

# The twin challenges of child labour and educational marginalisation in the East and South-East Asia region

*Preparing for a post 2015 world*



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

1. This study looks at child labour in eight countries - Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Vietnam and Mongolia – covered by the ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific. Much remains to be done in the eight study countries to overcome the twin challenges of child labour and educational marginalisation. Although the eight countries have collectively shown improvements in terms of child labour and primary school attendance, child labour continues to be high in several of them and a significant number of primary school-aged children are out of school, often due to the demands of work. Both child labour and education marginalisation can lead to social vulnerability and societal marginalisation, and both can permanently impair productive potential and therefore influence lifetime patterns of employment and pay. Child labour is also often associated with direct threats to children's health and well-being. Accelerating progress against child labour and educational marginalisation therefore remains a critical development priority.

2. The remainder of the Report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 discusses definitions and data sources as background for the descriptive statistics presented in the subsequent chapters. Chapter 3 reports estimates of child labour for children across the entire 5-17 years age range. Chapter 4 assesses children's involvement in employment, a broader measure than child labour, among children in the 5-14 years age range; it looks specifically at the prevalence of children's employment, its key correlates, its nature and defining characteristics and its interplay with children's schooling. Chapter 5 then addresses hazardous work among adolescents in the 15-17 years age range. Finally, Chapter 6 reviews policy priorities for addressing the twin challenges of child labour and educational marginalisation.

### *Panel 1. Understanding Children's Work (UCW) programme*

The inter-agency research programme, Understanding Children's Work (UCW), was initiated by the International Labour Organisation (ILO), UNICEF and the World Bank to help inform efforts towards eliminating child labour.

The Programme is guided by the Roadmap adopted at The Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010, which lays out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labour.

The Roadmap calls for effective partnership across the UN system to address child labour, and for mainstreaming child labour into policy and development frameworks.

Research on the work and the vulnerability of children and youth constitutes the main component of the UCW Programme. Through close collaboration with stakeholders in partner countries, the Programme produces research allowing a better understanding of child labour and youth employment in their various dimensions and the linkages between them.

The results of this research support the development of intervention strategies designed to remove children from the world of work, prevent others from entering it and to promote decent work for youth. As UCW research is conducted within an inter-agency framework, it promotes a shared understanding of child labour and of the youth employment challenges and provides a common platform for addressing them.

## 2. DEFINITIONS AND DATA SOURCES

3. Child labour is a legal rather than statistical concept, and the international legal standards that define it are therefore the necessary frame of reference for child labour measurement. The three principal international conventions on child labour – ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age)(C138), United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms)(C182) together set the legal boundaries for child labour, and provide the legal basis for national and international actions against it (see Panel 2).

### *Panel 2. International legal standards relating to child labour*

The term **child labour** refers to the subset of children's production that is injurious, negative or undesirable to children and that should be targeted for elimination. Three main international conventions – the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) and ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) – provide the main legal standards for child labour and a framework for efforts against it.

**ILO Convention No. 138** (Minimum Age) represents the most comprehensive and authoritative international definition of minimum age for admission to work or employment. C138 calls on Member States to set a general minimum age for admission to work or employment of at least 15 years of age (Art. 2.3) (14 years of age in less developed countries), and a higher minimum age of not less than 18 years for employment or work which by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out is likely to jeopardise the health, safety or morals of young persons, i.e., hazardous work (Art. 3.1). The Convention states that national laws or regulations may permit the employment or work of persons from 13 years of age (12 years in less developed countries) on light work which is (a) not likely to be harmful to their health or development; and (b) not such as to prejudice their attendance at school, their participation in vocational orientation or training programmes approved by the competent authority or their capacity to benefit from the instruction received (Art. 7).

**ILO Convention No. 182** (Worst Forms of Child Labour) supplements C138 by emphasising the subset of worst forms of child labour requiring immediate action. For the purposes of the Convention, worst forms of child labour comprise: (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, as well as forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; (b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; (c) the use, procurement or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in relevant international treaties; and (d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (Art. 3).

The **UN Convention on the Rights of the Child** (CRC) recognises the child's right to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is 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 (Art. 32.1). In order to achieve this goal, the CRC calls on States Parties to set minimum ages for admission to employment, having regard to other international instruments (Art. 32.2).

4. Translating these broad legal norms into statistical terms for measurement purposes is complicated by the fact that ILO Convention No. 138 (C138) contains a number of flexibility clauses left to the discretion of the competent national authority in consultation (where relevant) with worker and employer organisations. In accordance with C138, for example, national authorities may temporarily specify a lower general minimum age of 14 years. C138 also states that national laws may permit the work of persons from age 12 or 13 years in "light" work that is not likely to be harmful to their health or development or to prejudice their attendance at school. Children who are above the minimum working age are prohibited from involvement in hazardous work or other worst forms of child labour, but the Conventions (C138 and C182) leave responsibility for the compilation of specific lists of hazardous forms of work to national authorities.

5. This point is illustrated in Table 1, which summarises key legislation relating to child labour in the study countries. As shown, while all but Timor-Leste have ratified ILO Convention No. 138, the minimum age specified at ratification ranges across countries from 14 to 15 years. Not all countries have provisions for light work, and, among those that do have such provisions, there are differences in terms of the relevant age range and the make-up of light work. Similarly, not all countries have specified national lists of hazardous work, and there are large differences in contents among those that have drafted national lists.

Table 1. Legislation relating to child labour in the study countries

Country	C138 ratification	Minimum age specified	Light work provisions	Hazardous list
Cambodia	Yes; 23 Aug. 1999	15 years	Yes; from 12 years (MoSALVY, Prakas (proclamation) No. 002 of 2008) <sup>(a)</sup>	Yes (MoSALVY, Prakas (proclamation) No. 106 of 2004)
Lao PDR	Yes; 13 Jun. 2005	14 years	No	No
Philippines	Yes; 4 Jun. 1998	15 years		
Thailand	Yes; 11 May 2004	15 years	Yes; from 13 years (Ministerial Regulation Concerning Labour Protection of Employee in Agricultural Work of 2004) <sup>(b)</sup>	Yes (Labour Protection Act of 1998, Child Protection Act of 2003) <sup>(c)</sup>
Mongolia	Yes; 16 Dec. 2002	15 years	No	Yes (MOSWL, List of Jobs and Occupations Prohibited to Minors of 2008) <sup>(d)</sup>
Indonesia	Yes; 07 Jun. 1999	15 years	Yes ; from 13 years (Law No. 13 of 2003) <sup>(e)</sup>	Yes (Ministerial Decree 235 of 2003) <sup>(f)</sup>
Timor-Leste	No	15 years	Yes ; from 13 years (Law No. 4/2012, The Labour Law)	No <sup>(g)</sup>
Vietnam	Yes; 24 Jun. 2003	15 years	Yes, from 13 year (Circular No. 11/2013/TT-BLDTBXH) <sup>(h)</sup>	Yes (Circular No. 10/2013/TT-BLDTBXH)

Notes:

(a) Prakas No. 002 of 2008 establishes a list of light work categories: 1) Light work in the agriculture sector such as raising animals, caring for small livestock animals – but not catching and slaughtering animals – growing plants, harvesting, gathering fruit – but not climbing to pick them – as well as cleaning fruit; 2) Clearing grass and preparing soil; 3) Recording goods; 4) Working at some shopping malls such as selling booth, vegetables and fruit selling stall, or news stand and stall of other similar goods; 5) Receiving, packing, selecting and classifying goods as well as assembling light things, including opening or taking goods out of packages.; 6) Sweeping, mopping and setting tables; 7) Manual easy installation, but not welding metal or iron, or working with any product causing hazardous risk; 8) Painting wall or things with proper protective equipment but not spraying paint; 9) Easy work such as sewing, putting goods into plastic bags, folding cartons, or polishing and cleaning glass or ceramics, trimming garment, or assembling all parts of garment or cleaning something dirty on the garment or attaching brand, or attaching price tag; 10) Preparing or selecting garments for washing; 11) Checking products; 12) Working as messenger within the organization ; 13) Receiving letters or sending out packages, as well as distributing information and documents; 14) Filing books in the library; 15) Lifting, carrying and holding light things. Prakas No. 002 of 2008 prescribes the length of the working day ( not more than 4 hours for children having school days and not more than 7 hours for school-free days) and the working week (not more than 12 hours per week for school days and not more than 35 hours per week for school-free weeks) and prohibits night work for children aged 12 to 15 years.

(b) The Ministerial Regulation for the Protection of Workers in the Agricultural Sector permits children aged 13 or older to engage in agricultural work during school vacation or non-school hours, as long as they receive parental permission and the nature of the work is not hazardous. However, the number of hours permitted for children to perform light work in agriculture is not clear.

(c) In 2013 the Government updated the list of hazardous occupations and working conditions prohibited to children.

(d) The List of Jobs Prohibited to Minors lists locations, professions, and working conditions prohibited to minors under age 18. Minors are prohibited from working as miners, load carriers, horse breakers, animal trainers, and garbage scavengers. Child herders are prohibited from pasturing small animals at distances greater than 1,000 meters during dangerous weather conditions or natural disasters.

(e) The Decree prohibits entrepreneurs from employing children between 13 and 15 years old, with the exception of light work which must not disturb their schooling nor involve them for more than 3 hours a day.

(f) The list prohibits children's exposure to heavy machinery, confined spaces, hazardous chemicals, heavy loads, isolated areas, and late-night hours.

(g) In 2012-2013 Timor-Leste's Child Labour Commission working group finalized a list of hazardous activities prohibited to children and submitted it to the Council of Ministers for approval.

(h) The Circular establishes a list of light work categories: 1) Traditional jobs: drawing dots on ceramic, sawing clams, painting lacquer, making poonah paper, conical hat, making incense, drawing dots on hat, mat weaving, drum making, brocade weaving, making rice noodles, bean sprouts, making rice noodle (vermicelli), 2) Arts and crafts: embroidery, art wood, make horn comb, weaving net, making Dong Ho paintings, molding toy figurine, 3) Wicker, making home appliances, fine art crafts from natural materials such as: rattan, bamboo, neohouzeaua, coconut, banana, water hyacinth, 5) Rearing silkworms, 6) Packing coconut candy.

6. As a result of these differences, there is no single legal definition of child labour across countries, and concomitantly, no single statistical measure of child labour consistent with national legislation across countries. Attempting to measure child labour based solely on national legislation, in other words, would lead to estimates that are not be comparable across countries. In order to ensure comparability, therefore, Chapter 3 of the Report presents child labour estimates based on the standard methodology employed by ILO in its global child labour estimates. The ILO methodology is also used in the more detailed discussion of child labour among adolescents in the 15-17 years age group in Chapters 5.<sup>1</sup> It is worth repeating that the child labour indicator developed with this methodology is not necessarily consistent with child labour as defined in legal terms in individual countries.

7. The Report is based on the most recent available data from national household surveys in a total of seven countries in the Southeast Asia region and one in the East Asia region (Mongolia), as summarised in Table 2.

*Table 2. Listing of household survey datasets used in Report*

<i>Country</i>	<i>Survey name</i>	<i>Year</i>
Cambodia	Cambodia Labour Force and Child labour Survey (LFS-NCLS) (SIMPOC)	2011-2012
Lao PDR	National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) (SIMPOC)	2010
Philippines	Survey on Children (SOC)	2011
Thailand	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 3 (MICS 3)	2005-2006
Mongolia	Labour Force Survey with Child Activities Module (LFS-NCLS)	2011
Indonesia	Child Labour Survey	2009
Timor-Leste	Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSLS)	2007
Vietnam	National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) (SIMPOC)	2012

8. The ILO Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) surveys are the source for information on the extent and nature of children's employment in six countries (i.e., Cambodia, Lao PDR,<sup>2</sup> Philippines, Mongolia, Indonesia and Vietnam). The SIMPOC survey programme provides more detailed information on the extent, nature and hazardousness of children's employment across the entire 5-17 years age range. Data for Timor-Leste are from a general household survey that is not explicitly designed to measure labour force participation, but collects this information alongside a range of other household and labour force characteristics. Data for Thailand are from the UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS); this survey does not contain detailed information on the nature and characteristics of children's employment.

