both of the higher opportunity costs of school in terms of earnings forgone as a child gets older and of the more limited schooling opportunities at the higher grades. While less than 5% of six and seven year-olds are economically active, over 20% of children are working by the age of 14. But the absolute number of very young Yemeni children engaged in work is nonetheless significant. Some 120,000 children aged 6-8 years, and some 344,000 children aged 6-11 years, are economically active. These very young working children are the most vulnerable to workplace abuses, and most at risk of work-related ill-health or injury.

[15] Parents may falsely report their children as being idle instead of as working because (at best) work by children is forbidden or (at worst) because their children are engaged in illegal or dangerous activities. Alternatively, parents may misinterpret the survey question, and report a child as idle because he or she was not working at the time of the interview, although he or she may work during other periods.

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

3.4 Prevalence of work by children by residence and region

43. **Children's work is essentially a rural phenomenon in Yemen.** The prevalence of work done by children in rural areas (14.9%) is more than five times that of urban areas (2.8%); rural child workers account for 94% of total child workers. Rural children are also twice as likely to be reported as involved in no activities. Urban children, on the other hand, are more than twice as likely as rural children to attend school.

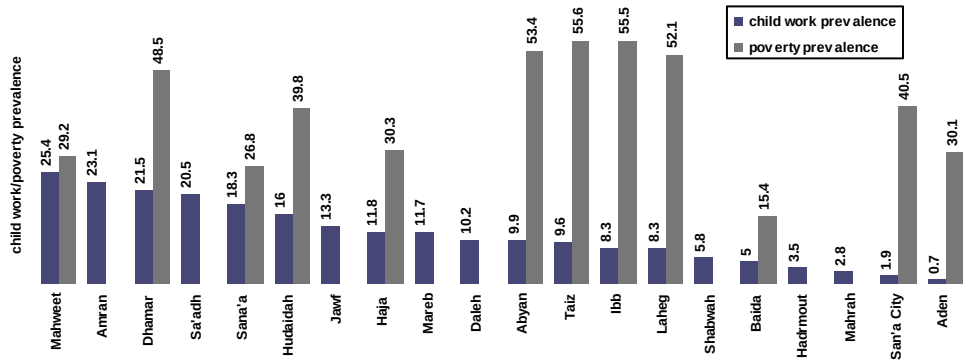
44. **Regional differences in children's work rates are considerable.** Labour force participation rates are highest in the Mahweet and Amran governorates, where around one in four children aged 6-14 years are engaged in work. In cities of Sana'a and Aden, by contrast, only 1.9% and 0.7%, respectively, of children work. The greatest absolute numbers of working children are found in Amran, Dhamar, Sana'a, Hudaidah and Haja. These five governorates account for over half of the country's total child workers. The reasons for the large differentials by governorate require further investigation. Rates of work by children do not appear to bear any clear relationship to rates of poverty at the governorate level (Figure 6), underscoring the need to identify other policy instruments, beyond poverty reduction, to address children's work.

Table 3. **Child activity status, by governorate**

	Work only		Study only		Work and study		No activities		Total[2]	
Governorate	**No.[1]**	**%**	**No.[1]**	**%**	**No.[1]**	**%**	**No.[1]**	**%**	**No.[1]**	**%**
Mahweet	20.3	15.9	50.9	39.9	12.2	9.6	44.2	34.7	127.6	100.0
Amran	40.1	14.5	117.5	42.4	23.8	8.6	95.7	34.5	277.2	100.0
Dhamar	49.1	13.7	131.0	36.6	27.9	7.8	150.4	42	358.4	100.0
Sa'adh	28.2	15.3	65.6	35.6	9.6	5.2	81.0	43.9	184.4	100.0
Sana'a	44.8	11.3	160.0	40.2	27.8	7.0	165.0	41.5	397.5	100.0
Hudaidah	69.8	12.5	226.2	40.6	19.7	3.5	242.1	43.4	557.7	100.0
Jawf	17.6	9.4	72.6	38.7	7.3	3.9	90.2	48	187.8	100.0
Haja	39.0	8.2	175.5	36.9	16.9	3.6	243.9	51.3	475.4	100.0
Mareb	6.1	7.6	38.1	47.7	3.3	4.1	32.5	40.6	80.0	100.0
Daleh	7.2	5.9	60.2	49.6	5.3	4.3	48.7	40.1	121.3	100.0
Abyan	7.7	6.9	60.6	54.2	3.4	3.1	40.2	35.9	111.9	100.0
Taiz	33.2	5.0	414.5	62.6	30.7	4.6	184.1	27.8	662.6	100.0
Ibb	30.6	5.0	344.5	56.5	20.0	3.3	214.3	35.2	609.4	100.0
Laheg	8.6	4.6	112.5	60.5	6.7	3.6	57.9	31.2	185.8	100.0
Shabwah	6.7	4.1	84.6	51.8	2.8	1.7	69.2	42.4	163.3	100.0
Baida	6.9	3.7	99.2	52.9	2.5	1.4	78.9	42.1	187.5	100.0
Hadrmout	6.7	3.0	134.3	59.1	1.2	0.5	84.8	37.3	227.1	100.0
Mahrah	0.5	2.7	9.4	55.5	0.0	0.1	7.1	41.7	17.0	100.0
San'a City	2.4	0.6	316.0	81.4	5.0	1.3	64.9	16.7	388.3	100.0
Aden	0.3	0.3	87.2	84.0	0.4	0.4	15.9	15.3	103.9	100.0
Total[2]	425.6	8.0	2,760.5	51.0	226.6	4.0	2,011.2	37.0	5,424.0	100.0

Notes: (1) Numbers expressed in thousands; (2) Numbers may not add up due to rounding
Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999

Figure 5. **Child work prevalence by region**

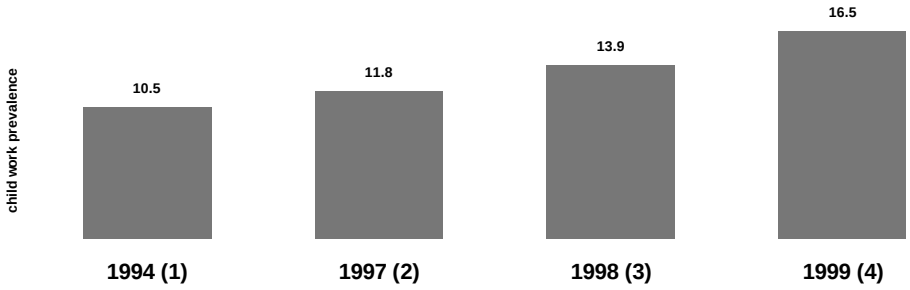


Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey, 1999*.

3.5 Trends in prevalence of work by children

45. **Prevalence of work by children appears to be rising in Yemen.** The 16.5% estimate of work prevalence among 10-14 year olds17 from YPMS 1999 compares with an estimate of 13.9% from YHBS 1998, an estimate of 11.8% from the 1997 Yemen Demographic and Health Survey, and an estimate of 10.5% from the 1994 Population Census (Figure 7). However, differences in survey methodologies mean that caution must be exercised in reading too much into comparisons of the survey results. Population census, for example, systematically underestimate children's work, meaning that the 1994 baseline estimate of 10.5% is probably too low. At a minimum, however, it can be safely concluded that there has been no reduction in the prevalence of work by children in the last eight years.

Figure 6. **Work prevalence, children aged 10-14 years, selected years, 1994-1999**



Sources: (1) *Population Census*, 1994; (2) *Demographic and Health Survey*, 1997; (3) *Household Budget Survey* (1998); (4) *Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999.

[17] The prevalence estimate for the 10-14 age group is used to allow comparison with previous surveys.

4. CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN'S WORK

4.1 Sector and modality of work

46. **The overwhelming majority of Yemeni working children is found in the agriculture sector.** Ninety-two percent of total working children aged 10-14 years, or, in absolute terms, 440,000 of the total 475,000 working children in this age group, are involved in farm work.[18] This, however, is primarily a reflection of work by children in rural areas, where 95% of working children are involved in agriculture. Children working in urban areas are more even spread among agriculture (42%), commerce (35%), and other sectors (17%). The work performed by children varies somewhat by sex. Working girls are more likely to be involved in agriculture, but much less likely to be involved in commerce, than their male counterparts, with the differences particularly pronounced in urban areas (Table 4).

Table 4. **Working children (aged 10-14) by industrial sector, residence and sex**

Sector		Urban			Rural			Total		
		Male	Female	Total(2)	Male	Female	Total(2)	Male	Female	Total(2)
Agriculture	%	31.7	74.3	42.1	92.9	97.3	95.2	87.2	96.6	92
	No.(1)	6.9	5.2	12.1	195.6	231.2	426.8	202.5	236.4	438.9
Commerce	%	42.8	11.2	35.1	3.8	0.3	2	7.4	0.6	3.9
	No.(1)	9.3	0.8	10.0	8.0	0.8	8.8	17.2	1.6	18.8
Services	%	5.8	1.2	4.7	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.3	0.6
	No.(1)	1.3	0.1	1.3	0.9	0.6	1.5	2.1	0.7	2.8
Private household work	%	0.9	1.4	1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
	No.(1)	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.0	0.5	0.7	1.3
Other	%	18.9	11.9	17.2	2.7	1.9	2.3	4.2	2.1	3.2
	No.(1)	4.1	0.8	4.9	5.7	4.4	10.1	9.8	5.2	15.0
Total(2)	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	No.(1)	21.7	7.0	28.7	210.5	237.6	448.2	232.2	244.6	476.8

Notes: (1) Numbers expressed in thousands; (2) Numbers may not sum due to rounding.

Source: UCW calculations based on *Household Budget Survey 1998*

Table 5. **Distribution of working children (aged 10-14) by mode of work and main industrial sector**

Industry	Mode of work											
	wage employed			Self employed			family worker			Apprentice		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Agriculture	4.77	1.86	3.20	6.70	5.43	6.01	88.02	92.15	90.25	0.51	0.56	0.54
Commerce	25.65	3.71	23.82	23.71	33.19	24.51	50.63	63.10	51.68	--	--	--
Services	56.75	64.57	58.67	13.69	3.07	11.08	27.75	32.37	28.89	1.80	--	1.36
Private HH work	29.31	34.76	32.50	56.04	--	23.18	14.65	65.24	44.31	--	--	--
Other	42.78	16.19	33.50	16.67	21.39	18.32	40.55	61.63	47.91	--	0.78	0.27
Total	8.46	2.46	5.38	8.55	5.93	7.21	82.53	91.06	86.90	0.46	0.56	0.51

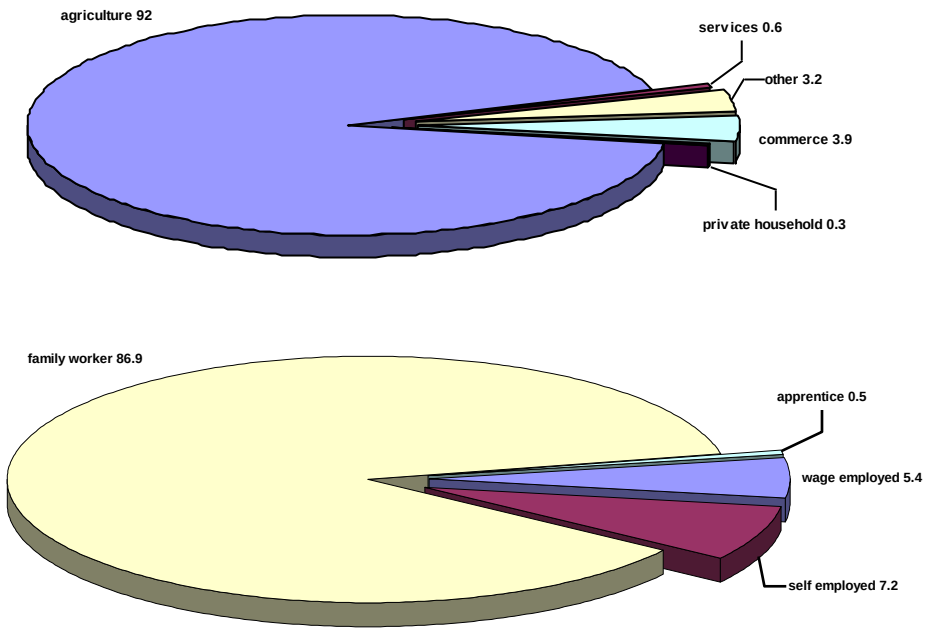
Source: UCW calculations based on *Household Budget Survey 1998*

47. **Most (87%) of working children work for their families and not for wages.** These children fall outside the provisions of the Labour Act governing children's

[18] UCW calculations based on the 1998 Household Budget Survey.

work (Section 8). Family work is especially important in the agriculture sector, where it accounts for more than nine out of 10 working children. It is less important in commerce, the only other sector employing significant numbers of children. In the commerce sector, about half of children work for their families, with the remainder divided roughly equally between wage earners and self-employed (Table 5). Again, some differences by sex exist. Boys are slightly less likely than girls to work for their families, but more likely than girls to be wage- or self-employed. The proportion of children, both boys and girls, working as apprentices is marginal.

Figure 7. **Distribution of child workers by sector and modality of work**



Source: UCW calculations based on *Household Budget Survey 1998.*

4.2 Intensity of work

48. **Working children in Yemen put in long hours.** Working children put in an average of almost 38.5 hours of work per week, i.e., almost as much as a full-time adult worker in the industrial world. Thirteen and 14 year-old working children put in the longest hours (40.6 hours per week), but even six and seven year-old working children put in a 34-hour workweek on average. Working children who also attend school work an average of 35 hours per week, fewer than their out-of-school counterparts, but still undoubtedly too many to be able to effectively perform in school (Section 5). There is only slight variation in hours worked by sector (Table 7).