9. The different survey instruments (as well as different survey reference years) mean that cross-country comparisons of children's employment should be

<sup>1</sup> For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013

<sup>2</sup> It is important to note that the estimates of employment for Lao PDR based on the NCLS of 2010 likely significantly understate actual employment levels of children. The underestimation is product of problems with the definition of employment used in the employment question in the NCLS of 2010 that leads to a lack of information on the overlap between school and employment. As evidence from other developing countries indicates that children combining school and work form of the majority of children in employment, the underestimation of employment in the case of Lao PDR could be considerable. This estimation problem does not, however, extend to school attendance, which is captured by a separate question.

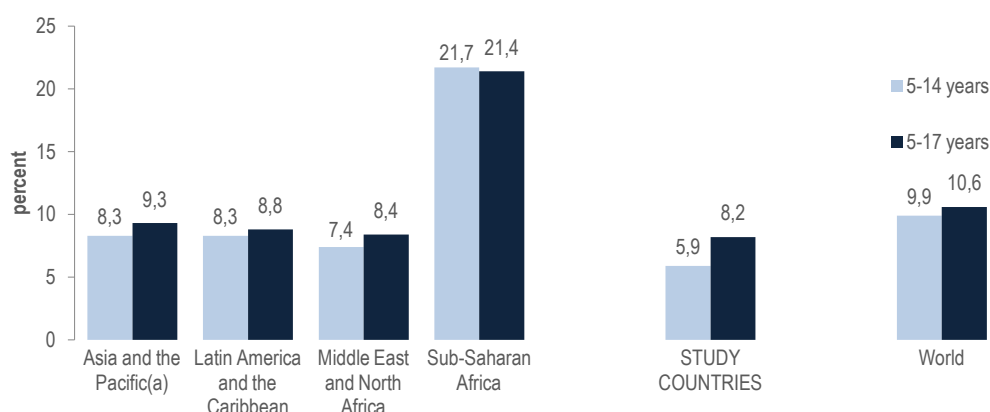
interpreted with caution. The information contained is also dissimilar across surveys, meaning that some indicators and disaggregations are not available for all the countries. In particular, hazardous work cannot be identified in Timor-Leste and Thailand. Disaggregation by subsector (e.g., manufacturing of food products, textiles, garments, wood products, sale and repair of motor vehicles) is not possible for Thailand, Timor Leste and, in some cases, for Lao PDR and Mongolia.

### 3. INVOLVEMENT IN CHILD LABOUR AMONG 5-17 YEAR-OLDS

10. Child labour in the study countries remains a relevant policy concern. The child labour rate in the study countries as measured in accordance with the ILO global estimates methodology<sup>3</sup> stands at around six percent for 5-14 year-olds and eight percent for 5-17 year olds<sup>4</sup> (Figure 1). These child labour rates are slightly lower than those for the Asia and Pacific Region as a whole for the 5-14 years and 5-17 years age groups (8.3% and 9.3%, respectively) and are also below the world averages for the two age groups (9.9% and 10.6%, respectively).

Figure 1. Child labour incidence in the study countries stands at around six percent for 5-14 year olds and eight percent for 5-17 year olds

Percentage of children in child labour, by age range and region



Notes: (a) Estimates for Asia and the Pacific include the study countries.  
Source: ILO SIMPOC calculations based on ILO global estimates datasets.

Table 3. Estimates of child labour involvement, based on standard ILO global estimate methodology<sup>(a)</sup>

Country	(a) Children aged 5-11 years in employment <sup>(b)</sup>		(b) Children aged 12-14 years in regular (non- light) employment <sup>(c)</sup>		(c) Children aged 15-17 years in hazardous employment <sup>(d)</sup>		(d)=(a)&(b) Children aged 5-14 years in child labour		(e)=(a)&(b)&(c) Children aged 5-17 years in child labour	
	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.
	Cambodia (2011-12)	4.0	77,764	15.8	155,506	28.6	291,366	8.0	233,270	13.3
Lao PDR (2010)	4.1	37,065	15.1	65,173	25.8	105,565	7.7	102,238	11.9	207,803
Philippines (2011)	4.3	639,639	10.9	652,976	20.2	1,211,638	6.3	1,292,615	9.4	2,504,254
Thailand <sup>(e)</sup> (2005-06)	9.0	618,039	5.8	179,496	--	--	8.0	797,535	--	--
Mongolia (2011)	10.7	31,301	11.8	16,967	5.5	8,344	11.0	48,268	9.6	56,612
Indonesia (2009)	3.3	1,018,243	6.3	806,129	8.3	1,242,514	4.2	1,824,372	5.2	3,066,886
Timor-Leste <sup>(b)(f)</sup> (2007)	15.5	8,528	16.4	12,603	--	--	16.0	21,130	--	--
Vietnam (2012)	3.7	358,506	19.2	790,562	30.7	1,392,252	8.3	1,149,068	13.9	2,541,319
<b>Total countries</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>1,276,444</b>	<b>7.7</b>	<b>1,684,332</b>	<b>13.9</b>	<b>2,872,767</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>2,960,775</b>	<b>8.2</b>	<b>5,036,007</b>

Notes: (a) Estimates based on this methodology provide an international statistical benchmark for comparative purposes but do not necessarily reflect child labour as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries. For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012*/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013; (b) The lower age boundary for Timor-Leste estimates is ten years; (c) Children in regular employment (i.e., in non-light-work) includes children working more than 14 hours per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; (d) Hazardous employment includes children working for 43 hours or more per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; (e) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years; (f) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

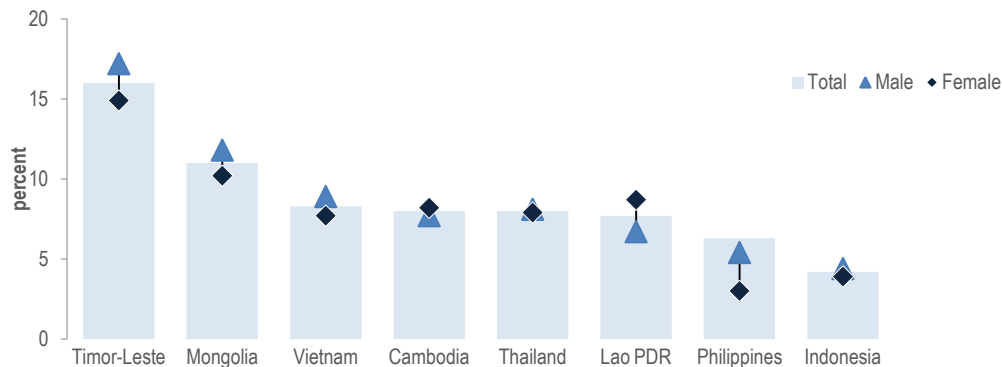
<sup>3</sup> For details, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012*/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013.

<sup>4</sup> It is necessary to keep in mind that the average child labour rate obtained from the data for the seven countries analysed in the report is imprecise because estimates for the single countries refer to different years.

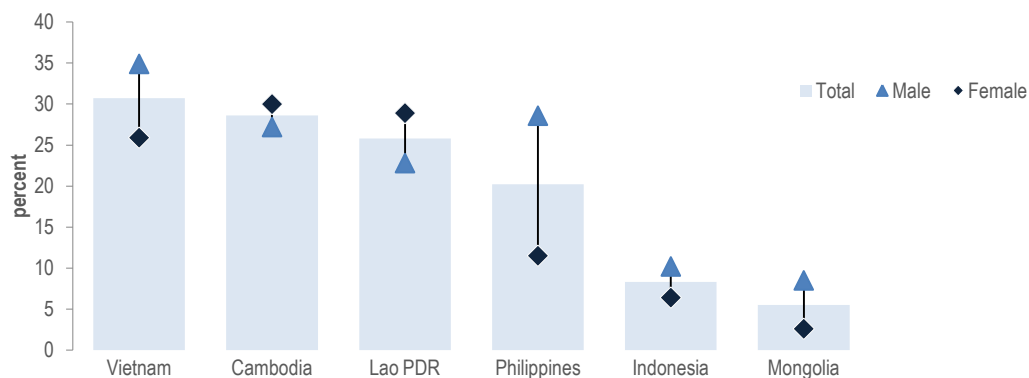
**11. The overall average child labour rate for the study countries, however, masks considerable variation across countries.** The country-specific estimates of child labour,<sup>5</sup> reported in Table 3, indicate that child labour is most common in Vietnam, where it affects almost 14% of all 5-17 year-olds. Cambodia has the second-highest child labour incidence (13.3%), followed by Lao PDR (11.9%), Mongolia (9.6%) and the Philippines (9.4%). Seen in absolute terms, Indonesia also host to by far the largest number of child labourers in the 5-17 years age range (3.1 million), followed by Vietnam (2.5 million), Philippines (2.5 million) and Cambodia (0.5 million). Table 3 also reports estimates for the specific age ranges (and associated child labour categories) that make up the composite child labour estimates. This decomposition highlights, *inter alia*, the very high share of adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous employment in Vietnam, Cambodia and Lao PDR (31%, 29% and 26%, respectively).

Figure 2. Girls appear to face a lower risk of child labour than boys

(a) Percentage of children in child labour, 5-14 years, by sex and country



(b) Percentage of children in child labour, 15-17 years, by sex and country



Notes: (a) Estimates based on this methodology provide an international statistical benchmark for comparative purposes but do not necessarily reflect child labour as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries. For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012*/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013; (b) The lower age boundary Timor-Leste estimates is ten years; (c) Children in regular employment (i.e., in non-light-work) includes children working more than 14 hours per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; (d) Hazardous employment includes children working for 43 hours or more per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; (e) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years; (f) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation.

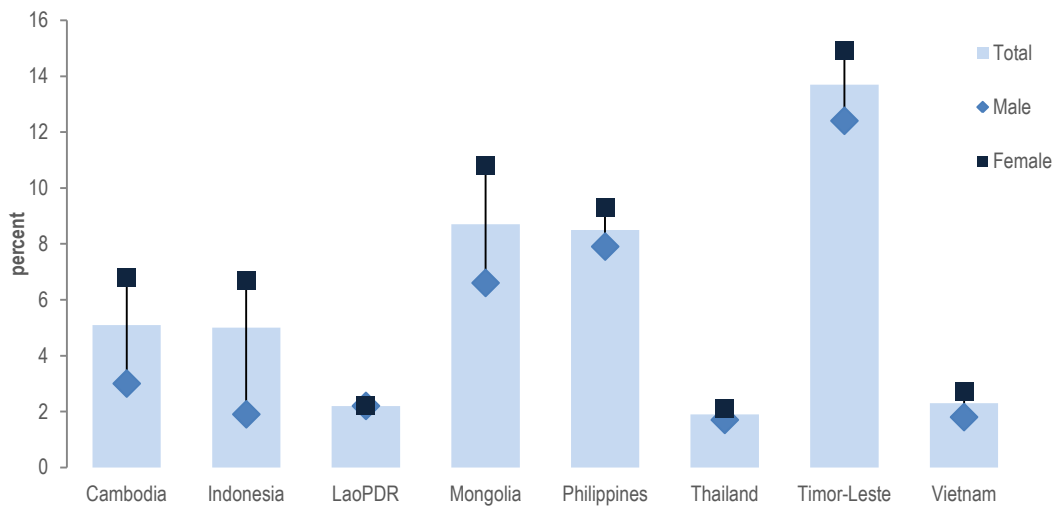
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**12. Girls appear to face a slightly lower risk of child labour than boys in both the 5-14 years and 15-17 years age ranges.** For the 5-14 years age group, a higher

<sup>5</sup> As discussed above, they do not necessarily reflect child labour as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries, but rather reflect a standardised approximation of child labour for comparative purposes.

share of boys than girls are in child labour in six of the eight countries (Cambodia and Lao PDR are the exceptions), although differences by sex are generally quite small (Figure 2a and Appendix Table A1). A similar pattern prevails for 15-17 year-olds, again with the exception of Cambodia and Lao PDR, but differences in child labour between males and females in this age group are larger (Figure 2b and Appendix Table A1). The child labour rate among male 15-17 year-olds in Mongolia, for example, is more than three times that of females in the same age group, and in the Philippines it is double that of female adolescents.

Figure 3. Percentage of children carrying out household chores for more than 20 hours per week, 5-14 years old, by sex



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

13. It should be kept in mind in interpreting these child labour estimates **do not include household chores, a form of work for which girls typically shoulder the largest burden.** For example, using 20 weekly hours as a benchmark threshold beyond which household chores is considered child labour,<sup>6</sup> it can be seen that a much higher share of girls than boys are affected in all countries except Lao PDR and Thailand (Figure 3). It is also worth underscoring that girls are often disproportionately represented in less visible and therefore underreported forms of child labour such as domestic service in third party households. These estimates, therefore, may understate girls' involvement in child labour relative to that of boys.

<sup>6</sup> Initial international evidence suggests that this is the threshold beyond which household chores begin to interfere with school attendance. See, for example, ILO ([http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_223907.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---stat/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_223907.pdf)). However, more research is needed in this area in order to identify more definitive criteria for classifying household chores as child labour. It should be noted that countries have not yet considered household chores in national child labour legislation.



## 4. INVOLVEMENT IN EMPLOYMENT AMONG 5-14 YEARS OLD

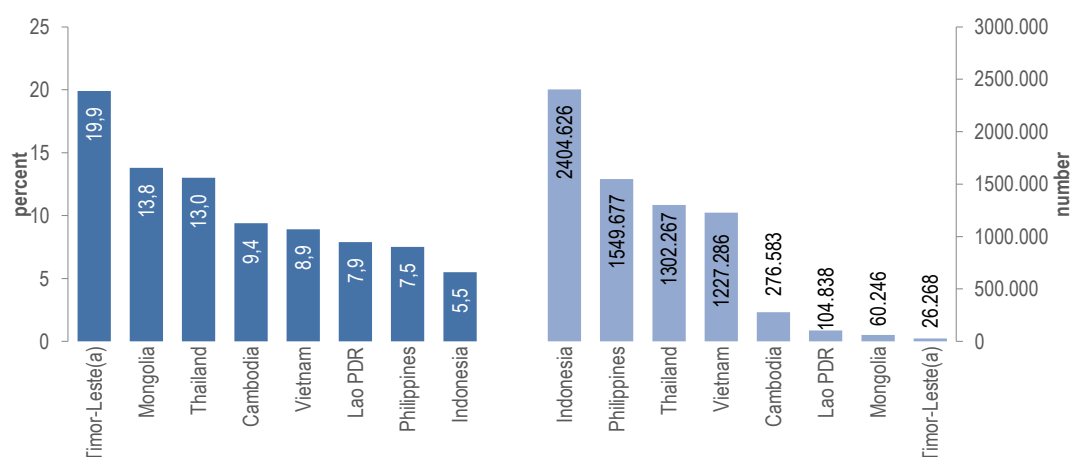
14. In this chapter we shift to the broader concept of employment for a more in-depth analysis of the extent, nature and consequences of children’s work in the 5-14 years age range. The use of the employment concept eliminates possible distortions arising from the approximation of child labour. There is also more detailed data on children’s employment that can be exploited. Children in employment are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period.<sup>7</sup> Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economy; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time); and domestic work outside the child’s own household for an employer (with or without pay).

### 4.1 Prevalence of employment

15. **Children’s involvement in employment is common in many of the study countries.** As reported in Figure 4, the share of children in the 5-14 years age range in employment exceeds 13% in Mongolia and Thailand, nine percent in Cambodia and Vietnam, eight percent in Laos and the Philippines, and six percent in Indonesia. Involvement in employment stands at 20% in Timor-Leste for the narrower 10-14 years age range. The picture differs considerably when presented in absolute terms. Indonesia host to the largest number of 5-14 year-olds in employment (2.4 million), followed by Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam (1.5, 1.3 and 1.2 million respectively). In all eight countries children’s involvement rises considerably with age (Appendix, Figure A1). Much larger shares of 15-17 year-olds are in employment, but child labour among adolescents in this age range is limited to those in *hazardous* employment, as discussed in Chapter 5.

Figure 4. Children’s employment also varies considerably across the study countries

Percentage and number of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country<sup>(b)</sup>



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range; (b) Cross-country comparisons of children’s employment should be interpreted with caution, as estimates are based on different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments.

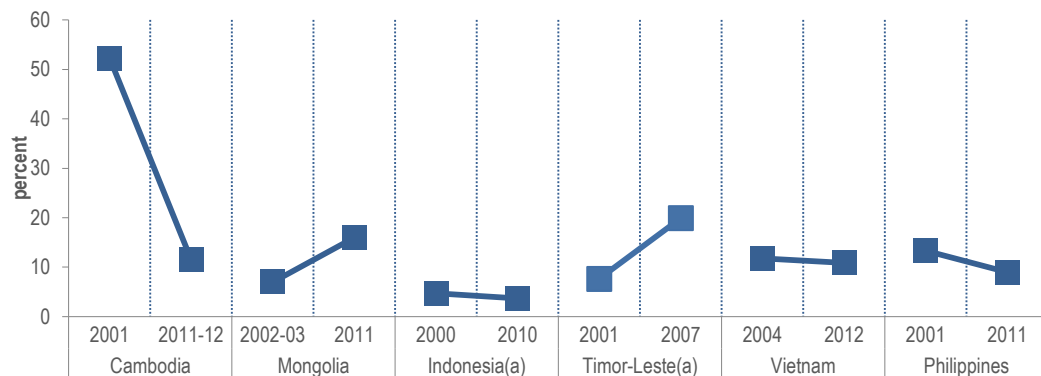
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

<sup>7</sup> The concept of employment is elaborated further in the *Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization*, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 2013).

16. A question of particular interest, not captured by the static picture presented above, is the direction in which the study countries moved in terms of involvement in employment over the last decade. A comparison of the estimates at the beginning and at the end of the decade for 7-14 year olds presents a mixed picture. Cambodia witnessed a major decline in children’s employment, from 52% in 2001 to 12% in 2011-2012. Children’s employment also declined very slightly in Indonesia, from five percent in 2000 to four percent in 2010, and in Vietnam, from 12% in 2004 to 11% in 2012 (Figure 5).

17. Mongolia and Timor-Leste, by contrast, experienced significant *increases* in children’s involvement in employment. In Mongolia, children’s employment rose from seven percent in 2002-2003 to 16% in 2011. Why this has occurred is subject to debate, but some attribute it to the recent social and economic reforms in Mongolia that have adversely affected vulnerable groups of society.<sup>8</sup> In Timor-Leste children’s employment rose from eight percent in 2001 to 20% in 2007, prior, it is worth noting, to the outbreak of the global financial crisis in 2008 (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Progress in reducing children’s employment has been uneven across the study countries  
Changes in children’s involvement in employment, 7-14 years age group, base year and most recent, by country



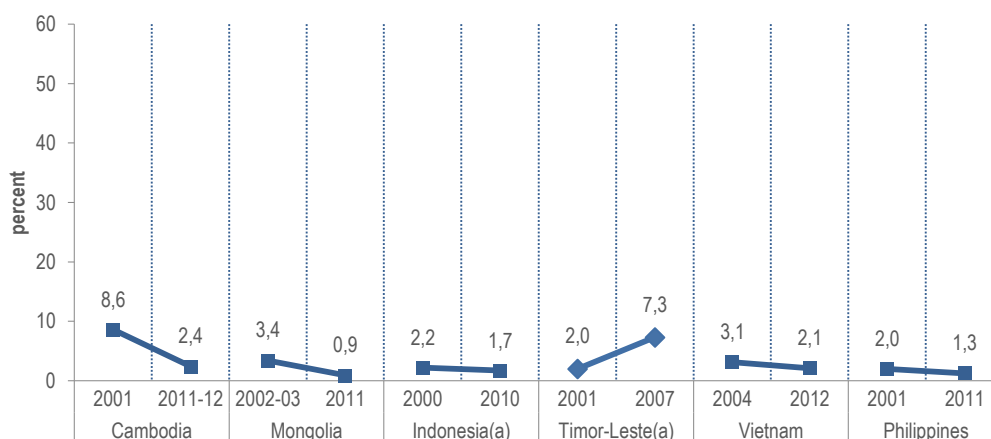
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on CAMBODIA: Cambodia Child Labour (CCLS) 2001, Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (LFS-NCLS) 2011-2012; MONGOLIA: National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) 2002/2003, Labour Force Survey with Child Activities Module (LFS-NCLS) 2011; INDONESIA: National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas) 2000, 2010, age group 10-14 years; TIMOR-LESTE: Timor-Leste Living Standards Survey (TLSS) 2001, Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSS) 2007, age group 10-14 years; VIETNAM: Household Living Standards Survey (HLSS) 2004, National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) 2012; Philippines: Labour force survey 2001, Survey on children (SOC) 2011.

18. Figure 6 looks separately at trends for the two groups of children in employment, i.e., those in employment exclusively and those combining employment and schooling. As shown, the overall rise in employment in Mongolia was driven entirely by a sharp rise in the share of children combining employment and schooling; Mongolian children in employment *exclusively* actually fell over the period in question. In Timor-Leste, on the other hand, the overall rise was the result of an increase in both the share of children combining school and work and the share of children in employment exclusively. The interplay between children’s employment and schooling is discussed in more detail in Section 4.5.