Table 6. **Average daily working hours, by age and school enrolment status**

Age	Working without being enrolled in school			Working and enrolled in school			All working children		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
7[(1)]	5.2	4.8	5	4.8	4.5	4.6	5.2	4.7	4.9
8	5.7	5.6	5.7	4.4	4.3	4.3	5.4	4.9	5.2
9	5.3	5.3	5.3	4.2	4.8	4.6	5.1	4.9	5
10	5.9	6	6	4.7	5.4	5.2	5.7	5.6	5.7
11	6.3	6.3	6.3	4.7	4.8	4.8	6	5.3	5.7
12	5.9	6.1	5.9	5.4	5	5.1	5.8	5.4	5.6
13	6	6.4	6.1	4.8	5.2	5.1	5.8	5.7	5.8
14	5.8	6.3	6	4.4	5.5	5.3	5.7	5.9	5.8
Total	5.8	6	5.9	4.7	5	5	5.7	5.4	5.5

Note: Six year-olds are excluded because of late school entrance.
Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999

Table 7. **Average weekly working hours, working children aged 10-14 years, by sector, sex, and residence**

Industry	Urban			Rural			Total		
	male	Female	total	male	Female	total	male	female	total
Agriculture	36.9	32.4	34.9	32.8	35.0	34.0	33.0	34.9	34.0
Commerce	39.5	35.8	39.2	34.5	38.6	34.9	37.2	37.2	37.2
Services	40.9	40.9	40.9	27.1	14.5	23.0	35.2	18.8	32.0
Private household work	42.3	22.4	35.4	32.2	34.2	33.5	35.8	32.6	33.9
Other	45.8	29.7	43.1	37.9	28.1	33.7	41.2	28.4	36.8
Total	39.9	32.4	38.1	33.0	34.8	34.0	33.6	34.7	34.2

Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999

4.3 Hazardous forms of work

49. **Available evidence suggests that children can face hazardous conditions[19] in many of the sectors in which they work.** YPMS 1999 did not look at work tasks and workplace conditions in sufficient detail to permit an assessment of the hazardousness of the various forms of work that children perform. However, preliminary findings from an on-going ILO/IPEC rapid assessment points to a variety of work-related hazards encountered by children.[20] These include:

- *agriculture:* chemicals from use of pesticides, lengthy exposure to extreme cold and heat, handling heavy agricultural equipment and carrying heavy loads;
- *construction:* chemical toxins, handling paints;
- *car repair workshops*: respiratory problems from inhaling fumes, physical injuries, burns, electrocution;
- *stone cutting and quarry work:* lifting and crushing heavy rocks;
- *machine welding:* lead poisoning, extreme heat; and
- *restaurants:* sexual abuse.

[19] ILO Convention No. 182 targets as hazardous work any activity or occupation which, by its nature or type has, or leads to, adverse effects on the child's safety, health (physical or mental), and moral development. (International Labour Office, *Every Child Counts: New Global Estimates on Child Labour*, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour, Geneva, April 2002.)

[20] ILO/IPEC, *Rapid Assessment of Working Children in Yemen*, preliminary unpublished findings. Sanaa, November 2002. These findings will be elaborated on further upon completion of the rapid assessment.

50. **Available evidence suggests that working children also face other forms of exploitation in their workplaces.** The preliminary findings of the ILO/IPEC rapid assessment indicate that working children are paid very low wages, and work without written contracts between the children (and/or their parents) and employers. They typically do not benefit from health insurance, and therefore receive no compensation in the event of injury or illness. Working hours are typically very long (see above), and holidays are few.

4.4 Unconditional worst forms of child labour

51. **In Yemen as in most countries, information about children involved in so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour[21] is extremely scarce**. This is due both to the methodological difficulties inherent in investigating them and to their cultural sensitivity. As noted above, the Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey and similar household surveys are not designed to generate information about children involved in these forms of work. However, reports from other sources, e.g., journalists, NGOs, and human rights organisations, though frequently sketchy, provide at least a partial picture.

52. **Child trafficking. Recent press reports indicate that the phenomenon of child trafficking exists in Yemen, albeit to an unknown extent.** The official newspaper of the Ministry of Interior in 2002 reported the arrest of a band of traffickers with 22 trafficked children en route to Saudi Arabia, and indicated that this was not the first such arrest.[22] The official newspaper *Al-Thawra* also reported in 2002 the existence of organised gangs for trafficking children to Saudi Arabia.[23] Taking in consideration the weak capacity of Yemeni border officials to detect child trafficking, arrests likely represent only a very small proportion of the children trafficked every year to Saudi Arabia and other countries in the region. There are other reports of increasing numbers of disabled and disfigured Yemen children being smuggled into Saudi Arabia for use in begging, particularly during the period of Ramadan.

53. **Children in forced or bonded labour.** The law does not prohibit forced or bonded labour by children specifically, but these worst forms are not known to occur.[24]

54. **Child involvement in armed conflict.** Although Yemen's laws specify 18 as the minimum recruitment age, there are indications of under-18s in government armed forces. Entry into the army is seen by many as a privilege and the demand for army places is high because of limited employment opportunities elsewhere. Children in the Yemeni countryside can be seen carrying weapons and acting as guards on *Qat* (a mild narcotic) farms. This can draw them into armed conflicts, which are frequently

[21] Activities targeted by ILO Convention No. 182. as unconditional worst forms include: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; and (c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties. ILO Convention No. 182 also targets as worst forms any work that is hazardous to the health, safety or morals of children.

[22] *Al-Hares* No. 412 on 20/8/2002

[23] *Al-Thawra* No.13763 on 18/7/2002

[24] United States Department of State, op. cit.

motivated by questions of access to *Qat* fields.[25] Yemen has ratified ILO Convention 182 and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), but has not ratified the optional protocol to the CRC on the involvement of children in armed conflict.

55. **Commercial sexual exploitation of children.** This issue has not been investigated in any large survey. However, in a small-scale survey by Radda Barnen in 1997, a significant percentage of children claimed that they were sexually exploited. More research is needed in this area.

56. **Child involvement in street life.** Involvement in illicit activities is limited primarily to children living and/working on the streets. The total extent of the street children phenomenon in the country is not known, and available estimates vary widely. A 2000 study states that there could be as many as 29,000 street children in Sana'a alone, although this figure stems from the unlikely assumption that all urban children reported as neither working nor attending school are on the street.[26] A 1993 report estimated that there were some 7,000 children begging on the streets of Sana'a, but the methodology upon which this estimate was based is not clear.[27] A third estimate, based on the 1999 poverty mapping, put the number of children working on the streets at 35,000 nationwide. Available information indicates that Yemen's street children, whatever their exact number, face harsh living conditions and are vulnerable to numerous abuses. Some of the worst off are forced to beg or steal to support themselves; others fall prey to adults who involve them in prostitution, drug-trafficking and other illicit activities. Cases of sexual abuse, psychological trauma, drug addiction are common among these children.[28]

[25] Coalition to Stop the Use of the Child Soldiers, *Child Soldiers Global Report 2001,Yemen* (http://childsoldiers.amnesty.it/cs/childsoldiers.nsf/ReportCountryFullDetails?OpenView&Start=1.121&Count=151&ExpandView)

[26] Othman, Ali, *Social and Economic Situation of Street Children in Sana'a City*. UNICEF, 2000.

[27]. Azo'ebi, Mohammed and Ali Hummad, Noria "Child Begging phenomenon in Yemen", *Dirasat Yamania*, No. 50, 1993, as cited in Yemeni NGO Coalition for Children's Rights, *Alternative report on the implementation of the CRC* , submitted to the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, January 1996.

[28] ILO/IPEC, Rapid Assessment of Working Children in Yemen, preliminary unpublished findings, Sanaa, November 2002.

5. CONSEQUENCES OF WORK ON CHILD WELFARE

57. **YPMS 1999 generated data on two dimensions of child welfare – schooling and health.** Beyond these two areas, however, little information is available regarding the impact of child work on child welfare in the Yemeni context. Further information is needed regarding the influence of work on (1) the material aspects of child welfare, e.g., nutritional status, consumption (on food and clothes as well as on medical care), lifetime health prospects, and future earning capacity, as well as on (2) the non-material aspects of child welfare, e.g. parental attention, freedom to play, and moral and social development. Many of these issues pose large measurement problems, and have only scarcely begun to be investigated by researchers, in Yemen or elsewhere.

58. School attendance is very low among working children, limiting their prospects for securing more gainful employment in the future. Only about one-third (36%) of 10-14 year-old working children attend school, compared to 58% of their non-working counterparts. Attendance is especially low for working girls – just 14% of them go to school. The ability to attend school appears to depend somewhat on the sector of work. Less that 25% of children in private household work attend school, for example, compared to over 60% of children in commerce (Table 8). For working children that do manage to also attend school, work reduces with the time (and presumably the energy) they have to study. As noted above, these children still must put in a long workweek, 34 hours on average. The relationship between work and school performance has not been investigated in the Yemeni context, but evidence from elsewhere suggests that school performance declines appreciably with additional hours worked.[29]

Table 8. **Enrolment rate of working children (aged 10-14 years) by industry**

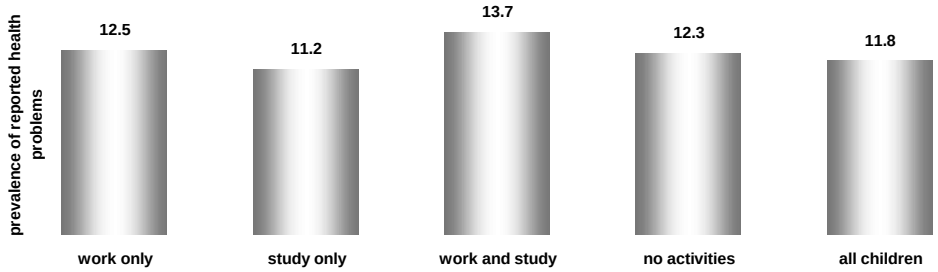
Industry	Enrolment rate		
	Female	Male	Total
Agriculture	13.8	60.1	35.1
Commerce	45.2	60.9	59.6
Services	7.8	39.1	31.4
Private household work	24.7	23.4	24.2
Other	17.7	38.2	31.1
Total working children	14.1	58.9	35.9
Total all children	46.0	82.0	64.9

Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey 1999*.

59. **Working children do not report significantly more health problems than children attending school or children in no activities** (Figure 8). Around 12.5% of full-time working children reportedly experienced health problems in the month prior to the 1999 Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey, compared to 11.2% of full-time students and 12.3% of children involved in no activities. Reported ill-health was slightly higher for children combining school and work, at 13.7%. However, it is possible that these figures understate the total health effects of work. The health

[29] See, for example, Rosati F. and Rossi M., *Children's Working Hours, School Enrolment And Human Capital Accumulation: Evidence From Pakistan And Nicaragua*, Understanding Children's Work, October 2001.

Figure 8. Prevalence of reported health problems, by child activity status



Source: UCW calculation based on Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey, 1999

consequences of work, for example, may be obscured by the selection of the healthiest children for work, or by the fact these health consequences may not become apparent until a later stage in a child's life. It may also be that is it not work *per se* that is damaging to health, but health certain kinds of work, a fact that is concealed when looking at prevalence of health problems averaged across all categories of child workers. Finally, it must also be recalled that YPMS 1999 did not capture unconditional worst forms of child labour, whose health consequences for children are undoubtedly most severe. Information on the nutritional status of working children is not available, but YPMS 1999 indicated that the rate of under-five malnutrition is only very slightly higher among families with working children compared to those without working children (Table 9).

Table 9. **Prevalence of under-five malnutrition*, by child work status**

	% of under-fives with below average weight for age*	
	Households with working children	Households without working children
Rural	50.1	49.5
Urban	43.4	41.9
Total	49.7	47.4

*percentage of under-fives whose weight for age is more than two standards deviations below that of a reference population
Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey 1999*.

60. **The rate of job-related illness and injury is another important indicator of the health effects of work.** Almost 8% of working children suffered some from of work-related injury or illness in the month preceding the 1999 Yemen Labour Force Survey (Table 10). Serious injuries were incurred by a smaller, but by no means insignificant, proportion of working children. One percent of total working children – roughly 3,300 in absolute terms – suffered either partial loss of limb, temporary disability or burns. Injury rates appear lowest in the agriculture and commerce sectors, although this may be a reflection of under-reporting. Family work plays large role in both these sectors, and family heads may be less inclined to report injuries sustained to children while working under their supervision. Rates of injury appear highest in private household work, but the small number of observations means that this result also must be treated with caution.

Table 10. **Prevalence of work-related injury among working children, by injury type, sector and sex**

Sector	No Injuries	Partial loss of limb	Temporary disability	Work-related illness	Burns	Other injuries	Total
Agriculture	92.69	0.10	0.76	3.73	0.10	2.61	100.00
Commerce	90.22	0.00	0.00	6.64	0.00	3.14	100.00
Services	76.42	0.00	0.00	20.07	0.00	3.51	100.00
Private HH work	33.53	66.47	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Other	84.01	0.00	0.00	4.59	0.00	11.40	100.00
Total (all sectors)	92.28	0.20	0.71	3.98	0.09	2.73	100.00

Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Labour Force Survey 1999*.

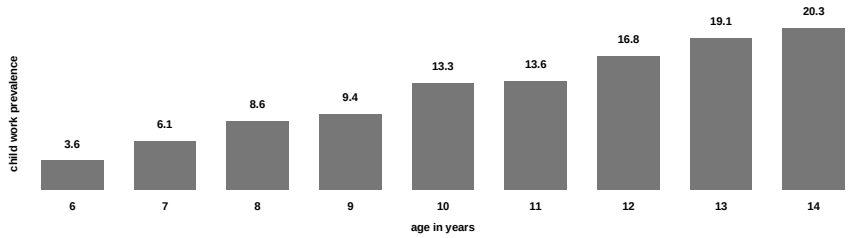
6. DETERMINANTS OF CHILDREN'S WORK AND SCHOOLING

61. As most children (excluding those that live on their own) exercise little control over their time allocations, determining why children work requires investigating why parents choose to engage their children in work rather than sending them to school or leaving them idle. A regression analysis[30] using the YPMS 1999 dataset points to some of the factors influencing parents' choices. The qualitative inferences from this analysis are presented below. The estimated regression coefficients are presented in Annex B.[31]

62. **Gender**: Parents' decisions concerning whether to involve their children in school or work appears strongly influenced by gender in Yemen. Holding constant household income, parents' education and other relevant factors, girls are more likely to work full-time (by five percentage points) and much less likely to study full-time (25 percentage points), than boys. Girls are also much more likely than boys to be reported as idle[32] (23 percentage points), a category that can reflect unreported work or involvement in household chores.

63. **Age**: The analysis shows that the probability of a child working increases with age (Figure 10). 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 with age of the child, or the lack of access to schooling at the post-primary level.

Figure 9. **Child work prevalence by age in years**



Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey*, 1999.

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

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

[32] I.e. neither working nor attending school.

64. **School availability**: The presence of a basic cycle school in a village increases school enrolment by almost four percentage points. The increase in enrolment, however, comes primarily from the group of children involved in no activities; the presence of a basic cycle school appears to have only a relatively small effect on parents' decision to involve their children in work.[33] The effect of a Koranic school in a village also increases enrolment by about four percentage points, while the effect of secondary school in a village is slightly larger, increasing enrolment by almost five percentage points. The presence of a secondary school reduces in almost equal measure the proportion of children working and the proportion that are idle, suggesting that these schools attract children who otherwise would have left the school system to either start work or remain idle. The effect of school availability on enrolment is, perhaps surprisingly, weaker for girls than boys, in the case of basic cycle schools, but much stronger for girls than boys in the case of secondary cycle schools. It is also much stronger for girls than boys in the case of Koranic schools.

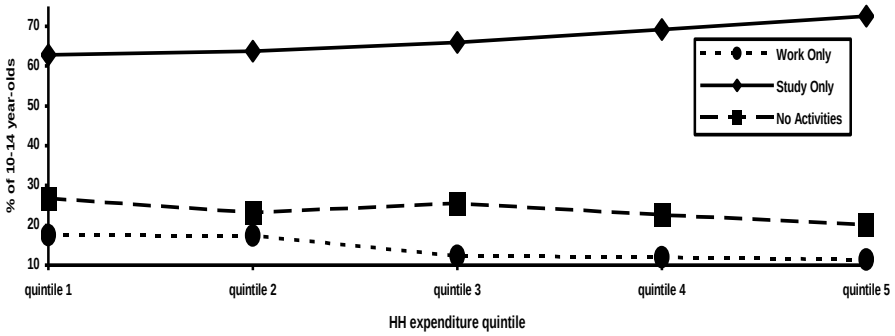
65. **Water availability**: Access to a public water network has a dramatic effect on schooling, increasing the likelihood of enrolment by nine percentage points for all children, and by more than 11 percentage points for girls. This is not surprising in view of studies showing that children, and particularly girls, from villages without access to a public water network must spend a considerable amount of time each day fetching water, limiting the time and energy they have for attending school.[34] Most of the increase in enrolment comes from the group of children neither working nor attending school, rather than from the group of working children, suggesting that many reportedly idle children in fact perform household chores such as water collection. Access to a public water network makes it almost seven percentage points less likely that a child is idle, but only about three percentage points less likely that a child is working. Reducing time spent on wood collection also makes it more likely that a child attends school.

66. **Poverty.** Work prevalence falls and school attendance rises progressively as household income goes up (Figure 11), but the income effect is relatively weak. For example, an increase in income of 10% has only negligible effects on the probability that a child goes to work. This indicates that relatively small changes in income are not likely to produce a significant effect on the decision to work or attend school. Interventions aimed at reducing work by children and increase school attendance based on income transfers only are hence not likely to produce relevant changes, unless the size of the transfer is "large".

[33] The presence of the basic level school reduces the likelihood of being involved in no activities by almost three percentage points, but reduces the likelihood of working by less than one percentage point.

[34] UNICEF, ABP/CDP Baseline survey 2001, Final Report

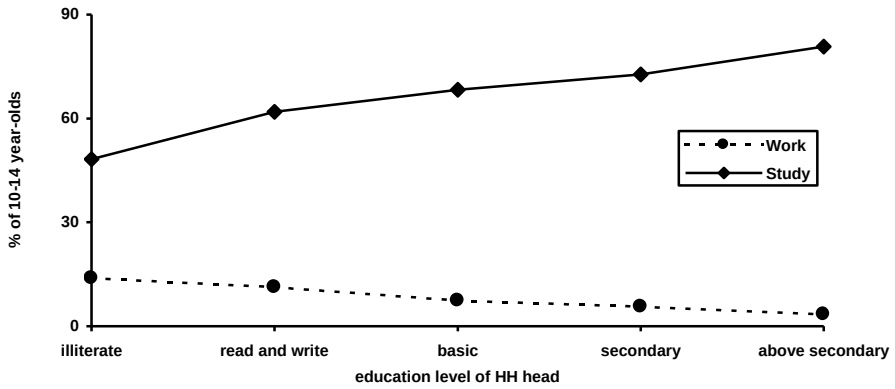
Figure 10. **Child work prevalence, [1] by household expenditure quintile**



Note: (1) Children aged 10-14 years
Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Household Budget Survey 1998*

67. **Parents' educational status**. Work prevalence is highest among children whose parents that have no education, and falls progressively as parents' education level rises (Figure 12). School attendance and parents' education, on the other hand, are positively related. These relationships are likely at least partially the product of a disguised income effect, i.e., parents with higher levels of education are also likely to have higher levels of income, and therefore less need to involve their children in work. However, the relationship between parents' education and children's work prevalence holds even when controlling for income, although the effect is relatively small. Holding income constant, children of educated fathers are five percentage points more likely to study full-time, and 0.5 percentage points less likely to work, than children of illiterate fathers. Children of educated mothers are two percentage points more likely to attend school, and one percentage point less likely to work, than children of illiterate mothers. 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.

Figure 11. **Child work prevalence[(1)] by education level of household head**



Note: (1) Children aged 10-14 years.
Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Household Budget Survey 1998*

68. **Household structure.** Children from households with more adults, and therefore more available potential earners, are less likely to work and more likely to attend

school. Less than 1% of children from households of 1-3 members are involved in work, compared to 44% of those from household for 7-9 members (Table 11). Children from households with more young children, and therefore more dependant mouths to feed, on the other hand, are more likely to work, although the effect is relatively small. Controlling for other factors, each additional child aged 0-5 years increases the probability that a child works by 0.5 percentage points, and reduces the probability that a child goes to school but by about one percentage point.

Table 11. ***Distribution working children by household size, gender and residence***

Residence		1 to 3 HH members	4 to 6 HH members	7 to 9 HH members	10 to 12 HH members	13 and over HH members	Total
Urban	M	0.7	11.4	45.1	32.7	10.2	100
	F	0.0	4.5	42.3	48.3	4.8	100
	T	0.5	10.0	44.5	35.9	9.1	100
Rural	M	0.9	15.6	44.4	24.7	14.4	100
	F	0.7	14.5	43.0	26.0	15.8	100
	T	0.8	15.0	43.7	25.4	15.1	100
Total	M	0.9	15.2	44.5	25.4	14.1	100
	F	0.7	14.3	43.0	26.5	15.5	100
	T	0.8	14.7	43.7	26.0	14.8	100

Source: *Yemen Household Budget Survey 1998*

69. But children's work is a complex phenomenon and the factors mentioned above clearly represent only a partial list of determinants. Better data and more in-depth analysis are needed for a more complete understanding of why children become involved in work. Information on availability of infrastructure, school quality, and access to credit markets and social protection schemes, is especially needed. Better qualitative analyses of factors such as parental attitudes and cultural traditions are also necessary. The demand for child workers, not looked at by household surveys, is another area that needs to be better understood. The unique circumstances causing children's involvement in unconditional worst forms of child labour, also not captured by traditional household surveys, is an area requiring particular research attention.

7. NATIONAL RESPONSE TO CHILD LABOUR

7.1 National legislative framework

70. **The new Yemeni Child Rights Law, issued on 19 November 2002, updates and extends legal protections accorded to child workers, but still excludes children working for their families.** The Republic of Yemen ratified ILO Convention No. 182 (worst forms) and Convention No. 138 (minimum age) on 15 June 2000.35 The country ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) in May 1991. The new Yemeni Child Rights Law, issued on 19 November 2002, brings child labour legislation closer into line with these international child labour norms. The law sets a general minimum working age of 14 years, and minimum working age of 15 years in industrial work (Article 133). It also requires employers hiring children above these age thresholds to sign contracts with them (Article 134) and to pay salaries and medical expenses in the case of an accident (Article 135). The law states that children should not work more than six hours per day (Article 137), should not work more than four hours continuously, and should not work at night (after 19:00) (Article 137). The law does not apply, however, to children who work within the family environment, a category that accounts for the overwhelming majority (87%) of working children.

71. **The government by its own admission lacks the resources to adequately enforce laws relating to child labour.** The Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour (MOSAL) occasionally inspects conditions in factories in major urban centres, but labour inspectors are limited in number and investigative powers, meaning that such visits are rare and inadequately followed up. Legal sanctions for child labour violations, including fines of 5,000-20,000 Yemeni Riyals ($US 28-113) and up to three months' imprisonment, are rarely applied. Available information suggests that compliance with the child labour laws is very low. One study of a limited sample of child workers found that only 1% had written consent from the their parents to work as required by the law. The same study found that only 4% of employers of children had applied for permission in line with the law, and that children earned only half of what adults did for the performing the same job, again in violation with the law. The study also found that "many legal points pertaining to contracts, medical examinations, treatment costs, leave, official holidays, transport expenses for those who live away of the workplace etc. were being ignored."[36]

7.2 National policy framework

72. **The issue of child labour has not until recently occupied a prominent place on the country's development agenda.** Indeed, the country's main development plans – Yemen Strategic Vision 2025, Second Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development (2001-2005), Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2003-2005) – make almost no mention of child labour. These plans do, however, provide a framework for national efforts addressing poverty, economic vulnerability, lack of schooling, low access to basic services and various other issues that underlie the child labour phenomenon. There is no overall national policy and programme framework dealing specifically with child labour in Yemen.

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[35] ILO (www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/newratframeE.htm). The minimum age specified by Yemen in ratifying Convention No. 138 was 14 years.

[36] Shaikh K.R., Pasch P., and al-Khouri R., *Child Labour in Yemen*, Yemeni General Federation of Workers' Trade Union (YGFWTU) and Friedrich Ebert Stiftung, Sana'a, 2001.

73. **The Yemen Strategic Vision to the Year 2025** sets out the policy priorities and development challenges that need to be addressed for Yemen to join the ranks of countries with medium-level human development by 2025. The Strategic Vision sets a real GDP growth target of not less than 9% annually over the 25-year period, and details a number of requirements and conditions for achieving this. It places a particular emphasis on development in four fields: the social field; the science and technology field; the cultural field; and the political field. In every quantifiable area, the Strategic Vision sets numerical goals for 2025, to which all other development plans will be oriented. Goals contained in the social field include the reduction of the rate of population growth to 2.1%; increasing health service coverage to 90%; reducing infant and maternal mortality rates to 31[37] and 65[38] respectively; reducing adult illiteracy to less than 10%; raising the enrolment of girls in basic education to 95%; and the introduction of basic changes in the structure and curriculum of the education system to ensure that it keeps pace with scientific developments and with the needs of the development.

74. **Second Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development (SFYP) (2001-2005),** launched in 2001, represents the first phase of the 25-year effort to achieve a medium-level human development ranking. The general objectives of the five-year plan are to generate economic growth, reduce poverty, create job opportunities and ensure economic and social stability.

75. **The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP),** completed in May 2002, is essentially a subset of the Second Five-Year Plan, focusing on those aspects that have the closest links to poverty. The product of a Yemeni team drawn from all sectors of the Government and from civil society organisations, the strategy aims at achieving a 13% reduction in poverty during the 2003-2005 period. It identifies four main areas of strategic intervention for accomplishing this: generating economic growth; human resources development; improving infrastructure; and ensuring social protection. For each, the strategy paper provides detailed goals, policy priorities, programmes and interventions. Major inventions envisaged in the strategy paper include the construction of classrooms and schools (human resources development), construction of public water networks (improving infrastructure), and expansion of the social safety net (ensuring social protection).[39]

7.3 Programmes directly addressing child labour

76. **ILO-IPEC.** Government efforts specifically addressing the child labour phenomenon fall primarily within the framework of its programme of co-operation with ILO-IPEC. A Memorandum of Understanding between the Government and ILO was signed and a country programme for the elimination of child labour in Yemen started in 2002. The strategic objective of the ILO/IPEC programme in Yemen is the progressive elimination of child labour, prioritising the urgent eradication of its worst forms and considering the special situation of the girl child. To contribute to the achievement to this objective, the programme addresses key policy and legislative issues and provides grassroots-level support, including demonstration projects and local capacity building. ILO/IPEC assistance is provided to Yemen through a focused country programme approach for a period of three years. The main

[37] Per 1,000 live births.

[38] Per 100,000 live births.

[39] For further details, see Republic of Yemen, *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper* (2003-2005), 31 May 2002.

objectives and accompanying activities are provided in Table 12. The mid-term evaluation of the programme will be conducted in January 2003 to assess impact.

Table 12. ***Main elements of the ILO/IPEC-supported programme in Yemen***

Main objectives	Main activity areas
1. Assisting the Government of Yemen to adapt its polices in the relevant areas in order to effectively address child labour, focussing initially on the worst forms through the development of a National Policy and Programme Framework.	(a) availability and accessibility of reliable child labour data, particularly on the worst forms for planning and policy making;
	(b) development of a National Policy and Programme Framework for the elimination of child labour in Yemen; and
	(c) implementation of a comprehensive advocacy and awareness raising programme to enhance support for child labour programmes.
2. Enhancing the capacity of key institutions to include the issue of child labour in their programmes and monitor child labour incidences.	(a) enhancing the capacity of key stakeholders to prevent or withdraw children from child labour and rehabilitate them at national and regional levels;
	(b) achieving programme objectives on a sufficiently large scale through the creation of a child-labour sensitive institutional and policy environment;
	(c) establishment of referral and follow up systems for the withdrawn children;
	(d) establishment of family support programmes;
	(e) development of a model scheme for the elimination of work hazards.
3. Prevention of child labour and withdrawal and rehabilitation of 3000 children engaged in child labour	(a) establishment of a child labour monitoring units;
	(b) establishment of social support units;
	(c) establishment of referral and follow up systems for the withdrawn children;
	(d) establishment of family support programmes;
	(e) development of a model scheme for the elimination of work hazards.

Source: ILO/IPEC, Sana'a.

77. Many governmental institutions have developed partnerships with IPEC at the national and regional levels in an effort to address child labour. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, the governmental partner of IPEC in Yemen established a Child Labour Unit with the aim of planning, co-ordination and monitoring of activities addressing child labour in the country. The Ministry has also trained labour inspectors to take action against child labour. The Ministry of National Education is currently implementing a nation-wide programme in order to provide working children with access to education and to improve their retention and success rates and by developing a core group of skilled trainers within the educational system equipped to deal with the educational issues of working children.

78. **UNICEF**. UNICEF co-operation with the Government addresses the issue of child labour as part of a broader programme promoting safe childhood. This programme provides support for developing improved policies and legislation on child protection, setting standards and monitoring, and strengthening national capacities. The programme comprises two main components. The first – national framework and capacity-building for children in need of special protection – supports efforts to harmonise national legislation with international standards pertaining to child protection; trains and sensitises care providers; and assists the Government in developing a national information base on children in need of special protection. The second – pilot child protection initiatives – assists the Government and NGOs to expand services for street children, working children, children and women in conflict with the law, and children from socially marginalised groups. The area-based Child Development Project, supported by UNICEF and the World Bank, also impacts upon child labour. Now active in 30 districts, the project supports improved schooling, water provision and health services at the local-level. Activities to eliminate hazardous forms of work and to reduce children's workload are also envisaged as part of the project.