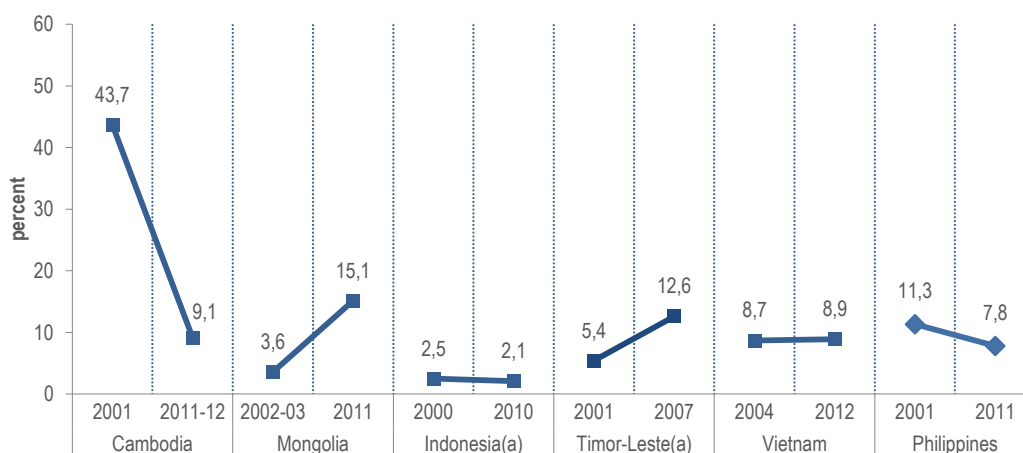
<sup>8</sup> National Statistical Office (NSO) of Mongolia and International Labour Organization, , Report of National Child Labour Survey 2006 – 2007, Ulaanbaatar 2008

Figure 6. Trends can differ for the two groups of children in employment, i.e., those in employment exclusively and those combining employment and schooling

(a) Change in percentage of children only in employment, 7-14 years age group, base year and most recent, by country



(b) Change in percentage of children combining employment and schooling, base year and most recent, by country



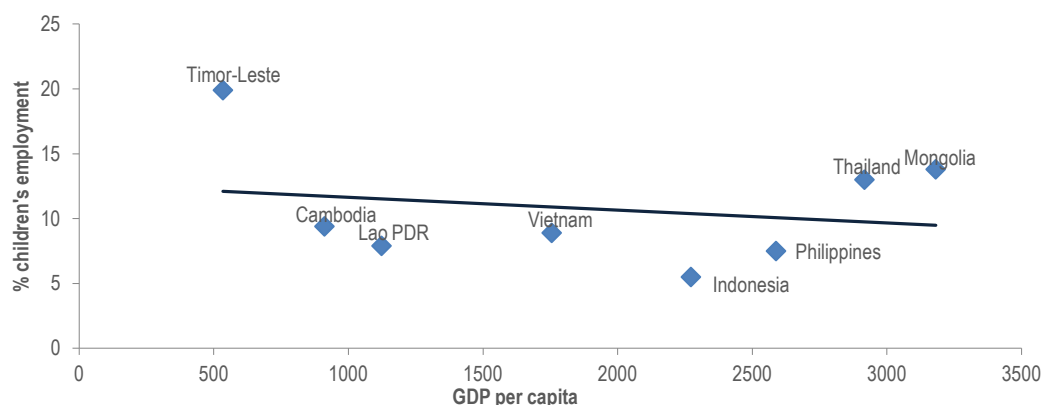
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: See Figure 4.

## 4.2 Factors associated with children's employment

19. While there is a negative correlation between children's involvement in employment and national income, this correlation appears weak and imprecise at best. As illustrated in Figure 7, levels of children's employment are low relative to national income in some countries (e.g., Cambodia, Lao PDR) while in others the opposite is true (e.g., Thailand, Mongolia). The existence of countries doing better with fewer resources suggests significant scope for policy intervention against child labour. Policies promoting quality education as an alternative to child labour can be particularly important in this context.

Figure 7. Children's employment is generally higher in poorer countries

Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group,<sup>(a)</sup> and GDP per capita<sup>(b)</sup>, by country<sup>(c)</sup>



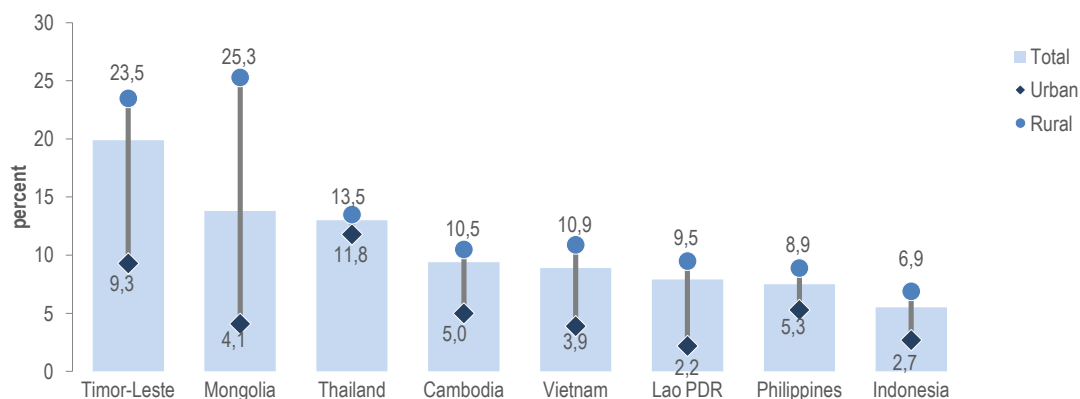
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range; (b) Reference years for GDP per capita estimates correspond to reference years for the child labour surveys indicated in Table 1; and (c) Cross-country comparisons of children's employment should be interpreted with caution, as estimates are based on different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**20. Children's employment is more common in rural areas.** The rural-urban gap is highest in Mongolia, where the share of rural 5-14 year-olds in employment is more than six times that of urban children in the same age group (25% against four percent) and in Lao PDR, where rural children's involvement in employment is almost five times higher (Figure 8). Regression results confirm these descriptive findings – controlling for age, sex, household education and income, rural children are about eight percentage points more likely to work than their urban peers (Appendix Table A4). Why are rural children more prone to involvement in employment? Differences in the rural and urban economies, and in particular the key role of informal family-based production in rural areas, are undoubtedly one important factor. Higher levels of poverty, poorer basic services coverage, and less access to schooling, particularly at the post-primary level, in rural areas also likely play an important role influencing relatively more rural households to send their children to work. As discussed further in the next section, the nature of the work children perform also differs considerably between urban and rural areas.

Figure 8. Children's involvement in employment is more common in rural areas

Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by residence and country

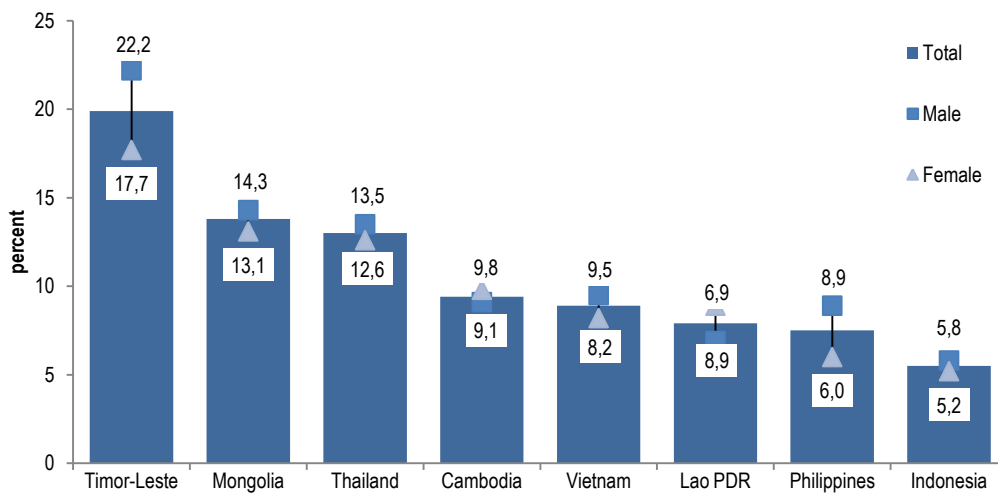


Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**21. Gender factors appear to play a role in determining children’s involvement in employment.** At the country level, the share of boys in employment exceeds that of girls in all countries except Cambodia and Lao PDR, although the gap by sex is generally not large (Figure 9). Regression results controlling for other background variables indicate that boys are about 1.5 percentage points more likely to be involved in employment than girls in the study countries (Appendix Table A4). Again, it is worth recalling, however, that these figures do not capture household chores, the burden for which falls disproportionately on females in most contexts, and may under-report other female-dominated forms of work such as domestic service in third party households (see Chapter 3).

**Figure 9. Gender factors appear to play role in determining the extent of children’s involvement in employment**  
 Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by sex and country

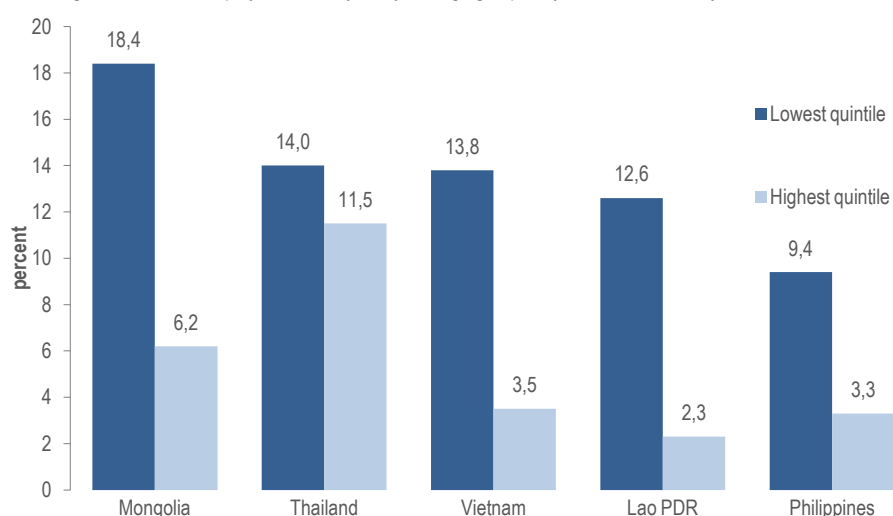


Notes: (a) Estimates Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
 Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**22. Involvement in employment is higher among children from poorest households.** As shown in Figure 10, the correlation between poverty and children’s employment is positive and strong in the majority of the countries included in the analysis. For example, in Mongolia, 18% of children from poorest households are in employment compared to six percent of their peers from the richest ones. Again, these descriptive findings are confirmed by regression results - controlling for other background variables, children from high-income households are about four percentage points less likely to be in employment than their peers from poor households (Appendix Table A4). These results are consistent with a wide body of international evidence indicating that poverty is an important factor in child labour. Poverty makes it more likely that households have to rely on their children’s income or production to help make ends meet, particularly when they are faced with an unforeseen shock. It is worth noting, however, that children’s employment is not limited to poorest households, particularly in Thailand and Mongolia, as also shown in Figure 10. This suggests that while poverty reduction is an important part of the answer to child labour, it is not, in and of itself, a complete answer.

Figure 10. Children from poor households are much more likely to be involved in employment

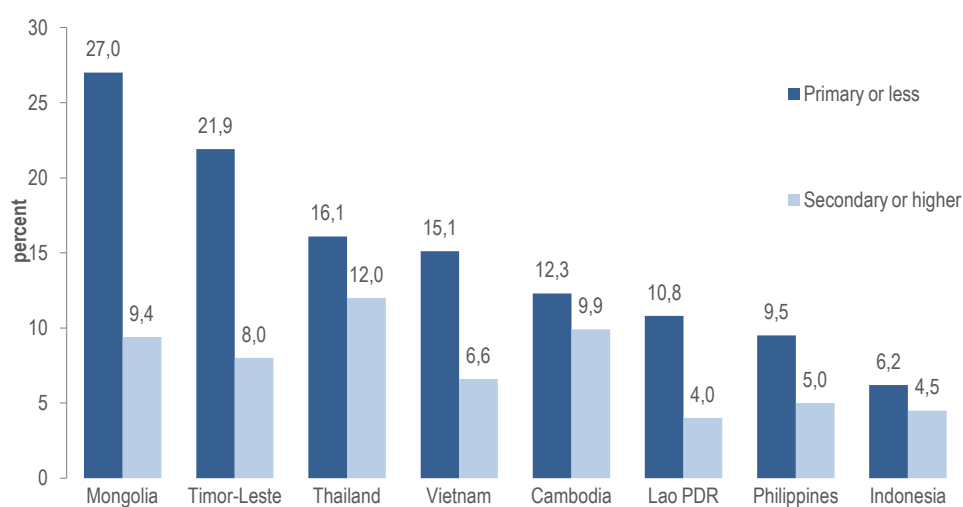
Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by income and country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

23. The education of the household head also appears to be an important determinant of decisions concerning children’s employment. Figure 11 illustrates the strong negative correlation between the level of education of the household head and children’s employment in the study countries. Regression results indicate that these patterns hold even when holding other factors including income constant. A child from a household whose head possesses a primary education is eight percentage points less likely to work compared to a child from a household whose head has no education in the study countries. The impact of secondary education is even greater, decreasing the likelihood of working by 16 percentage points again compared to a child from a household whose head has no education (Appendix Table A4).