79. **Trade unions and employers' organisations**. The Government sees trade unions and employers' organisations as important strategic partners in efforts against harmful child labour. The General Federation of Workers' Trade Unions (GFWTU) conducted a study on child labour in the spring of 1998, accompanied by seminars

and training of trade union activists, within a broader project supported by the ILO Bureau for Workers' Activities (ACTRAV). As part of the three-year Government-IPEC programme, GFWTU child labour focal points will be trained to spearhead a variety of trade union efforts against child labour (e.g., addressing child labour in collective bargaining, monitoring of child work, awareness raising and advocacy, and providing direct support to children and their families). The main employers' organisation, the Federation of Yemen Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FYCCI), has also been involved in the development of strategies to address child labour, and a number of important employers, including the Yemen Textile Corporation, co-operated with the ACTRAV-supported study. An FYCCI Child Labour Unit was established and child labour focal points were appointed as part of the Government-IPEC programme, through which a range of FYCCI actions against child labour are taking place (e.g., establishing monitoring systems, developing codes of conduct, awareness raising, improving working conditions, promoting adult employment and providing direct support to children and their families).

80. **Non-governmental organisations and community groups**. There are very few national NGOs or local associations with a primary focus on the child labour issue, though some of these groups are being mobilised as partners in implementing the Government-IPEC programme. Micro-enterprise development, vocational training, non-formal education, health care and health promotion, and awareness-raising are among the areas for which an important NGO role is envisaged in the Government-IPEC programme. A number of NGOs, including the Al-Sada Society and the Social Organisation for Family Development, also work with street children in Sana'a and other major urban centres. Their support focuses on the establishment of drop-in centres providing street children with basic services, through which they can be gradually reintroduced to and reintegrated into mainstream society. These NGOs, however, are limited in resources and capacity, and therefore the coverage and scope of such efforts are limited. Although *ad hoc* community organisations are often created to implement specific projects, there are relatively few stable and active associations for community betterment and social support,[40] and almost none specifically addressing the issue of child labour.

7.4 Other programmes impacting on child labour

81. **Basic education expansion**: The Government considers education to be fundamental to its overall development strategy, and in 2002 detailed a National Strategy for Basic Education (grades 1-9) in consultation with a wide range of stakeholders. The Government has also committed to the Education for All (EFA) Fast Track Initiative, and is placing particular emphasis within its overall education strategy on increasing enrolment in basic education. To advance this objective, the Government first aims at increasing the number of classrooms available in rural areas through in an acceleration of on-going school construction efforts.[41] The Ministry of Education has adopted a number of measures that aim specifically at increasing girls' enrolment: (a) placing small schools closer to girls' homes; (b) obtaining the community's commitment to enrolling girls as a prerequisite for school construction; (c) changing the physical design of schools to include sanitary facilities and boundary walls; (d) providing separate classrooms for girls in grades 7-9; (e) building girls'

[40] World Bank, *Memorandum of the President of the International Development Association and the International Finance Corporation to the Executive Directors on a Country Assistance Strategy for the Republic Of Yemen*, June 2002.

[41] Republic of Yemen, *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper* (2003-2005), 31 May 2002.

secondary schools to encourage parents to keep their daughters in basic education; and (f) providing more female teachers at the upper basic and secondary levels.[42]

82. **Basic education quality improvement**. The Government is starting to more strongly align curriculum – including textbooks and instructional materials, teacher training, and classroom instruction into a coherent system to improve the quality of basic education. The central element of the Government's strategy to improve quality for grades 1-6 is the introduction of new curricula that promote interactive learning with improved textbooks and teaching skills; implementation started in September 2000. The Government began to provide an initial one-week orientation to teachers in August 2000 and is preparing for continued in-service training as well as improved teacher supervision. The Government is also developing a strategy to improve operations and maintenance at the school level, in response to studies indicating that only 30% of school level operations and maintenance requirements are currently being met. The recently-endorsed National Education Strategy adopted inclusive education as a concept to make the education system more attractive to, and appropriate for, working children and other children with special needs. Little progress, however, has been made to date in introducing inclusive education to the school system.

83. **Social protection programmes**: The Government has in place a number of programmes aimed at supporting the poor and cushioning them from the effects of structural adjustment (Table 12). Of these programmes, three - Social Fund for Development, Social Welfare Fund, and Public Works Project – constitute the main pillars of the Government's social protection strategy. The overall reach of Yemen's social safety net remains limited, however, with only modest capabilities for addressing poverty and effectively reaching the poor. Assistance provided through the Social Welfare Fund, the main official cash transfer system for vulnerable groups, amounts to only about 10% of the poverty line, and priority is not generally given to the families of neediest children. There is no co-ordination or strategic links among

Table 13. **Main social protection programmes**

Social Fund for Development (SFD)	Funded by the World Bank and a range of other donors, SFD aims to provide long-term development opportunities for the poor and to reduce their vulnerability in the current economic environment. SFD activities fall under three broad categories: community development, development of micro-enterprise and income-generating projects, and capacity building.
Social Welfare Fund (SWF)	An agency under the Ministry of Insurance and Social Affairs (MISA), SWF provides cash transfers to those unable to work and to the poorest segments of Yemeni society, within the bounds of the Social Welfare Law
Public Works Project (PWP)	Run by the Ministry of Planning and Development (MOPD), PWP is designed to provide short-term employment opportunities for those able to work. PWP focuses on public works designed to improve basic services and local environmental conditions.
The Agriculture Production and Fisheries Promotion Fund (APFPF)	The fund is designed to alleviate burdens resulting from the rise in the prices of accessories and inputs for agriculture production, livestock and fisheries. It finances a number of projects and activities related to irrigation, water installations and agriculture land conservation
The National Programme for the Development of Productive Families	The programme involves the establishment and equipping of "productive family centres" , through which poor families are provided training and technical support in developing income-generating activities.
The Programme on Combating Poverty and Job Creation	The programme centres on the implementation of local community development initiatives in some of the poorest regions. The development of micro-lending and income-generating schemes are a particular programme focus.

Source: Republic of Yemen, *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) 2003-2005*, 31 May 2002, p. 86.

the social safety net programmes, or between these programmes and the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, in dealing with the issue of child labour. Alongside these formal mechanisms, there is a traditional social safety net of charitable support for the

[42] World Bank, *Project Appraisal Document on a Proposed Credit in the amount of SDR 42.4 million (US$56 million equivalent) to the Republic of Yemen for a Basic Education Expansion Project*, Report No: 20898-YEM, Human Development Group, Middle East and North Africa Region, September 8, 2000.

very poor. Charitable donations have been estimated to be six times as large as the transfers of the Government's Social Welfare Fund. However, traditional sources of support and stability are under threat by rapid urbanisation, as rural inhabitants leave stable social structures for less socially regulated or supportive urban ones.

84. **Social Fund for Development (SFD):** SFD has the broadest objective among the three social protection programmes, seeking to provide reduce the vulnerability of the poor in the current economic environment and to provide them with long-term, community-based development opportunities. Social funds cover a range of programmes, including basic infrastructure (including health and education infrastructure), community development, and micro-finance. The target populations are the poor who lack access to essential services, as well as disadvantaged communities experiencing high rates of unemployment or underemployment. Benefits accrue directly to the poor through: (a) the creation of temporary and permanent employment; (b) greater access to essential social services; and (c) greater economic integration of women through access to health services, an improved water supply, and access to micro-finance and education services. The Social Fund also helps build the capacities of domestic non-governmental and local government entities to plan and implement development projects, thereby complementing the activities of the central Government. The Social Fund places particular emphasis on supporting vulnerable groups (e.g., destitute women, street children, orphans, the mentally- and physically-handicapped).

85. **Rural water supply expansion**: The Government aims to increase potable water supply coverage in rural areas to 65% by 2005,[43] through a rural water supply and sanitation (RWSS) programme financed in part by the World Bank. The programme employs a range of technologies – hand dug wells and hand pumps, spring protection and gravity supply, rain water catchments, piped schemes from boreholes, etc. – in order to achieve this coverage target. The Government is placing increasing emphasis community involvement as means of ensuring the sustainability of RWSS efforts. In the past, GAREW (General Authority for Rural Electricity and Water) established priorities and implemented projects without consulting or involving the beneficiaries. This resulted in breakdowns, lack of operation and maintenance and eventually, lost capital resources. As noted above, about half of the piped rural water supply systems are either not working or not providing quality drinking water. New RWSS schemes are increasingly introduced in response to a demand articulated by the beneficiary community, with active beneficiary participation in the choice of technology, system design, and in scheme management and maintenance.

[43] Republic of Yemen, *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (2003-2005)* 31 May 2002.

8. STRATEGIC OPTIONS FOR ADDRESSING CHILD LABOUR

86. This section of the report provides a set of general policy considerations for addressing child labour and reducing the number of children at risk of entering work. It is beyond the scope of the report to provide detailed programme interventions or specific action plans. These will be developed, conditional on the approval by Government and the three partner agencies, in a second phase of the project. However, a set of overall policy priorities, and short- and long-term strategic approaches for addressing them, is provided in sub-section 8.2.

87. On the basis of the analysis carried out in Yemen and of studies conducted in several other countries, it is evident that many policies that do not appear to be directly related to child labour in fact have a very significant bearing on the phenomenon. This section first looks at some of the most important of these general policy considerations, before moving to examine in more detail policy options in rural and urban contexts for addressing child labour, and special policy considerations for addressing children in so-called unconditional worst forms of child labour. The section also considers legislation relating to child labour, and mechanisms for improving its enforcement and follow-up.

88. In light of the multi-sectoral nature of child labour, and of the many general policies affecting it, a unit is needed that monitors the different policies and evaluates them in a coherent manner from a child labour perspective. Co-ordination among the sectoral ministries in addressing child labour is currently very weak, and such a unit would provide an important institutional framework mechanism for addressing this problem. The unit would also need to monitor and gather (in collaboration with the Central Statistical Office) the relevant quantitative indicators on working children and children at risk. The Social Fund for Development or the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, where multi-sectoral approaches are already followed, might be best suited for hosting such a unit.

8.1 General policy considerations

89. **Reducing household vulnerability**: Work by children 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. Empirical evidence underscores this point. In Guatemala, for example, controlling for other factors, children from households exposed to collective or individual shocks are about five percentage points more likely to work compared to children from families that had not experienced these shocks.[44] Evidence also suggests that children that are neither working nor attending school are the most likely to be sent to work when a family confronts a shock. In Yemen, this group is three times larger than that of working children. Reducing household vulnerability will require extending and improving the effectiveness of the country's social safety net. As noted above, the three main components of the safety net – the Social Fund for Development, Social Welfare Fund, and the Public Works Project – currently have only modest capabilities for effectively reaching and protecting the poor. The Social Welfare Fund in particular, the main official cash transfer system for vulnerable groups, needs to place greater

[44] YPMS 1999 did not look at individual and collective shocks, and therefore their impact on the prevalence of work by children in the Yemen context is not known.

focus on the families of neediest children, and to substantially increase money cash allotments, in order to be effective as a tool for reducing household vulnerability.

90. **Increasing school access and quality**: Efforts to address child labour, in Yemen as elsewhere, need to focus in particular on the logical alternative to work – accessible and good quality schooling. There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to stem the flow of school age children into work is to extend and improve schooling, so that families have the opportunity to invest in their children's education and it is worthwhile for them to do so. Mainstreaming child labour concerns into educational policy and programmes helps serve the objectives of both addressing child labour and universalising primary education. The Yemeni Government has underway a large-scale programme to expand education (Basic Education Expansion Programme (BEEP I and II)), with a particular emphasis on the basic level. Investment in education is, therefore, relatively high. However, expanding access in rural areas, especially for girls, reducing school costs, and improving quality system-wide, remain important challenges. Introducing the concept of inclusive education, in order that the schooling system is able to attract and cope with disadvantaged groups such as working children, is also an important outstanding priority.

- *Increasing physical school access*: Currently, many remote rural villages in Yemen remain unserved by, or too distant from, school facilities, leaving children few options but to work. The empirical evidence indicates that when Yemeni villages get schools, the impact on rates of school attendance is dramatic. The presence of basic and secondary cycle schools in a local village increases school attendance by 4 and 5 percentage points respectively. Inadequate school infrastructure, and particularly inadequate school sanitation and water facilities, also constitutes an important access barrier for Yemeni girls. Only 6% of basic cycle schools have toilets, and studies in Yemen and elsewhere suggest this is an important factor in parents' decisions not to send their daughters to school. The Government has an on-going programme to construct new schools and rehabilitate existing ones, but these efforts need to be expanded and accelerated in order to meet the current shortage of rural school classrooms and increase the coverage of school water and sanitation facilities.
- *Reducing direct and indirect schooling costs*: Although education is ostensibly free in Yemen, out-of-pocket costs (for books, writing materials, school meals, etc.) are non-negligible, particularly for poor, rural households. In YPMS 1999, households cited "difficulty in paying school expenses" as the main reason for either never sending child to school or withdrawing them early. The indirect costs of schooling in terms of foregone labour are likely an even more significant, though more difficult to quantify, barrier to schooling for children. Policy measures that reduce schooling costs, both direct and indirect, are needed to remove the important barrier to school access that these costs represent to poor families.
- *Increasing school quality and relevance:* One of the main reasons for high dropouts at 12 years of age is the lack of incentive and value-added for staying in school. Schooling is of generally low quality and frequently lacks relevance to children's lives, and therefore is not considered by families to be a worthwhile investment either of children's time or of limited household financial resources. This argues for policies aimed at increasing the quality and relevance of schooling, in order to attract and keep children in school

and out of the labour market. The Government has begun a programme of curriculum reform for most subjects in grades 1 –6, as well as for some subjects in grades 7-12, but the accompanying actions required for effective implementation of the new curriculum, e.g., in-service teacher training, setting of learning standards and establishing teaching evaluation criteria, need greater attention. The shortage and unequal distribution of teachers, and shortages in classroom learning resources and instructional materials, also need to be addressed as part of an overall effort to improve school quality.

91. **Improving access to basic services**: Improving access to basic services is important because it helps reduce the time children, and especially girls, must spend performing household chores, making it more likely that they attend school. These chores, though technically not economic activities, have implications on the health and well-being of children that are similar to those of work. Extending the water network to include a greater number of rural villages appears particularly important in this context in Yemen. Connection to a water network increases the likelihood of attending school by over nine percentage points. For girls, the water availability is an especially important factor, raising the likelihood of their attending school by 11 percentage points and reducing the likelihood that they work by four percentage points. In addition to its health and other social benefits, therefore, expanding access to water constitutes an important strategy for getting children, and particularly girls, into school and out of work. Current Government efforts to expand access to potable water in rural areas need to be accelerated, with a particular emphasis on extending public water networks to communities where school attendance is low and children's work rates are high. Again, the Social Fund for Development, with its extensive experience in community development, represents one important mechanism for achieving this.