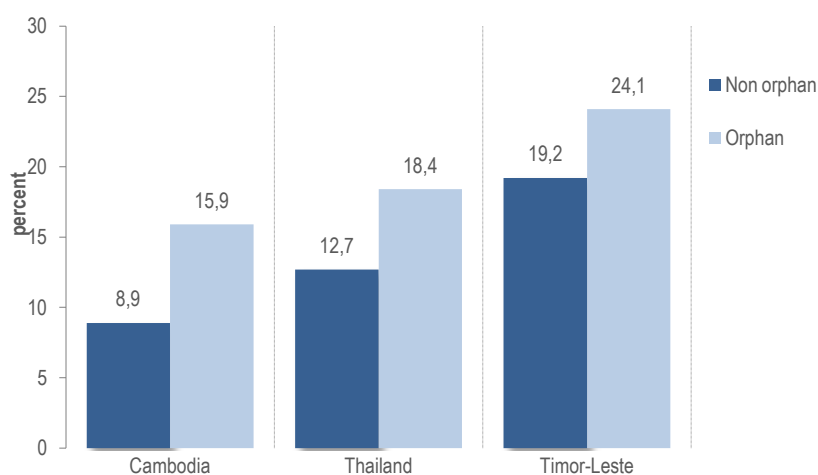
Figure 11. Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by household’s head education level



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

24. **Orphanhood appears to increase vulnerability to child labour.** Figure 12 indicates that a higher share of orphans compared to non-orphans are in employment in all countries where data are available. These simple correlations do not of course offer insight into why this is the case, i.e., whether it is orphanhood *per se* that increases children’s risk of work or whether it is factors associated with orphanhood, such as household poverty, driving the correlation.

Figure 12. **Orphan children appear more at risk of involvement in employment in most countries**  
Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by orphan status and country



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

### 4.3 Nature of children’s employment

25. Information on the various characteristics of children’s employment is necessary for understanding children’s workplace reality and their role in the labour force. This section presents data on broad work characteristics that are useful in this context. For children’s employment, the breakdown by industry is reported in order to provide a standardised picture of where children are concentrated in the measured economy. A breakdown by children’s status in employment is also reported to provide additional insight into how children’s work is carried out. Average working hours are reported to provide an indirect indication of the possible health and educational consequences of children’s work. A review of the worst forms of child labour, including both hazardous and worst forms other than hazardous,<sup>9</sup> is presented at the end of the section.

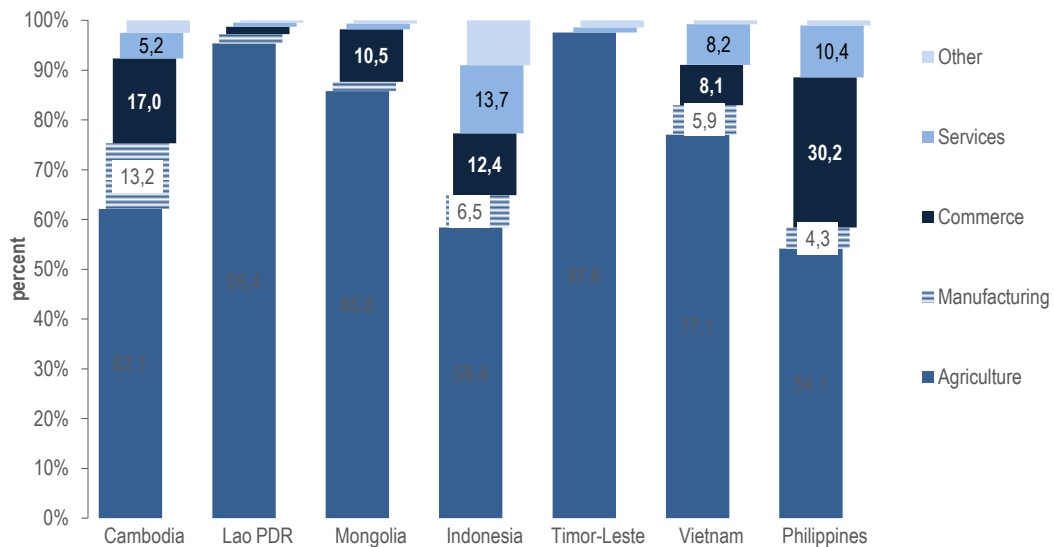
26. **The agriculture sector accounts for by far the largest share of children’s employment.** Agriculture plays the most important role in Timor-Leste, where it accounts for 98% of child workers, and in Lao DPR, where 95% of children in

<sup>9</sup> Activities targeted by ILO as “worst forms other than hazardous” are those referred to in Article 3(a)-(c) of ILO Convention No. 182: (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;

employment are agriculture workers (Figure 13). The predominance of agriculture is a particular concern in light of the fact that this sector is one of the three most dangerous in which to work at any age, along with construction and mining, in terms of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases.<sup>10</sup> Children working in agriculture can face a variety of serious hazards, including operation of dangerous equipment, pesticide exposure, excessive physical exertion and heavy loads.

Figure 13. Children's employment is mainly concentrated in the agriculture sector

Sectoral composition of children's employment (percent distribution), 5-14 years age group(a), by country<sup>(a)</sup>



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

27. The manufacturing sector accounts for a significant minority of child workers in Cambodia and Indonesia (13% and 7%, respectively), while the commerce sector absorbs an important share of children in the Philippines, Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, and Vietnam (30%, 17%, 12%, 11% and 8%, respectively). The services sector accounts for 14% of child workers in Indonesia, 10% in the Philippines and for eight percent of child workers in Vietnam. Employment in the services sector includes domestic service in third-party households, a form of work that is hidden from public view and can leave children especially vulnerable to exploitation and abuse.

28. **The sectoral composition of children's employment differs considerably between rural and urban areas.** This is a reflection of the important underlying differences in the rural and urban economies (Figure A2). Agricultural work not surprisingly predominates in rural areas, while the composition of children's employment in urban areas tends to be more varied, with the services, manufacturing, commerce and agriculture sectors all playing important roles.

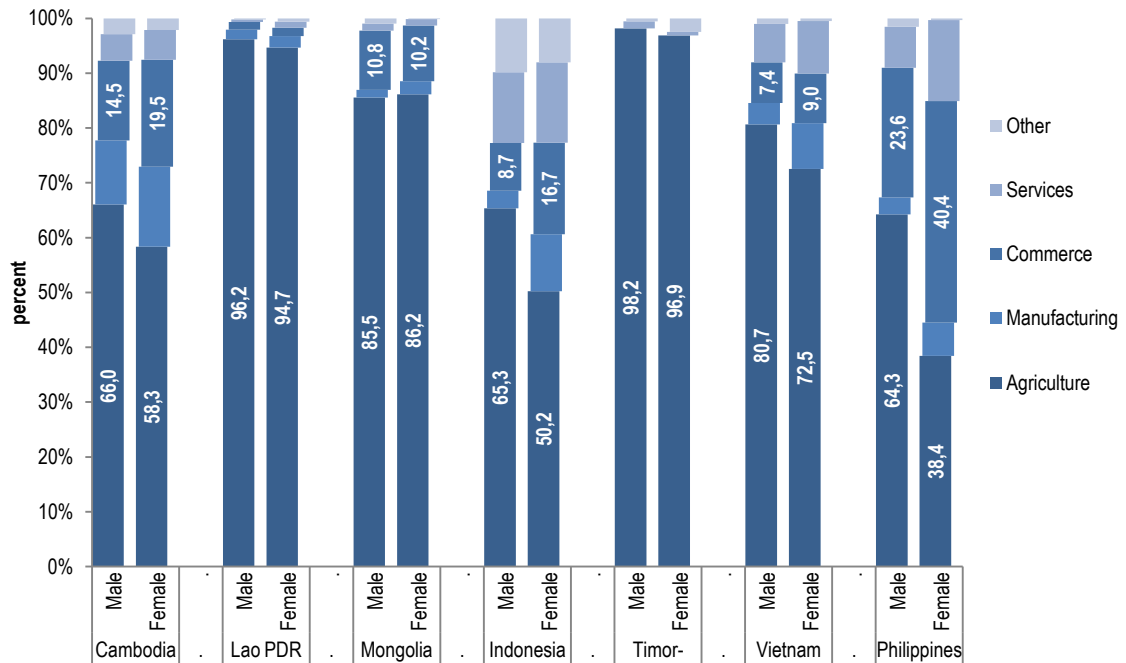
29. **Gender considerations also appear important in determining the nature of children's work in some of the countries.** In Cambodia, Indonesia, Vietnam and Philippines, girls in employment are more likely to be engaged in services and

<sup>10</sup> ILO, *Child labour in agriculture* (<http://www.ilo.org/ipec/areas/Agriculture/lang--en/index.htm>).



commerce and less likely to be found in agriculture than boys. Gender appears to play a lesser role the remaining countries (Figure 14).

Figure 14. Sectoral composition of children's employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by sex and country



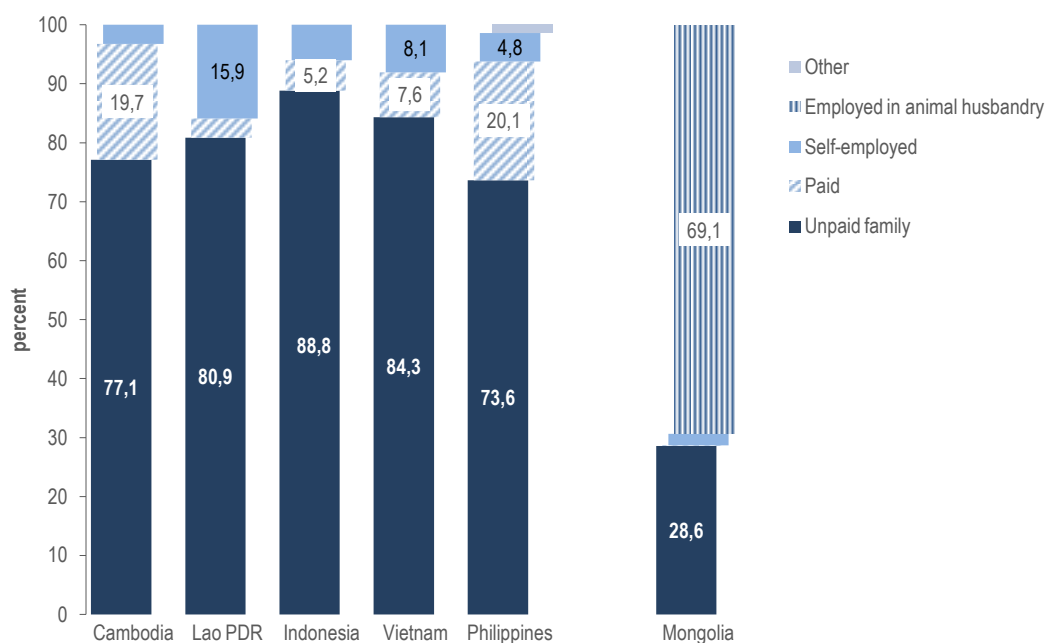
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**30. Children's employment is heavily concentrated within the family unit in most of the countries.** The share of children in employment who work for their own families ranges from 89% in Indonesia to 74% in the Philippines. Beyond family work, paid employment constitutes an important share of child worker in the Philippines and Cambodia (20%) and self-employment in Lao PDR (16%). Mongolia stands out for the importance of animal husbandry and herding, which together account for more than two-thirds of children in employment. Employment in animal husbandry and herding can take place both within a child's household or for others, and involves extremely long hours under frequently hazardous conditions.<sup>11</sup> Children's status in employment also varies somewhat between urban and rural places of residence and sex, although patterns in this regard differ across countries (Appendix Figure A3, Figure A4 and Figure A5).