92. **Promoting adult literacy:** The empirical evidence indicates that providing adults, and particularly fathers, with basic literacy skills has an important impact on rates of school enrolment. Making fathers literate increases the likelihood that children attend school by five percentage points. This points to the importance of expanding adult literacy and education programmes as a strategy for increasing school participation and reducing child work rates. The children of literate parents are more likely to attend school at least in part because these parents are more aware of the returns to schooling, suggesting that more general awareness-raising campaigns, aimed at reaching parents with information concerning the importance of schooling, also could have an impact on parents' decisions to send their children to school.

93. **Differentiated approaches in rural and urban areas.** The nature and extent of children's work differs greatly between rural and urban areas in Yemen. Rural working children outnumber their urban counterparts by 17 to one (in absolute terms, 616,000 against 36,000). While rural child labour is concentrated almost entirely in the agricultural sector, children working in urban areas are more even spread among agriculture, commerce and other sectors. Almost all rural working children work for their families and not for wages, whereas in urban areas wage work and self-employment are also common. The nature and seriousness of work hazards encountered by children also vary between rural and urban areas. Almost all forms of urban child labour involve serious threats to the well-being of children. Rural agricultural work involves, on the whole, less serious hazards, with some important exceptions. The general policy objectives and specific policy measures adopted in rural and urban contexts need to reflect these differences.

- *Strategic approach in rural areas:* The sheer numbers of children in agriculture mean that eliminating child labour in this sector is not a feasible near-term policy objective. Of most immediate policy concern is not children's work in general in the agricultural sector, but rather the small proportion of children in agriculture attending school (60% of boys and just 13% of girls), and the subgroup of child agricultural workers that face serious work hazards. A more realistic initial strategy would instead focus on these immediate concerns. This would entail two specific initial policy objectives: (1) increasing the school enrolment rate of child agricultural workers, and particularly of female agricultural workers, and at the same time (2) removing children from the most hazardous forms of agricultural work.
- *Strategic approach in urban areas:* Child labour in urban areas occurs on a much more limited scale, but poses greater dangers to children's health and well-being. School attendance is also very low for urban working children, but low enrolment is a reflection more of cost, relevance and quality issues rather than of physical access. This argues for immediate efforts aimed at (1) removing children from urban workplaces, and at the same time at (2) increasing the ability and willingness of households to invest in their children's education. Given the serious hazards posed by urban work, strategies for accommodating school with work seem less appropriate in the urban context.

94. **Targeting unconditional worst forms of child labour.** Available information, though frequently sketchy, indicates that unconditional worst forms of child labour (as defined by ILO Convention No. 182) exist in Yemen as in most countries. Although children involved in worst forms of child labour appear to represent only a small proportion of total child workers, their numbers are by no means negligible, and they suffer the most serious rights violations and face the most serious health and developmental threats. Eliminating worst forms of child labour, therefore, should be an immediate strategic objective. While the general policy measures discussed above will contribute to reducing worst forms, additional, more targeted actions are also needed. First and foremost, better information is needed on the size and specific nature of these forms of child labour. But even without further study, the close relationship between street life and unconditional worst forms of child labour is clear. Strengthening and extending the reach of grassroots organisations that offer protection and support to street children, and promote their social reintegration, is therefore another important initial priority. There is also a need for training and other efforts aimed at raising awareness and understanding of the street children phenomenon among State institutions dealing with street children (e.g., the police, the judiciary, and municipal authorities).

95. **Strengthening legislative and monitoring measures.** Yemen has ratified ILO Conventions Nos. 182 (worst forms of child labour)and 138 (minimum age) and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), but inconsistencies remain between national legislation and these international child labour norms. Of particular concern, informal sector work, which accounts for the overwhelming majority of Yemeni child workers, is not covered by current child labour legislation. In addition, the government by its own admission currently does not have the capacity to properly enforce and monitor laws relating to child labour. There are therefore two overall priorities in the field of child labour legislation: (1) bringing national legislation into

conformity with international child labour norms and (2) strengthening the Government's ability to enforce and monitor this legislation.

8.2 Prioritisation of interventions

A detailed prioritisation of interventions is not possible at this stage. Conditional on the approval by Government and the three partner agencies, this issue will be addressed in a second project phase, as part of the process of developing specific action plans. However, ILO Conventions Nos. 182 (worst forms) and 138 (minimum age) and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, ratified by the Government, serve as guiding principles to address child labour. The conventions stress that priority attention should be given to children facing the most serious work-related threats to their health and well-being. In the Yemeni context, these groups include children performing hazardous forms of agricultural work, urban working children, most of whom appear to face serious work hazards, as well as children in so-called unconditional forms of work (i.e., trafficked children, sexually-exploited children, child soldiers and children on the street). Unfortunately, information gaps concerning these groups are considerable in Yemen, and therefore further research is needed designed to fill these gaps.

96. Out-of-school children in the agriculture sector, by weight of their sheer number, constitute a key priority in Yemen. As argued above, eliminating child labour in the agricultural sector is not a feasible near-term policy objective, and a more realistic strategy would instead focus on reducing the large numbers of child agricultural workers not attending school. Strengthening child labour legislation and accompanying monitoring mechanisms constitutes a third key priority. Comprehensive legislation will serve as a framework for overall efforts addressing child labour, and monitoring mechanisms will be critical for the evaluation these efforts. These overall priorities, and short- and long-term strategies for addressing them, are outlined in the Table 14.

Table 14. **Priorities for addressing child labour in Yemen**

Priority area	Short-term strategic approaches	Longer-term strategic approaches
(1) Increasing the school enrolment rate of child agricultural workers, and particularly of female child workers in the agriculture sector.	*Expanding and upgrading of rural school facilities*, particularly for girls, building on the measures being enacted by the Government through mechanisms such as BEEP and SFD to encourage girls' enrolment (e.g., placing small schools closer to girls' homes; obtaining the community's commitment to enrolling girls as a prerequisite for school construction; changing the physical design of schools to include sanitary facilities and boundary walls; providing separate classrooms for girls in grades 7-9; and constructing girls' secondary schools to encourage parents to keep their daughters in basic education).	*Making schools more accommodating of and relevant to agricultural work,* through measures such as introducing a flexible school calendar and daily school timetable, and making school curriculum contents more relevant and useful to the rural agricultural context.
	Reducing indirect schooling costs, through pilot measures such as the introduction of scholarship schemes linked to school attendance and performance. Such schemes have proved successful elsewhere in compensating for the opportunity cost of schooling. However, they require careful targeting of beneficiaries and efficient administrative structures at the local level. Also, their cost and compatibility with public budget targets and overall fiscal policy need to be considered.	*Expanding to access to public water networks*, with a particular emphasis on rural communities where girls' school enrolment is low, building on current Government efforts in the water sector through SFD and other mechanisms.
	Reducing direct schooling costs, through pilot measures such as the provision of free or subsidised school supplies and school meals	*Promoting adult literacy.*
	General awareness-raising campaigns, aimed at reaching parents with information concerning the importance of schooling.	
(2) Addressing urban child labour.	*Filling the information gaps regarding the tasks performed by urban child workers in the main sectors in which they are found.*	*Strengthening alliances with employers' associations*, and in particular the Federation of Yemen Chambers of Commerce and Industry (FYCCI), and mobilising their involvement in efforts against urban child labour. This has already begun within the framework of the Government-IPEC programme, which involves the FYCCI in measures such as establishing workplace monitoring systems, developing industry-specific codes of conduct, employer awareness raising, and social support to children and their families.
	Filling the information gaps regarding the determinants of demand for child workers in specific sectors. Ad hoc surveys targeting major employers of children.	*Strengthening alliances with workers' associations*, and particularly the General Federation of Workers' Trade Unions (GFWTU), and mobilising their involvement in efforts against urban child labour. Again, this has already begun within the framework of the Government-IPEC programme, which involves the GFWTU in initiatives such as addressing child labour in collective bargaining, monitoring of child labour in the workplace, awareness raising and advocacy, and social support to children and their families.
(3) Addressing hazardous forms of agricultural work.	*Filling the information gap* regarding harmful forms of agricultural work, the agricultural sub-sectors where they are most common, and the numbers of children they involve, through targeted surveys.	*Building alliances with workers' associations* active in the commercial agricultural sector, and mobilising them against children's involvement in harmful agricultural work.
		Strengthening local monitoring and follow-up of children's agricultural work, through measures such as the creation of village-level monitoring mechanisms, building on experience of the Government-IPEC programme in forming pilot Community Child Labour Committees (CCLCs).
(4) Addressing unconditional worst forms of child labour	*Filling the information gap on unconditional worst forms of labour:* Development and testing of new survey methodologies targeting children in various unconditional worst forms of labour.	*Strengthening grassroots organisations*. Training and other capacity-building efforts aimed at improving the ability of front-line NGOs to effectively reach street children.
		Building the capacity of State institutions dealing with street children (e.g., the police, the judiciary, and municipal authorities). Training and other efforts aimed at raising awareness and understanding of the street children phenomenon, the array of social and economic factors underlying it, and non-punitive approaches for addressing it.
(5) Strengthening child labour legislation and monitoring mechanisms	*Detailed review of current national legislation* relating to child labour and its consistency with international child labour norms	*Building the capacity of the Child Labour Unit* within the Ministry of Social Affairs and Labour, the body responsible for overall enforcement and monitoring child labour laws. This effort has begun within the framework of the Government-IPEC programme.
	Awareness-raising campaigns targeting employers and families, aimed at making them aware of contents and implications of child labour laws	*Involving labour inspectors* in supporting and advising community groups on the implementation of child labour legislation, and on sustainable means of withdrawing children from harmful work.
		Building the capacity of labour inspectors, through training on the relevant provisions of the new legislation, workplace monitoring and child labour in general. Initial training is being provided as part of the Government-IPEC programme.

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ANNEX A

DETAILED STATISTICAL TABLES

a) Tabulations from the 1998 Yemen Household Budget Monitoring Survey (YHBS 1998)

Table 1. Total number of children in the sample, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	1,885	1,688	3,573
11	1,293	1,194	2,487
12	1,940	1,733	3,673
13	1,487	1,474	2,961
14	1,372	1,322	2,694
Total	**7,977**	**7,411**	**15,388**

Table 2. Total number of children in the expanded population, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	321,555	293,286	614,841
11	192,765	169,119	361,884
12	327,345	289,005	616,350
13	230,347	225,134	455,481
14	224,924	206,818	431,742
Total	**1296936**	**1183362**	**2480298**

Table 3. Percentage of children working, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	10.4	12.2	11.3
11	9.9	13.8	11.8
12	13.8	13.6	13.7
13	17.1	13	15.1
14	21.3	15	18.3
Total	**14.3**	**13.4**	**13.9**

Table 4. Percentage of children attending school, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	88.3	48.4	69.3
11	89.9	56.3	74.3
12	87.3	44.2	67.1
13	85.8	44.7	65.5
14	82.3	36.6	60.4
Total	**86.8**	**45.8**	**67.2**

Table 5. Percentage of children working only, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	5.1	10.5	7.7
11	4.9	11.3	7.9
12	6.4	11.8	8.9
13	9.1	11.4	10.3
14	11.1	13.5	12.3
Total	**7.2**	**11.6**	**9.3**

Table 6. Percentage of children studying only, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	83	46.8	65.7
11	84.9	53.8	70.4
12	80	42.4	62.4
13	77.8	43.2	60.7
14	72.1	35.1	54.4
Total	**79.7**	**44**	**62.7**

Table 7. Percentage of children working and studying, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	5.3	1.8	3.6
11	5	2.6	3.9
12	7.3	1.8	4.7
13	8	1.5	4.8
14	10.2	1.5	6
Total	**7.1**	**1.8**	**4.6**

Table 8. Percentage of children involved in no activities, by sex and age

Age	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
10	6.6	41	23
11	5.1	32.4	17.9
12	6.2	44	23.9
13	5.1	43.8	24.2
14	6.6	49.9	27.3
Total	**6**	**42.6**	**23.5**

Table 9. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by sex and type of activty

Type of Activity	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Work only	7.17	11.63	9.29
Study only	79.71	43.98	62.68
Work and study	7.09	1.8	4.57
No activities	6.03	42.59	23.46
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 10. Total number of children aged 10-14, by sex and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Work only	92,942	137,437	230,379
Study only	1033824	519,778	1553602
Work and study	91,981	21,285	113,266
No activities	78,189	503,374	581,563
Total	**1296936**	**1181874**	**2478810**

Table 11. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by sex, type of activity and area

Type of Activity	*Area*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Work only	Urban	1.7	0.9	1.3
	Rural	8.8	14.9	11.7
Study only	Urban	91.1	83.5	87.5
	Rural	76.3	31.9	55.2
Work and study	Urban	1.9	0.7	1.3
	Rural	8.6	2.1	5.5
No activities	Urban	5.3	14.8	9.9
	Rural	6.2	51.1	27.5

Table 12. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by sex, modality of employment and area

Type of Activity	*Area*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Work only	Urban	52.3	60	54.6
	Rural	11.5	4.3	8.1
Study only	Urban	24.8	7.5	19.6
	Rural	10.1	4.2	7.3
Work and study	Urban	21.8	31.2	24.7
	Rural	77.7	90.6	83.7
No activities	Urban	1.1	1.3	1.2
	Rural	0.7	0.9	0.8

Table 13. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by sex and modality of employment

Modality of employment	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Wage employ	13.8	5.94	10.17
Self employed	10.98	4.28	7.88
Unpaid HH worker	74.54	88.85	81.15
Unpaid worker	0.68	0.94	0.8
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 14. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by sex, region and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Region*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Work only	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb – Aljouf	7.9	21	13.9
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	3	12.7	7.7
	Aden	0.2	0.3	0.3
	Taiz and Ibb	3.3	5.7	4.5
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	14.6	17.7	16.1
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut – Almahara	3.2	3.1	3.1
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	1.5	0.4	1
Study only	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb – Aljouf	74.5	25.7	52.3
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	84.3	37.7	61.8
	Aden	92.2	89	90.6
	Taiz and Ibb	84	49.2	66.9
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	70.2	32.2	52.4
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	91.4	62.3	77.6
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	94.1	89.8	92
Work and study	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb - Aljouf	11.8	2	7.4
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	4.3	3.3	3.8
	Aden	1.4	0.7	1.1
	Taiz and Ibb	8.4	2.5	5.5
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	7	1.1	4.2
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	0.7	0.3	0.5
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	1.3	0.8	1
No activities	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb - Aljouf	5.7	51.3	26.5
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	8.4	46.3	26.7
	Aden	6.1	9.9	8.1
	Taiz and Ibb	4.3	42.6	23.2
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	8.2	49	27.3
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	4.7	34.3	18.8
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	3.1	9	5.9

Table 15. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by sex, modality of employment and region

Modality of Employment	*Region*	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Wage Employ	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb - Aljouf	4.2	3.6	3.9
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	8.5	5.2	6.2
	Aden	46.4	100	67.5
	Taiz and Ibb	16.7	7.4	12.9
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	15.5	5.4	11.1
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	39.9	11.7	27.5
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	70.6	81.2	73.7
Self employ	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb - Aljouf	25.7	9	17.5
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	2.7	1.4	1.8
	Aden	39.5	0	23.9
	Taiz and Ibb	4	2.8	3.5
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	5.6	2.1	4.1
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	22.8	6.5	15.6
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	22.4	6.5	17.8
Unpaid family employ	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb - Aljouf	68.5	87.4	77.8
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	88.8	93.5	91.9
	Aden	14.1	0	8.6
	Taiz and Ibb	79.2	87.3	82.5
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	78.3	91.4	84
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	37.3	81.8	56.8
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	4.7	6.3	5.1
Unpaid employ	Sana'a - Sadah - Mareb - Aljouf	1.6	0	0.8
	Albaida - Lahj – Abyn	0	0	0
	Aden	0	0	0
	Taiz and Ibb	0.1	2.5	1.1
	Hajjah - Almahwet - Alhodeidah, and Dha	0.5	1.2	0.8
	Shabwah - Hadhramaut - Almahara	0	0	0
	Capital Secretariat (Sana'a City)	2.3	6.1	3.4

Table 16. Percentage of children aged 10-14 with health problems, by sex and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Work only	9.7	8.5	9
Study only	4.8	5.1	4.9
Work and study	10.9	4.9	9.8
No activities	9.7	5.7	6.3
Total	**5.9**	**5.8**	**5.8**

Table 17. Percentage of children aged 10-14 with health problems, by sex and modality of employment

Modality of employment	*Male*	*Female*	*Total*
Wage employ	11.3	12.5	11.6
Self employed	5.5	0	4.1
Unpaid HH worker	11	8.2	9.6
Unpaid worker	0	0	0
Total	**10.3**	**8**	**9.3**

Table 18. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by household expenditure quintile and sex

Sex	Quintile 1	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5	Total
Male	18.5	18.33	18.61	22.56	22	100
Female	17.98	17.79	17.9	21.91	24.43	100
Total	**18.25**	**18.07**	**18.27**	**22.25**	**23.15**	**100**

Table 19. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by household expenditure quintile, sex and type of activity

Sex	Type of Activity	Quintile 1	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5	Total
Male	Work only	9.4	10.9	8	5.1	3.6	7.2
	Study only	70.9	74.8	80	82.9	87.8	79.7
	Work and study	11.6	7.4	5.5	5.9	5.6	7.1
	No activities	8.1	7	6.5	6.1	3.1	6
Female	Work only	11.5	15.3	9.2	11.6	10.9	11.6
	Study only	38.6	42.1	42.1	45.4	49.4	44
	Work and study	1.9	1	1.6	1.6	2.6	1.8
	No activities	48	41.6	47.1	41.4	37.1	42.6
Total	Work only	**10.4**	**13**	**8.6**	**8.1**	**7.3**	**9.3**
	Study only	55.7	59.4	62.3	65.3	68.5	62.7
	Work and study	7.1	4.4	3.7	3.9	4.1	4.6
	No activities	26.8	23.2	25.5	22.6	20.2	23.5

Table 20. Percentage of children aged 10-14 with health problems, by household expenditure quintile, sex and type of activity

Sex	Type of Activity	Quintile 1	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5	Total
Male	Work only	8.7	11.1	6.5	16.8	4.5	9.7
	Study only	5.4	5.5	3.8	4.8	4.7	4.8
	Work and study	6.8	11.9	4.2	24.7	7.8	10.9
	No activities	8.3	8.5	13	3	23.1	9.7
Female	Work only	7.7	6.1	6.7	6.6	14.5	8.5
	Study only	6.8	5.1	4.4	5.8	4.1	5.1
	Work and study	0	12.3	0	10.1	4.5	4.9
	No activities	5.6	9	5.7	3.4	5.5	5.7
Total	Work only	8.2	8.3	6.6	10	12	9
	Study only	5.8	5.4	4	5.1	4.5	4.9
	Work and study	5.9	11.9	3.3	21.9	6.8	9.8
	No activities	6	8.9	6.7	3.4	6.8	6.3

Table 21. Percentage of children working only, by father's level of education and children's age

Age	Illiterate	Read and Write	Primary	Secondary	High School	Total
10	38.4	35.91	18.77	4.98	1.94	100
11	24.04	41.53	27.48	4.71	2.24	100
12	32.29	29.11	25.72	11	1.89	100
13	22.02	42.29	24.25	9.27	2.17	100
14	12.89	41.59	30.1	13.66	1.76	100
Total	**26.13**	**37.52**	**25.19**	**9.19**	**1.97**	**100**

Table 22. Percentage of children studying only, by father's level of education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Primary*	*Secondary*	*High School*	*Total*
10	2.07	50.29	25.75	15.35	6.54	100
11	2.73	44.9	29.33	14.87	8.18	100
12	2.44	50.03	25.18	15.83	6.53	100
13	2.42	42.76	29.03	16.53	9.26	100
14	1.51	38.59	32.51	18.79	8.61	100
Total	**2.24**	**46.19**	**27.82**	**16.13**	**7.61**	**100**

Table 23. Percentage of children working only, by mother's level of education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Primary*	*Secondary*	*High School*	*Total*
10	87.35	8.79	1.45	0.38	2.03	100
11	85.55	11.01	3.43	0	0	100
12	82.85	12.59	4.37	0	0.19	100
13	81.16	16.05	1.96	0.83	0	100
14	73.7	20.17	6	0.13	0	100
Total	**81.77**	**13.97**	**3.53**	**0.27**	**0.47**	**100**

Table 24. Percentage of children studying only, by mother's level of education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Primary*	*Secondary*	*High School*	*Total*
10	39.41	44.02	11.95	3.5	1.12	100
11	31.85	46.72	15.9	3.96	1.58	100
12	39.17	42.24	12.98	4.42	1.19	100
13	33.58	43.37	16.91	4.86	1.27	100
14	32.01	41.43	18.54	6.26	1.76	100
Total	**35.94**	**43.51**	**14.75**	**4.46**	**1.34**	**100**

b) Tabulations from the 1999 Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey (YPMS 1999)

Table 1. Total number of children in the sample, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
5	5385	5243	10628
6	6621	6805	13426
7	6637	6911	13548
8	6891	6967	13858
9	5753	5917	11670
10	7082	7648	14730
11	4398	5041	9439
12	6470	7288	13758
13	5497	6048	11545
14	5198	5466	10664
Total	**59932**	**63334**	**123266**

Table 2. Total number of children in the population, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
5	260,579	251,806	512,385
6	316,476	322,567	639,043
7	321,377	332,354	653,731
8	330,462	336,774	667,236
9	275,950	282,772	558,722
10	345,339	369,040	714,379
11	212,621	242,072	454,693
12	313,982	353,421	667,403
13	263,273	289,296	552,569
14	251,242	265,325	516,567
Total	**2891301**	**3045427**	**5936728**

Table 3. Percentage of working children aged 10-14, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
10	14.7	12.0	13.3
11	15.9	11.6	13.6
12	18.3	15.4	16.8
13	19.8	18.4	19.1
14	20.6	20.1	20.3
Total	17.7	15.4	16.5

Table 4. Percentage of working children aged 5-9, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
5	1.3	1.0	1.2
6	4.1	3.1	3.6
7	6.1	6.0	6.1
8	9.1	8.1	8.6
9	10.0	9.0	9.4
Total	6.2	5.6	5.9

Table 5. Percentage of working children, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	4.1	3.1	3.6
7	6.1	6.0	6.1
8	9.1	8.1	8.6
9	10.0	9.0	9.4
10	14.7	12.0	13.3
11	15.9	11.6	13.6
12	18.3	15.4	16.8
13	19.8	18.4	19.1
14	20.6	20.1	20.3
Total	12.8	11.3	12.0

Table 6. Percentage of children enrolled in school, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	12.3	19.4	15.9
7	32.0	49.1	40.7
8	43.7	68.0	56.0
9	50.1	79.2	64.8
10	49.0	81.4	65.8
11	53.0	86.0	70.6
12	46.5	83.0	65.8
13	44.4	81.3	63.7
14	37.2	78.7	58.5
Total	40.4	68.9	55.1

Table 7. Percentage of children working only, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	3.8	2.7	3.2
7	5.2	4.1	4.6
8	7.3	4.0	5.7
9	7.6	3.2	5.4
10	12.1	5.0	8.5
11	13.1	3.7	8.1
12	15.7	5.9	10.5
13	16.9	7.8	12.2
14	18.8	9.4	14.0
Total	10.8	5.0	7.8

Table 8. Percentage of children studying only, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	12.1	19.0	15.6
7	31.0	47.2	39.2
8	41.9	63.9	53.0
9	47.7	73.4	60.7
10	46.4	74.5	60.9
11	50.2	78.1	65.1
12	44.0	73.5	59.6
13	41.5	70.7	56.8
14	35.4	68.0	52.2
Total	38.4	62.6	50.9

Table 9. Percentage of children working and studying, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	0.3	0.4	0.4
7	1.0	1.9	1.4
8	1.8	4.1	3.0
9	2.4	5.7	4.1
10	2.6	7.0	4.9
11	2.8	7.9	5.5
12	2.5	9.5	6.2
13	2.9	10.6	6.9
14	1.8	10.7	6.4
Total	2.0	6.3	4.2

Table 10. Percentage of children involved in no activities, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	83.8	77.9	80.8
7	62.8	46.9	54.7
8	49.0	28.0	38.4
9	42.3	17.6	29.8
10	38.9	13.5	25.8
11	33.9	10.3	21.3
12	37.7	11.1	23.6
13	38.7	10.8	24.1
14	44.0	11.9	27.5
Total	48.8	26.1	37.1

Table 11. Percentage of children aged 6-14, by sex and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
Work only	10.8	5.0	7.9
Study only	38.4	62.6	50.9
Work and Study	2.0	6.3	4.2
No activities	48.8	26.1	37.1
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 12. Percentage of children aged 6-14, by area and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Work only	9.9	1.3	7.9
Study only	43.0	76.3	50.9
Work and Study	5.0	1.5	4.2
No activities	42.1	20.9	37.1
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 13. Percentage **of children aged 10-14, by sex and modality of employment**

Modality of employment	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
Employee	2.5	8.6	5.4
Self-employed	3.1	5.2	4.1
Employer	2.9	3.4	3.1
Works within Family	91.0	82.4	86.8
Unbaid work (apprentice)	0.6	0.5	0.5
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 14. Percentage of children aged 10-14, by area and modality of employment

Modality of employment	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Employee	4.6	18.9	5.4
Self-employed	3.5	13.4	4.1
Employer	3.2	1.8	3.1
Works within Family	88.2	65.1	86.8
Unbaid work (apprentice)	0.5	0.9	0.5
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 15. Percentage of working children aged 10-14, by sex and sector of activity

Sector of activity	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
Government	1	1	1
Private	98	98	98
Mixed	0	0	0
Cooperative	0	0	0
Others	1	1	1
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 16. Percentage of working children aged 10-14, by area and sector of activity

Sector of activity	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Government	0.5	3.0	0.7
Private	98.3	96.5	98.2
Mixed	0.1	0.1	0.1
Cooperative	0.2	0.2	0.2
Others	0.9	0.2	0.8
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

Table 17. All working children: daily hours worked, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	4.7	5.3	4.9
7	5.2	4.7	4.9
8	5.4	4.9	5.2
9	5.1	4.9	5
10	5.7	5.6	5.7
11	6	5.3	5.7
12	5.8	5.4	5.6
13	5.8	5.7	5.8
14	5.7	5.9	5.8
Total	**5.6**	**5.4**	**5.5**

Table 18. Children working only: daily hours worked, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	4.5	5.2	4.8
7	5.2	4.8	5
8	5.7	5.6	5.7
9	5.3	5.3	5.3
10	5.9	6	6
11	6.3	6.3	6.3
12	5.9	6.1	5.9
13	6	6.4	6.1
14	5.8	6.3	6
Total	**5.8**	**5.9**	**5.8**

Table 19. Children working and studying: daily hours worked, by sex and age

Age	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
6	6.1	5.7	5.9
7	4.8	4.5	4.6
8	4.4	4.3	4.3
9	4.2	4.8	4.6
10	4.7	5.4	5.2
11	4.7	4.8	4.8
12	5.4	5	5.1
13	4.8	5.2	5.1
14	4.4	5.5	5.3
Total	**4.7**	**5**	**5**

Table 20. Percentage of children with health problems aged 6-14, by sex and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
Work only	13.1	11.3	12.5
Study only	11.4	11.1	11.2
Work and Study	14.6	13.4	13.7
No activities	11.9	13.1	12.3
Total	11.9	11.8	11.8

Table 21. Percentage of children with health problems aged 6-14, by area and type of activity

Type of Activity	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Work only	12.6	11.5	12.5
Study only	11.4	10.9	11.2
Work and Study	13.9	11.8	13.7
No activities	12.5	11.2	12.3
Total	12.1	11.0	11.8

Table22. Percentage of children aged 10-14 with health problems, by sex and modality of employment

Modality of employment	*Female*	*Male*	*Total*
Employee	10.2	10.7	10.6
Self-employed	14.7	11.5	12.7
Employer	9.4	10.2	9.9
Works within Family	13.5	12.5	13.0
Unbaid work (apprentice)	8.5	12.2	10.2
Total	13.3	12.2	12.8

Table 23. Percentage of children aged 10-14 with health problems, by area and modality of employment

Modality of employment	*Rural*	*Urban*	*Total*
Employee	10.8	9.8	10.6
Self-employed	11.2	18.7	12.7
Employer	10.1	2.9	9.9
Works within Family	13.1	10.2	13.0
Unpaid work (apprentice)	11.4	0.0	10.2
Total	12.9	11.0	12.8