<sup>11</sup> Assessment of occupational and employment conditions of children working in livestock sector of Mongolia. Final report. International Labour Organization (ILO) and Ministry of Food, Agriculture and Light Industry of Mongolia (MoFALI). 2009.

Figure 15. The largest share of children in employment work without wages within their own families

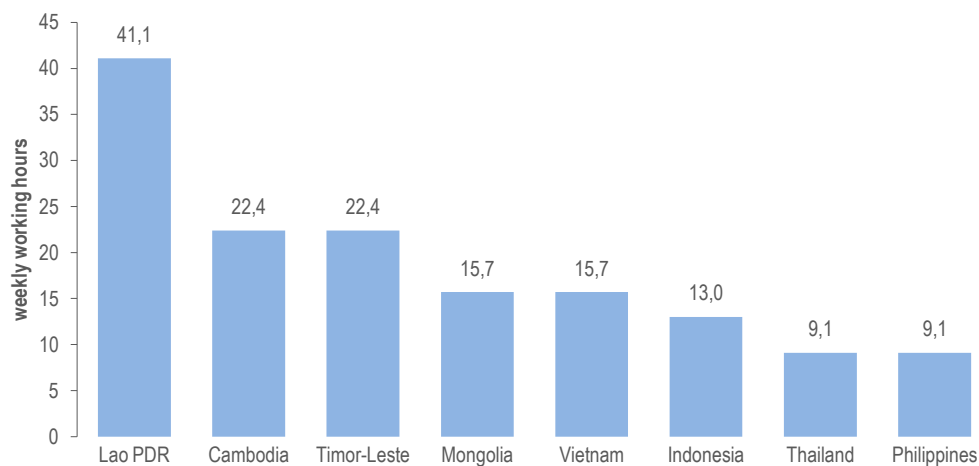
Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure 16. Children in employment put in long hours

Average weekly working hours, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

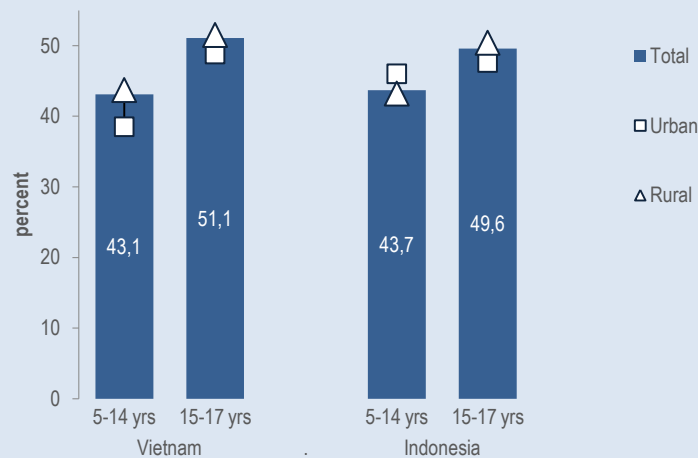
**31. Many children in employment work long hours with obvious consequences for time for study and leisure.** Total weekly working hours are especially long in Lao PDR - 41 hours, an amount greater even than for adult workers in industrialised economies. Average weekly working hours also exceed 20 hours in Cambodia and Timor-Leste (Figure 16). Differences in weekly hours by place of residence and by sex are small in all the countries considered (Appendix Figure A6). In interpreting these figures on working hours, it is worth noting that many children in employment, and especially girls in employment, also spend a non-

negligible amount of time each week performing household chores in their own homes, adding significantly to the overall time burden posed by work. It is also important to note that working hours can be affected by seasonality. Children in agriculture, for instance, may work for very different amounts of time in different agricultural seasons. Estimates of working hours, it follows, can be influenced by when during the year a survey is fielded.

**Panel 3. Exposure to hazards in the workplace: evidence from Vietnam and Indonesia**

Information from the ILO SIMPOC survey conducted in Vietnam and Indonesia permits a more detailed look at the actual conditions faced by children in the workplace. This information suggests that the exposure of Indonesian and Vietnamese working children to dangerous conditions is alarmingly high: 44 % in Indonesia and 43% in Vietnam of 5-14 year olds in employment, face dangerous conditions in their workplaces.<sup>12</sup> Exposure to hazardous conditions is even higher for older, 15-17 year-old, children in employment (51% in Vietnam and 50% in Indonesia).

*Figure. Percentage of children in employment exposed to dangerous conditions,<sup>(a)</sup> by residence and age group – Vietnam and Indonesia*



Notes: (a) The hazardous conditions include the following: carrying heavy loads; work with gas, fire, flames, chemicals, explosives or toxic substances; work in environment with excessive noise or vibration; work in dust or smoke environment; underground work or work at heights; workplace is too dark or confined; workplace has insufficient ventilation; work during night; etc.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

32. Information on hazardous conditions is limited in the other countries, owing primarily to the difficulties in collecting such information from large household surveys and the reluctance of many respondents to reply to questions on the subject even when they are included in surveys. However, there is a growing body of qualitative and quantitative evidence from other sources pointing to the hazardousness of the some of the forms of work performed by children in the study countries. A non-exhaustive overview of this evidence for each country is provided below.

33. **Mongolia.** Children are very often engaged in hazardous activities in herding and animal husbandry. Animal husbandry exposes children to risks including bites and attacks by animals, extreme temperatures, being cut by sharp knives

<sup>12</sup> Including heavy loads; work with gas, fire, flames, chemicals, explosives or toxic substances; work in environment with excessive noise or vibration; work in a dusty or smoky environments; underground work or work at heights; work in dark or confined spaces; work in insufficiently ventilated spaces; and work during the night

while slaughtering livestock, and non-payment of wages. Herding exposes children to extreme cold and frostbite, exhaustion, wild animal attacks, assault or beatings when far from home and accidents such as falling off horses.<sup>13</sup> Mongolian children are also involved in horse racing where they are at risk of injury or death from accidents or falls. In 2012, the Ministry of Health reported that more than 300 children injured during horse races were treated at the National Trauma Centre; this statistic does not include children treated in other facilities.<sup>14</sup> Another concern is children performing hazardous work in mining coal, gold, and fluorspar, both on the surface and underground in artisanal mines. They transport heavy loads, handle mercury and explosives, work in extreme climate conditions, risk falling into open pits, and descend into tunnels that are up to 10 meters deep.<sup>15</sup> Some of the worst off working children are engaged in scavenging in dumpsites, where they are exposed to extreme weather conditions, unhygienic conditions and health problems caused by the inhalation of smoke from burning garbage.<sup>16</sup>

**34. Thailand.** Children are found in the shrimp and seafood processing industries where they are subject to long and late hours and engage in heavy lifting.<sup>17</sup> Many children also work at entertainment venues, markets, restaurants and gas stations. In these workplaces, they may be working at night or for long hours and may be exposed to high levels of noise, dust, and smoke.<sup>18</sup> Garment production is another area where Thai children can be found working for long hours and operating dangerous machines.<sup>19</sup> Children are also paid to fight in a very popular dangerous form of boxing called Muay Thai, during in which they do not wear protective equipment.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>13</sup> UCW, *Understanding Children's Work and Youth Employment Outcomes in Mongolia*, 2009.

ILO, National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia. *The Worst Forms of Child Labour in Mongolia- Study Report*, 2008.

ILO, Ministry of Food Agriculture and Light Industry. *Final Report on Assessment of Occupational and Employment Conditions of Children Working in Livestock Sector of Mongolia*, 2009.

<sup>14</sup> United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Mongolia*.

<sup>15</sup> UCW, *Understanding Children's Work and Youth Employment Outcomes in Mongolia*, 2009.

ILO, National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia. *The Worst Forms of Child Labour in Mongolia- Study Report*, Ulaanbaatar; 2008.

<sup>16</sup> ILO, National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia, *The Worst Forms of Child Labour in Mongolia- Study Report*, Ulaanbaatar; 2008.

<sup>17</sup> ILO-IPEC, *Combating the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Shrimp and Seafood Processing Areas in Thailand*, Project Document, Bangkok, 2010.

United States Department of Labour (US DOL). *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Thailand*.

<sup>18</sup> Surapone Ptanawanit and Saksri Boribanbanpotkate, *Assessing the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Selected Provinces of Thailand: Chiang Rai, Tak, Udon Thani, Songkla, and Pattani*, February 22, 2007.

<sup>19</sup> ILO, *The Mekong challenge - working day and night - the plight of migrant child workers in Mae Sot, Thailand*, Bangkok, 2006.

<sup>20</sup> Catsoulis J, *Portrait of the Sad Life of Child Boxers in Thailand*, New York Times, New York, November 13, 2012.

Malm S, *Blood, sweat and tears: Muay Thai child fighters battle against each other to become the next generation of champions*, Daily Mail, July 8, 2012; <http://www.dailymail.co.uk/news/article-2170513/Blood-sweat-tears-Muay-Thai-child-fighters-battle-generation-champions.html>.

#### Panel 4. Worst forms of child labour other than hazardous

In most countries, information about children involved extreme forms of child labour such as child trafficking, child commercial sexual exploitation, child slavery and child involvement in illicit activities, referred to by the ILO as worst forms of child labour other than hazardous, is very scarce.<sup>21</sup> This is due both to the methodological difficulties inherent in investigating them and to their cultural sensitivity. Household surveys are not designed to generate information about children involved in worst forms of child labour other than hazardous. Targeted research utilising specialised survey instruments is needed in order to generate more complete information on this especially vulnerable group of child labourers. There is, however, evidence indicating that these extreme forms of child labour affect children in the study countries.

**Child trafficking.** The trafficking of children is a priority concern in most of the study countries. Trafficking is fuelled by the strong demand for adoptive infants, young brides, commercial sexual exploitation and cheap labour. Historical intra-regional migration is another key factor enabling human trafficking. The following are some of the child trafficking flows: (a) children trafficked from Cambodia to Thailand for begging or for the sale of small items; (b) girls trafficked from Vietnam to Cambodia or from Myanmar to Thailand for commercial sexual exploitation; (c) boys trafficked from Myanmar to Thailand to work in Thai factories and on fishing boats; (d) boys trafficked from Vietnam to China for illegal adoption; (e) girls trafficked from rural areas of Cambodia to urban centres for commercial sexual exploitation; and (f) Laotian girls trafficked to Thailand for domestic or factory work.<sup>22</sup>

**Commercial sexual exploitation.** The exploitation of children for commercial sex constitutes a plague in most study countries. In Cambodia, the Svay Pak brothel area outside Phnom Penh, where young children are exploited in the sex trade, continues to operate.<sup>23</sup> In Thailand, the commercial sexual exploitation of children, including child sex tourism, is also a major problem.<sup>24</sup> In Mongolia, girls are trafficked internally and subjected to forced commercial sexual exploitation, including in bars, hotels, saunas, massage parlours and karaoke clubs.<sup>25</sup> In Indonesia, the nature of commercial sexual exploitation in some areas has reportedly changed from children living in brothels to children living with their families and working out of hotels and other locations through arrangements facilitated by social media.<sup>26</sup> Indonesian children are also trafficked internally for commercial sexual exploitation at mining operations in Maluku, Papua, and Jambi provinces in the urban areas of Batam District, Riau Island, and West Papua province and for sex tourism in Bali. In Vietnam, children from rural areas are subjected to commercial sexual exploitation. According to a 2012 UNICEF funded survey on the commercial sexual exploitation of children, Vietnam is a destination for child sex tourism with perpetrators coming from Japan, South Korea, China, Taiwan, the UK, Australia, Europe, and the United States.<sup>27</sup> Timor-Leste is a destination country for girls from Indonesia, China, and the Philippines subjected to trafficking for the purpose of commercial sexual exploitation.

**Forced labour.** Timor-Leste is a source of girls sent to Singapore and elsewhere in Southeast Asia for domestic service.<sup>28</sup> In Lao PDR, boys are also trafficked for forced labour in Thailand, especially in the fishing and construction industries.<sup>29</sup> Children also are subjected to forced street hawking, forced begging, or forced labour in restaurants in major urban centres of Vietnam.

**Street children.** In many study countries the problem of street children is very pressing. While not a form of labour per se, children on the street are at high risk of drug abuse, commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking and juvenile delinquency. Although data on the subject are limited, in Cambodia there are large numbers of children living on the streets in Phnom Penh, Pailin, Siem Reap, Banteay Meanchey and Sihanoukville. Significant numbers of children can also be seen living on the streets in Battambang Town and other towns, specifically Poipet, along the border with Thailand. Cambodian children on the street often engage in hazardous work as beggars and scavengers.<sup>30</sup> In Vietnam the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs estimated that the number of children living and working in the street in the whole of Vietnam was of about 13,000 children in 2007.<sup>31</sup> In Indonesia, the Ministry of Social Affairs estimated that there were some 230,000 street children in 2008.<sup>32</sup>

<sup>21</sup> In more specific terms, worst forms other than hazardous refer to Art. 3(a)-(c) of ILO Convention No. 182: (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.

<sup>22</sup> Unicef East Asia And Pacific Regional Office, *Child Trafficking In East And South-East Asia: Reversing The Trend*, Bangkok, 2009.

U.S. Department of State, *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

<sup>23</sup> U.S. Department of State, *Cambodia*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

<sup>24</sup> U.S. Department of State, *Thailand*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*. Washington, DC.

United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Thailand*.

<sup>25</sup> United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Mongolia*.

<sup>26</sup> Odi Shalahudin and Hening Budiati, *In-Depth Study on CSEC: Executive Summary. Bandung, Surabaya, Lampung, and Pontianak*, Save the Children, 2010.

United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour -Indonesia*.

<sup>27</sup> 2012 UNICEF funded survey on the commercial sexual exploitation of children, as cited in U.S. Department of State, *Vietnam*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

<sup>28</sup> U.S. Department of State, *Timor-Leste*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

<sup>29</sup> U.S. Department of State, *Laos*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

<sup>30</sup> MoSVY, *Orphans, Children Affected by HIV and Other Vulnerable Children in Cambodia, A Situation and Response Assessment*, 2007

<sup>31</sup> MOLISA, *Report on the situation of children in special circumstances to the Committee for Culture, Education, Youth and Children of the National Assembly*, 2008

<sup>32</sup> Ministry of Social Affairs of the Government of Indonesia, 2008.

35. **Indonesia.** Many children work in the fishing industry for long periods of time on offshore fishing platforms known as *jermal*.<sup>33</sup> According to a report of Human Rights Watch, hundreds of thousands of girls, some as young as 11 years, are employed as domestic workers for very long hours (14 to 18 daily hours, seven days a week) and are prevalently unpaid for their services.<sup>34</sup>

36. **Cambodia.** Children are involved in brick-making in factory environments that are unhealthy and unclean (due to smoke, bad odours, dirty water) and unsafe (due to heat, ashes and pieces of broken bricks everywhere). The most common tasks undertaken by children consist of carrying, loading, and unloading bricks. Child brick makers often operate heavy machinery. Many of them work between 6 and 10 hours a day without going to school.<sup>35</sup> Other children work in salt production, which requires them to carry heavy loads over sharp salt crystals, for long hours and in hot weather conditions.<sup>36</sup>

#### 4.4 Children’s employment in the agriculture, manufacturing and commerce sectors: An in-depth look

##### Children’s employment in agriculture

37. **Most children in agriculture work within their own families.** Figures for the five countries for which detailed data on industry are available make clear that children’s agricultural work takes place overwhelmingly on the family farm (Table 4). The role of families in agriculture work is most pronounced in Indonesia and Vietnam, where non-wage family work accounts for 90% and 88%, respectively, of children’s agricultural work. In Mongolia, 81% of all children in agriculture work in animal husbandry, some for their families and some for others, while almost all those in agriculture who are not in animal husbandry work for their families.

Table 4. Children’s status in agricultural employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country

	Non-wage family	Wage employee	Self employed	Other	Total
Cambodia	73.8	23.1	3.1	-	100
Lao PDR	82.3	1.5	16.2	-	100
Indonesia	92.2	3.0	4.8	-	100
Philippines	77.3	19.4	1.7	1.6	100
Vietnam	87.5	4.2	8.3	-	100
	Employed in animal husbandry	Non-wage family	Self employed	Other	
Mongolia	80.6	18.8	0.5	0.1	100

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

38. **Most children in agriculture work in crop and animal production.** Children are heavily concentrated in crop production in Lao PDR (96%), while in Cambodia and Vietnam crop production absorbs more than 65% of agriculture workers

<sup>33</sup> Chou, CT, *Child Workers 'Abandoned' at Sea*, aljazeera.com [online] April 19, 2007.

United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Indonesia*.

<sup>34</sup> Human Rights Watch, *Workers in the Shadows: Abuse and Exploitation of Child Domestic Workers in Indonesia*, New York, February 11, 2009. <http://www.hrw.org/en/reports/2009/02/10/workers-shadows-0>.

<sup>35</sup> Bunnak, P, *Child Labour in Brick Factories Causes and Consequences*, Phnom Penh, LICADHO and World Vision Cambodia, 2007.

<sup>36</sup> ILO, *From a Child's Eye: Working in the Hot, Sharp Salt Fields of Cambodia*, ILO News, Geneva, June 7, 2012.

(Table 6). Cereals appear most important in this regard, with rice production involving a large share of child agriculture workers, especially in Lao PDR (82%). Vegetable production is also relevant in most countries (Table 6). The share of child agriculture workers engaged in fishing is eight percent in the Philippines and four percent in Indonesia and Vietnam. Vietnam is the only country where an appreciable share of child agricultural workers is found in logging (seven percent).

**39. The nature of children's agricultural work appears to depend in part on gender factors.** Female children in agriculture are more likely than male children to be engaged in crop production, while male children are more likely to work in fishing and forestry. Male children are also more likely to be engaged in animal production in Cambodia and Lao PDR (see Table A6 and Table A7).

*Table 5. Children's occupation category in agricultural employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country*

	Crop production	Animal production	Mixed crop and animal production	Forestry/logging	Fishing	Total
Cambodia	65.3	28.6	-	3.0	2.6	100
Lao PDR	96.1	2.5	-	1.2-	0.2-	100
Mongolia	4.0	96.0	-	-	-	-
Indonesia	53.4	17.5	1.1	24.3	3.7	100
Philippines	77.1	11.5		3.4	8.0	100
Vietnam	38.8	49.0	1.3	6.8	3.8	100

*Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).*

*Table 6. Distribution of children in crop production by crop type, 5-14 years age group, by country*

	Cereals (except rice), legumes	Rice	Vegetables, fruits	Support activities for crop production	Other	Total
Cambodia	8.4	15.3	41.1	23.6	11.6	100
Lao PDR	1.4	82.4	4.8	9.8	1.6	100
Indonesia	63.6	-	36.4	-	20.9	100
Philippines	28.6	37.8	32.4		1.2	100
Vietnam	40.8	13.0	27.8	1.5	16.9	100

*Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).*

**Panel 5. “Child labour content” of agriculture**

What is the “child labour content” of agriculture in the study countries? This questions are taken up below by looking at the share of the total agricultural workforce (Table A) and of total working hours (Table B) in agriculture accounted for by child workers (for the countries where data on the total country workforce are available). Children account for 13% of the overall agricultural workforce in Mongolia, for around seven percent of the workforce in Cambodia and for more than four percent of the workforce in Lao PDR. The role of children is less important when measured in terms of total working hours. Children’s working hours account for five percent of total working hours in Mongolia and for four percent of total working hours in Cambodia and Lao PDR

**Table A. Children as percentage of total workforce, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by agricultural subsector and country**

	<i>Agriculture sector</i>	<i>Livestock production subsector</i>	<i>Crop production subsector</i>	<i>Forestry/ logging subsector</i>	<i>Fishing subsector</i>
Cambodia	6.7	15.1	5.8	4.0	2.8
Lao PDR	4.4	5.6	4.4	-	-
Mongolia	12.6	13.0	9.6	-	-

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**Table B. Children’s working hours as percentage of total working hours, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by agricultural subsector and country**

	<i>Agriculture sector</i>	<i>Livestock production subsector</i>	<i>Crop production subsector</i>	<i>Forestry/ logging subsector</i>	<i>Fishing subsector</i>
Cambodia	3.8	10.4	3.4	2.3	2.0
Lao PDR	3.8	5.0	3.8	-	-
Mongolia	5.0	5.2	4.5	-	-

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Children appear to play an especially important role in livestock production. Table A and B also report children as percentage of the workforce and of total working hours in specific agriculture subsectors. Children account for 15% of all workers in livestock production in Cambodia, 13% in Mongolia and six percent in Lao PDR.

### Children’s employment in manufacturing

**40. Most children in manufacturing also work within their own families.** Almost four in five child manufacturing workers contribute to family businesses in Cambodia and in the Philippines. In Vietnam and Indonesia, the share is 61% and 46%, respectively (Table 7). The other significant work modality in the manufacturing sector is work for wages, which accounts for 35% of manufacturing child workers in Vietnam, 27% in Indonesia, 22% in Cambodia, and 17% in the Philippines. A non-negligible percentage of Filipino children in manufacturing are also self-employed (27%).

**Table 7. Children’s status in employment in the manufacturing sector, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country**

	Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	78.3	21.6	0.2	-	100
Indonesia	46.0	26.8	27.2	-	100
Philippines	75.4	17.1	1.9	5.7	100
Vietnam	60.9	34.5	4.7	-	100

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).



#### 41. Children are involved in the production of a variety of manufactured goods.

The production and processing of food products appear particularly important in this regard, absorbing 45% of child manufacturing workers in Cambodia, 36% in the Philippines, 33% in Vietnam. Garment production is also relevant in all countries, accounting for 30% of child manufacturing workers in Indonesia, 27% in Cambodia and 26% in Vietnam. Third in importance are wood products, accounting for 26% of child manufacturing workers in the Philippines, 23% in Indonesia, 13% in Cambodia and nine percent in Vietnam (Table 8).

Table 8. Distribution of children in the manufacturing sector by manufacture type, 5-14 years age group, by country

	Food products	Textiles, Garments	Wood products	Other	Total
Cambodia	45.2	26.5	13.2	15.1	100
Indonesia	31.2	29.5	22.7	16.6	100
Philippines	35.7	22.4	26.1	15.8	100
Vietnam	32.6	26.3	8.8	32.3	100

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**42. The distribution of children in the manufacturing sector shows large variation by sex.** Female children are more likely than boys to be engaged in the textile and garments manufacturing sub-sector (Table 9).

Table 9. Distribution of children in the manufacturing sector by manufacture type, 5-14 years age group, by country

		Food products	Textiles, Garments	Wood products	Other	Total
Cambodia	Male	47.5	8.8	14.5	29.2	100
	Female	43.4	40.2	12.2	4.1	100
Indonesia	Male	44.0	8.2	0.0	47.8	100
	Female	26.6	37.3	30.9	5.2	100
Philippines	Male	37.5	22.0	24.8	15.7	100
	Female	34.2	22.8	27.1	15.8	100
Vietnam	Male	23.7	19.9	10.9	45.6	100
	Female	37.8	30.2	7.6	24.4	100

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

#### Children's employment in the commerce sector

**43. The vast majority of children's commerce work takes place within family businesses** (Table 10). In the Philippines and Vietnam the other significant work modality in the commerce sector is work for wages, which accounts for nine percent and 11% of commerce workers, respectively. In Mongolia and in the Philippines, 10 and nine percent of child commerce workers, respectively, are self-employed. Most children in commerce are engaged in the sale of food, beverages and tobacco products in stores, stalls or markets (Table 11). With the exception of Cambodia, female children working in the commerce sector are much more likely to work as unpaid labourers within the family business, while male children are more likely to work for a wage or in self-employment.