Table 24. Percentage of children working only, by household head's education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Basic*	*Secondary*	*Above Secondary*	*Total*
6	4.3	2.0	1.0	1.7	1.0	3.3
7	5.7	3.6	2.9	1.5	1.2	4.6
8	7.2	3.9	3.2	1.4	0.4	5.7
9	6.5	4.0	3.7	2.7	0.6	5.3
10	10.4	6.4	4.4	2.5	1.7	8.5
11	10.3	6.5	3.5	1.4	1.8	8.1
12	12.6	8.9	6.0	2.6	1.5	10.5
13	14.7	10.4	5.4	2.7	2.5	12.2
14	16.9	10.9	9.6	3.6	2.8	14.0
Total	9.7	6.2	4.2	2.2	1.4	7.9

Table 25. Percentage of children studying only, by household head's education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Basic*	*Secondary*	*Above Secondary*	*Total*
6	12.7	17.4	20.0	24.9	27.0	15.5
7	33.1	42.2	50.0	56.9	69.5	39.3
8	44.6	60.6	70.5	74.4	86.9	53.0
9	51.9	69.4	77.5	80.1	92.5	60.8
10	53.3	68.5	77.7	81.3	90.0	60.9
11	57.0	71.7	79.9	86.0	90.6	65.0
12	52.7	64.5	77.8	82.1	87.3	59.6
13	49.2	63.1	74.9	82.0	88.3	56.8
14	44.9	57.4	68.4	76.8	85.3	52.2
Total	44.0	56.8	65.1	69.3	78.8	50.9

Table 26. Percentage of children working and studying, by household head's education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Basic*	*Secondary*	*Above Secondary*	*Total*
6	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.4
7	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.0	0.4	1.4
8	3.2	3.5	1.4	2.2	0.4	3.0
9	4.3	4.3	2.3	5.8	1.3	4.1
10	4.7	6.3	4.5	3.4	2.9	4.9
11	5.7	6.0	4.1	5.0	2.2	5.5
12	5.9	8.4	4.0	5.1	5.1	6.2
13	6.9	7.9	6.8	5.7	3.5	6.9
14	6.1	7.9	5.8	4.5	3.5	6.3
Total	4.2	5.1	3.2	3.4	2.0	4.2

Table 27. Percentage of children involved in no activities, by household head's education and children's age

Age	*Illiterate*	*Read and Write*	*Basic*	*Secondary*	*Above Secondary*	*Total*
6	82.7	80.0	78.9	72.8	71.9	80.8
7	59.6	52.6	45.6	40.7	29.0	54.7
8	45.0	32.0	24.9	22.0	12.4	38.4
9	37.3	22.2	16.5	11.4	5.7	29.8
10	31.6	18.8	13.5	12.7	5.3	25.8
11	26.9	15.8	12.5	7.6	5.4	21.4
12	28.7	18.2	12.2	10.2	6.1	23.7
13	29.2	18.6	12.9	9.6	5.7	24.1
14	32.0	23.8	16.3	15.2	8.4	27.5
Total	42.1	32.0	27.5	25.1	17.8	37.1

ANNEX B

c) Regression results

TABLE B1. Bivariate probit regression

Variable	Work		Attend school	
	Coefficient	z	Coefficient	z
sex1	.1922382	6.75	-1.209099	-48.31
age	.2923452	14.60	1.458448	93.84
age2	-.0080915	-8.32	-.066353	-86.01
hhsize	-.0012482	-0.30	-.0389182	-12.52
mal_edu2	.0147297	1.18	.1895809	19.07
fem_edu2	-.0797732	-4.51	.0446311	3.44
public_water	-.0795995	-4.04	.1261928	8.31
basic_cluster	-.0736694	-3.31	.1495226	8.28
Koran_cluster	-.0731788	-3.33	-.0399663	-2.34
second_cluster	-.0777292	-4.09	.0267882	1.75
sc_time_cluster	.003085	8.24	-.0073005	-22.62
time_wood1	.3335067	11.03	-.2421381	-8.88
time_wood2	.1609924	6.20	-.2723486	-12.32
time_wood3	.0947545	4.83	-.2413235	-14.77
time_wood4	.1990101	12.35	-.1549998	-11.62
child_0_5	.0419105	6.51	.0128322	2.53
child6_14	-.0110124	-2.37	-.0146156	-3.97
adult65	.0807595	7.42	-.0272685	-3.09
lnfitted1	-.1426639	-4.02	.79214	28.49
gove1	-.1304031	-3.51	.1518662	5.38
gove2	.1697168	3.82	-.2316843	64
gove3	-.2584193	-4.55	.0235341	0.67
gove4	-.1906697	-4.35	-.2332218	-7.35
gove5	.0761863	2.06	.1959171	6.76
gove6	.4548355	10.11	-.2732414	-7.45
gove7	.101632	2.94	-.2303276	-8.47
gove8	.1247	3.28	-.3428222	-11.57
gove9	-.3000371	-7.04	-.3584151	-12.08
gove10	.4496196	11.55	-.2199421	-6.74
gove11	-.1762306	-3.98	-.292153	-9.26
gove12	.4119827	11.20	-.4533361	-14.85
gove13	.4346142	12.46	-.1889297	-6.67
gove14	-.7312699	-6.03	.1375622	2.86
gove15	-.1165872	-2.90	.2209463	7.13
gove16	.1743465	3.97	-.180584	-5.11
gove17	.5927936	14.69	-.023608	-0.67
gove18	-.4023166	-4.94	-.3939607	-8.82
gove19	.5681889	16.31	-.1718926	-5.99
govern	.0162702	0.72	.2052751	13.00
private	.2460926	15.24	-.0148835	-1.25
mixed	-.0858495	-0.91	.2570067	3.76
coop	-.3494012	-2.01	.0577347	0.61
fem_water	-.1951001	-7.47	.37954	20.04
fem_basic	.049168	1.61	-.0534578	-2.01
fem_koran	-.168853	-5.41	.3022495	13.29
fem_second	-.1509872	-5.75	.2631178	12.55
fem_child	.0003401	0.05	-.0232527	-4.00
Rho	-.3077336			

Source: UCW calculations based on *Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey 1999*.

TABLE B2. Marginal effects after bivariate probit								
Variable	Work only		School only		Work and school		No activities	
	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
sex1	4.92		-25.37		-3.25		23.70	
basic_cluster	-0.83		3.51		0.01		-2.69	
second_cluster	-2.05		4.92		-0.41		-2.46	
Koran_cluster	-1.84		3.75		-0.58		-1.33	
public_water	-2.69		9.28		-0.07		-6.53	
mal_edu2	0.48		-4.65		-0.72		4.89	
fem_edu2	0.86		-1.65		0.40		0.39	
sc_time_cluster	-1.15		3.75		0.08		-2.68	
adult65	1.01		-2.21		0.34		0.86	
child_0_5	0.48		-0.93		0.20		0.26	
Interaction terms								
fem_water	-3.39		11.17		0.22		-7.99	
fem_school	0.76		-1.58		0.06		0.76	
fem_Koran	-2.83		8.87		0.11		-6.15	
fem_second	-2.63		7.63		0.10		-5.10	
fem_child	0.58		-0.45		0.15		-0.28	

Source: UCW calculations based on Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey 1999

d) Variable description

sex1: is a dummy, female=1 male=0;

age2: is the age square;

mal_edu: is the educational level of the head of the household (1=literate, 0 illiterate);

fem_edu: is the educational level of the spouse of the household (1=litterate, 0 illiterate);

public_water (1=house with public services water, 0=house without services water);

basic_cluster : is the mean cluster at "cluster" level (for this survey the cluster is an homogenous area with more than one village) of the availability of basic school services, (1=there are basic schools, 0=no basic schools);

Koran cluster: is the mean cluster at "cluster" level (for this survey the cluster is an homogenous area with more than one village) of the availability of schools for Koran, (1= schools available, 0=no schools available);

second_cluster : is the mean cluster at "cluster" level (for this survey the cluster is an homogenous area with more than one village) of the availability of secondary school services, (1=second schools available, 0=no secondary schools);

sc_time_cluster: is the mean cluster at "cluster" level (for this survey the cluster is an homogenous area with more than one village) of the time spent to reach the school

time_wood: time spent to collect wood (4 variables: increasing time)

fem_water , fem_basic, fem_koran , fem_second, fem_child, are interaction terms by female and public water services, basic school services, koran school services, secondary school services, children aged 0-5.

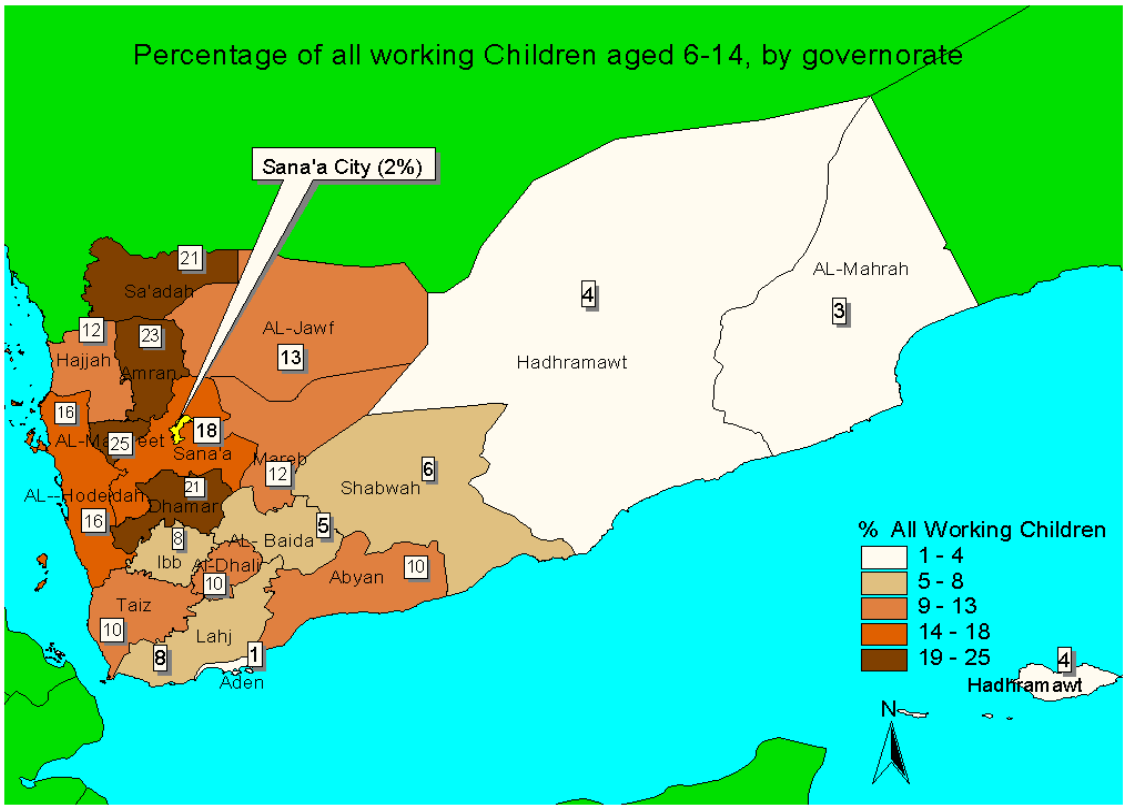
Govern, private, mixed, coop (member of cooperative), is the father's sector of employment.

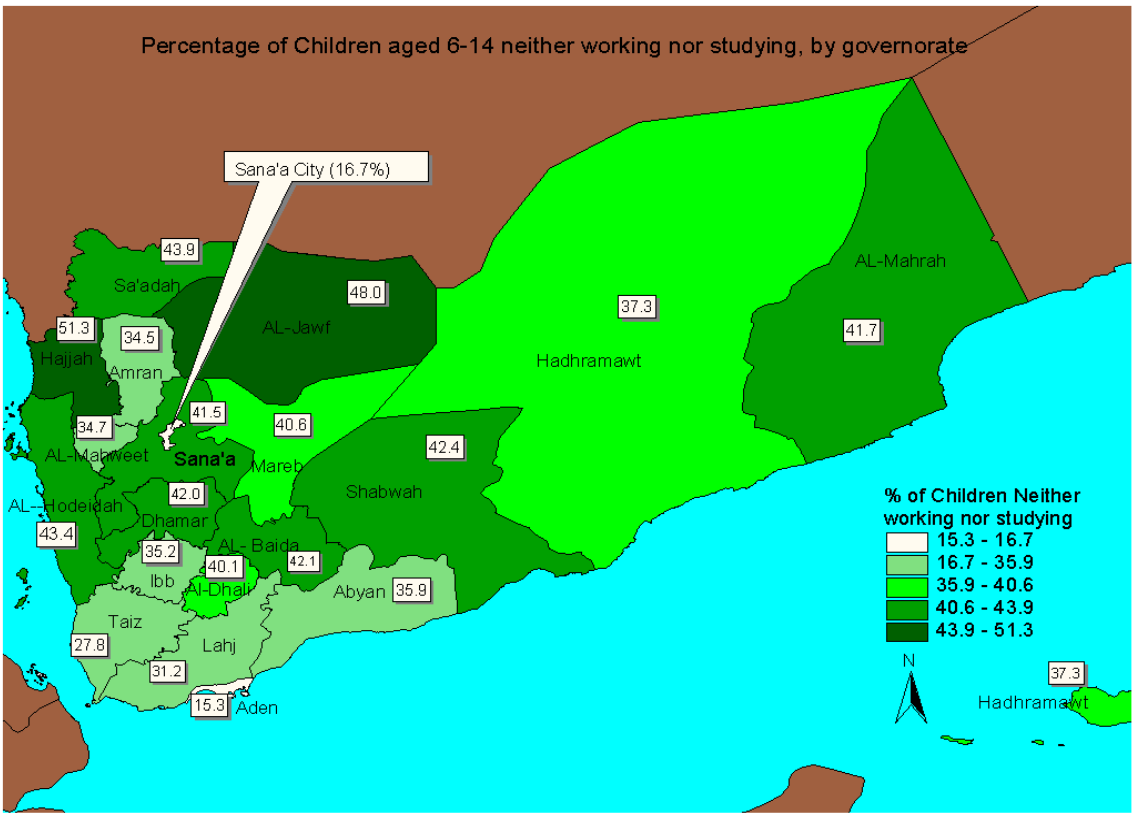
gove1 – gove19: dummy for the governorate.

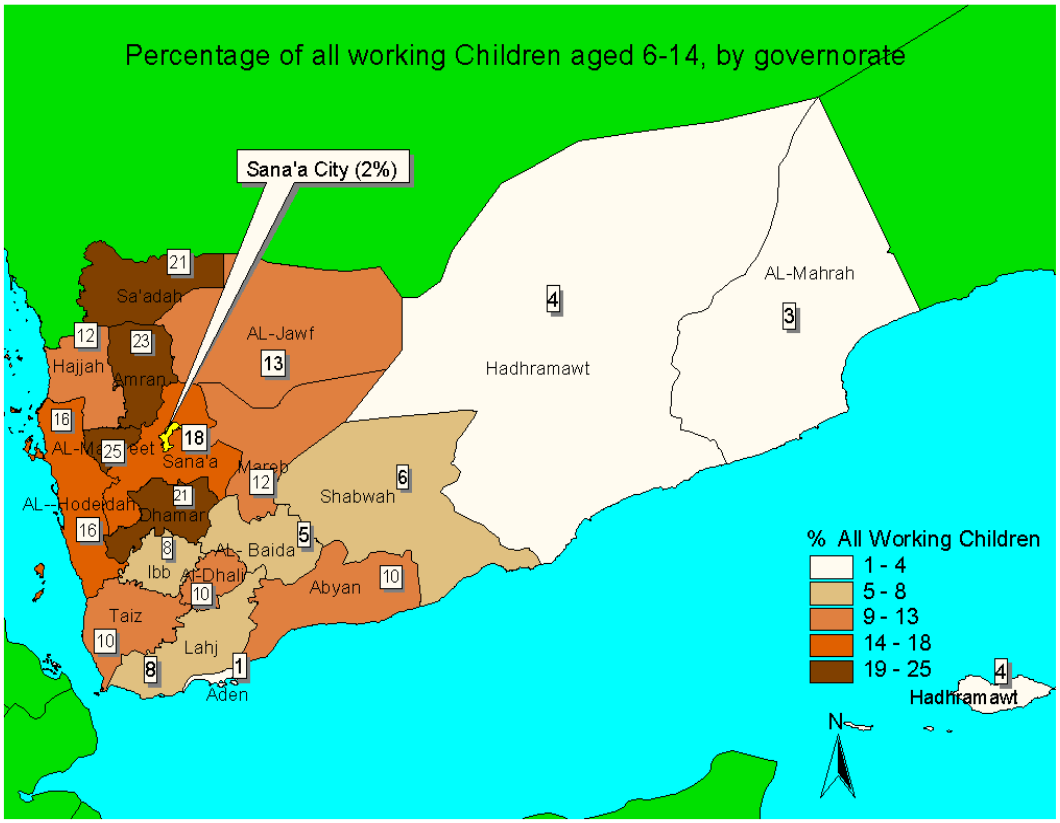
Lnfitted1: log of the fitted value of the household expenditure (estimated from HBS Survey)

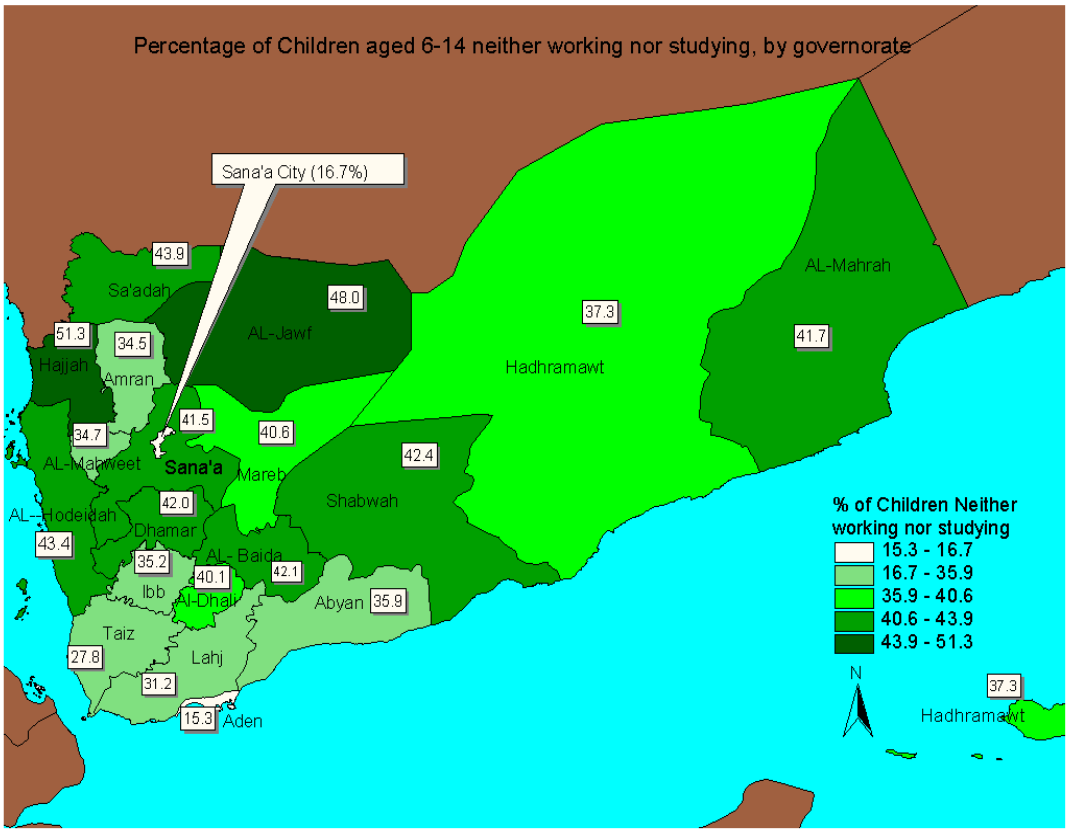
ANNEX C

e) Children's work by governorate: GIS analysis

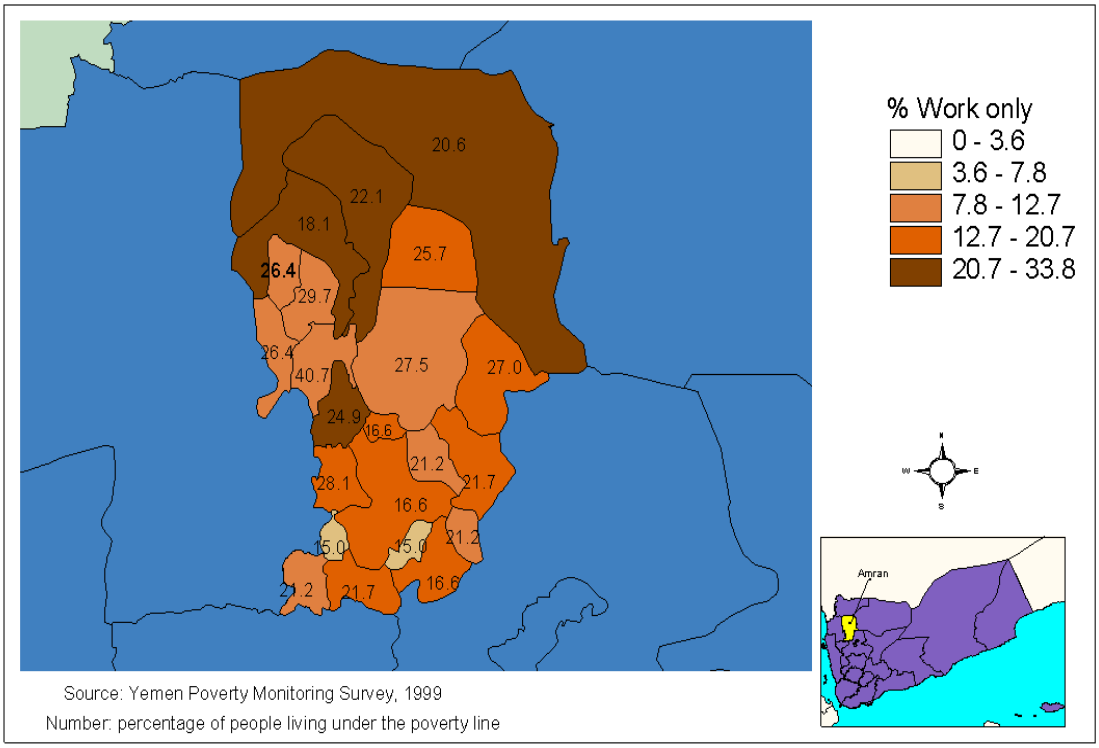





Percentage of all working Children aged 6-14, by governorate
Sana'a City (2%)
Sa'adah
Hajjah
Amran
AL-Jawf
Hadhramawt
AL-Mahrah
Sana'a
Mareb
Shabwah
Dhamar
Hodeidah
Ibb
Al-Dhali
Abyan
Taiz
Lahj
Aden
% All Working Children
1 - 4
5 - 8
9 - 13
14 - 18
19 - 25
N


Percentage of Children aged 6-14 neither working nor studying, by governorate
Sana'a City (16.7%)
Sa'adah
Hajjah
Amran
AL-Jawf
Hadhramawt
AL-Mahrah
Sana'a
Mareb
Shabwah
Dhamar
Hodeidah
Ibb
Al-Dhali
Abyan
Taiz
Lahj
Aden
% of Children Neither working nor studying
15.3 - 16.7
16.7 - 35.9
35.9 - 40.6
40.6 - 43.9
43.9 - 51.3
N

Percentage of Children aged 6-14 working only and poverty level in the governorate Amran, by district.



Source: Yemen Poverty Monitoring Survey, 1999

Number: percentage of people living under the poverty line

ANNEX D

f) ILO indicators for analysing child labour

Indicator set 1. Work incidence (SIMPOC, customized SIMPOC and LSMS may be used as instruments to obtain these series)				
Category	**Indicators**	**Definition**	**Availability**	
All tabulated by the aggregate level and by: age group; gender; region; rural/urban; sector.			**1 period**	**>1 period**
economic activity	1a. Economically Active Children 1b. Labour Force Participation Rate	number (or %) of children who are economically active, i.e., reported to have worked either for pay (cash or kind) or unpaid family and domestic workers during the reference period.	✓	
child labour	2a. Child Labourers 2b. Child Labour Rate	# and % of children who reported to have worked either for pay (cash or in-kind), or unpaid family and domestic workers during the reference period, and nature of work or amount of time spent working meets any of the following conditions: child is below the minimum age for the industry or type of work; works excessive hours; works in one of 'worst forms' c. 182; works unsafe conditions, as specified in reference to article 4 of c. 182.	✓	
employer	3. Work By Employer Status By: Age Group; Gender; Region; Rural/Urban.	percentage of workers who work for own-family vs. for an external employer.	✓	
Location	4. Work By Location Of Employment	percentage of children who work at home v. away from home.		
Sector	5. Work By Sector Of Employment	percentage of workers who work in various employment sectors (manufacturing, services, agriculture, construction, handicrafts, textiles, etc.).	✓	
intensity of work	6. Average Hours Worked Per Week	average of hours worked per week among child labourers.	✓	
intensity of work	7. Distribution Of Hours Worked Per Week	the distribution of hours worked per week among child labourers.	✓	
intensity of work	8. Months Worked Per Year	average months worked per year among child labourers.		

Indicator Set 2-- Correlates And Causes Of Child Labour				
Category	**Indicators**	**Definition**	**Availability**	
All tabulated by the aggregate level and by: age group; gender; region; rural/urban; sector.			**1 period**	**>1 period**
School Enrolment	9. Net school enrolment ratio	For children of the official primary school age group, enrollment in primary education, expressed as a percentage of the population.	✓	
School Participation	10. Never attended school	Percentage of all children who have achieved the age for of mandatory attendance of primary school who have never enrolled in school.	✓	
School Leaving	11. School dropout rate	Percentage of all children who are above the age for mandatory attendance of primary school and below the legal school-leaving age, who are not attending school, but have attended school at some point in their lives.		
Work And School	12. Labourer students	Percentage of all children currently enrolled in school who are child labourers.	✓	
Work And School	13. Student labourers	Percentage of all child labourer who are currently enrolled in school.	✓	
Idleness	14. Idleness rate	Percentage of all children who are neither economically active nor enrolled in school.	✓	
Causes	15. Child Labour rate, by family size	For a given family size, create a simple tabulation of the percentage of children who are child labourers.	✓	
Causes	16. Child labour rate, by gender of household head	% of children from female headed households who are child labourers vs. from male headed.	✓	
Causes	17. Child labour rate, by socioeconomic status	For deciles of income/expenditure (or above/below poverty line), % of children who are child labourers.	✓	
Causes	18. Child labour rate, by reason child works	% Reporting various reasons why child works; (need income; pay debt under contractual arrangement; assist household enterprise; education not suitable; school too far).		

Indicator Set 3-- Consequences Of Child Labour				
Category	**Indicators**	**Definition**	**Availability**	
All tabulated by the aggregate level and by: age group; gender; region; rural/urban; sector.			**1 period**	**>1 period**
Consequences	19. Injuries among child labourers by: age; gender;	Among all children who have ever worked, % hurt at work.	✓	
Consequences	20. Serious injuries among child labourers	Among children who have been hurt, % where injury resulted in hospitalization or permanently prevented work.	✓	
Consequences	21. Work interference with schooling	Among child labourers, % reporting their work interferes with attending school or studies.		
Consequences	22. Consequences of eliminating child labour	What would happen if child stopped working (household living standards decline, household can't afford to live, household business can't run).		

Indicator Set 4-- Contextual Indicators				
Category	**Indicators**	**Definition**	**Availability**	
All tabulated by the aggregate level and by: age group; gender; region; rural/urban; sector.			**1 period**	**>1 period**
Population and human capital	Total fertility rate	The average number of children a woman can be expected to have over the course of her life	✓	
Population and human capital	Poverty rate	% Households with income less than $1 per person per day	✓	
Population and human capital	Life expectancy	Average years expected to live at birth	✓	
Population and human capital	Adult literacy rate	% population 15+ who can read.	✓	
Education system	Public school expenditure (% GDP per student)	Public expenditures on primary education, as % of gdp and per pupil (2 separate measures)	✓	
Education system	Pupil/teacher ratio (school quality)	Ratio of students per teacher. a good indicator of school quality.	✓	
Education system	Costs of attending school	Average cost attending primary school; fees, tuition, uniforms, books, supplies, transport.	✓	
Economy	GDP per capita	Total GDP divided by total population.	✓	
Economy	Output composition	% of GDP for: agriculture; industry; construction; mining; manufacturing; services	✓	
Economy	Capital intensity, manufacturing and agriculture	Standard index of capital intensity, or capital/labour ratio.	✓	
Economy	Trade engagement	Share of imports and exports in gdp.	✓	
Labour Standards And Legal Environment	Minimum working age;	Minimum working age, by industry. likely to comprise more than 1 simple indicator.	✓	
Labour Standards And Legal Environment	Compulsory schooling age;	Age To Which Children Must Remain In School.	✓	