Table 10. Children's status in employment in the commerce sector, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country

	Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	93.3	3.8	3.0	-	100
Mongolia	90.1	0.0	9.9	-	100
Indonesia	94.3	2.2	3.4	-	100
Philippines	80.9	9.3	9.4	0.5	100
Vietnam	82.6	11.2	6.2	-	100

Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

44. Again gender considerations appear important in the assignment of commerce work. Most female in the commerce sector are engaged in the sale of food, beverages and tobacco products in stores, stalls or markets, while male children are more likely to work in the sale and repair of motor vehicles sub-sector (Table A9 and Table A10).

Table 11. Distribution of children in commerce by commerce type, 5-14 years age group, by country

	Sale and repair of motor vehicles	Sale in stores, stalls or markets with food, beverages or tobacco predominating	Sale in stores, stalls or markets with clothing, footwear and leather articles	Other	Total
Cambodia	1.4	42.8	4.6	51.2	100
Mongolia	7.4	48.1	11.7	32.8	100
Indonesia	0.6	69.0	1.4	28.9	100
Philippines	1.0	79.0	0.6	19.4	100
Vietnam	5.5	58.4	2.8	33.4	100

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

#### 4.5 Children's employment and educational marginalisation

45. Not discussed up to this point is the interaction between children's employment and their schooling in the study countries. Does employment make it less likely that children attend school? And, for those children combining schooling and employment, to what extent does employment impede learning achievement? These questions are critical for assessing the degree to which child labour is linked to the issue of educational marginalisation in the study countries.

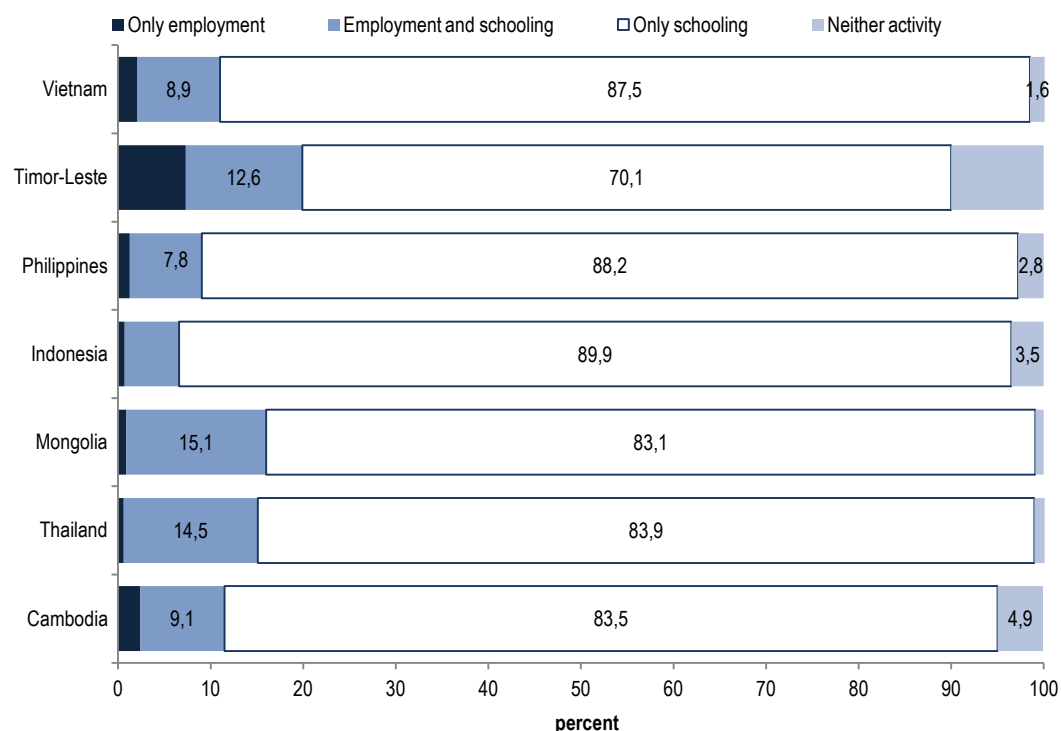
Table 12. Children's involvement in employment and schooling, 7-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by country

Country	Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
	(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Cambodia	2.4	83.5	9.1	4.9	11.5	92.6	7.4
Thailand	0.6	83.9	14.5	1.1	15.1	98.3	1.7
Mongolia	0.9	83.1	15.1	0.9	16.0	98.2	1.8
Indonesia	0.7	89.9	5.9	3.5	6.6	95.8	4.2
Philippines	1.3	88.2	7.8	2.8	9.1	96.0	4.0
Timor-Leste	7.3	70.1	12.6	10.0	19.9	82.7	17.3
Vietnam	2.1	87.5	8.9	1.6	10.9	96.3	3.7

Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2)

Figure 17. Most working children combine work with schooling  
Children's activity status (% distribution), 7-14 years age range<sup>(a)</sup>, by country



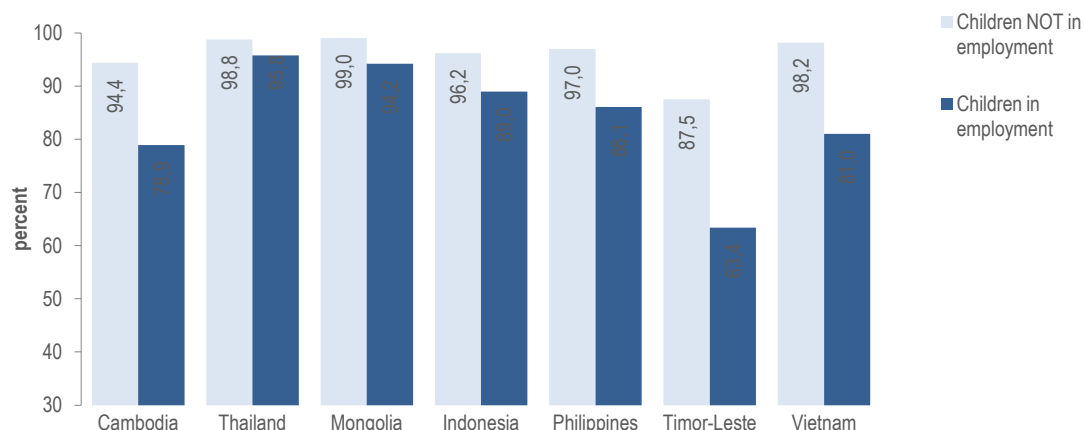
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 1).

46. One way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by decomposing the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups – children in employment only, children attending school only, children combining school and employment and children doing neither. This decomposition, reported in Table 12 and Figure 17, varies considerably across countries. Timor-Leste stands out as the only country where significant share of children are only in employment, i.e., working without also attending school. Seven percent of Timorese children are only in employment, making up over half of all children in employment. (Note, however, that estimates for Timor Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.) In the other countries the large majority of child workers are combining employment with school. Inactivity rates are low in all the countries considered. There are not large differences by sex in terms of the interaction between children's employment and schooling (Table A3).

47. **Children in employment are less likely to attend school than their non-working peers.** Figure 18, indicates that working children lag substantially behind their non-working peers in four out of seven study countries. The attendance gap between working and non-working children is largest in Timor-Leste, at 24 percentage points, followed by Vietnam (17 percentage points), Cambodia (16 percentage points) and Philippines (11 percentage points) (Figure 18). Data are not available on the regularity of school attendance, i.e. the frequency with which children are absent from or late for class, but attendance regularity is also likely adversely affected by involvement in employment.

Figure 18. Children in employment are much less likely to attend school than their non-working peers in most of the study countries

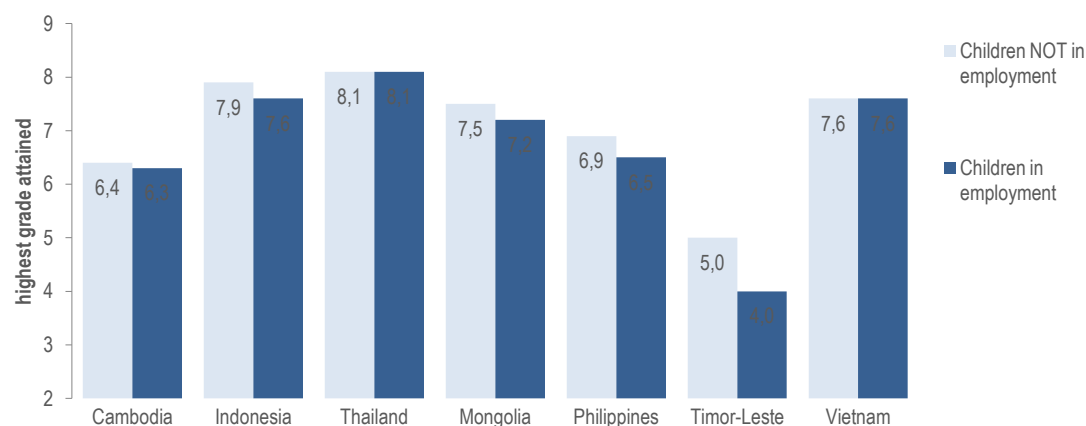
Percentage of children attending school by work status, 7-14 years age range<sup>(a)</sup>, by country



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure 19. Children in employment lag behind their non-working counterparts in terms of grade progression in some countries

Highest grade completed at age 14 years, children currently attending school, by involvement in employment and country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

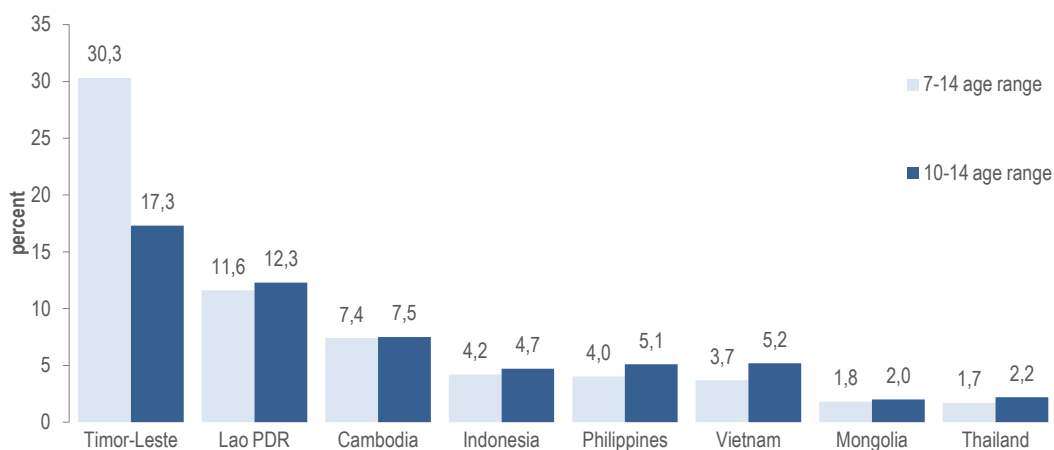
48. A large share of working children do in fact attend school, so a key question is how work affects their school performance. Children in employment lag behind their non-working counterparts in terms of grade progression in five out of seven study countries: Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Philippines and Timor-Leste (Figure 19). The difference in grade progression between working and non-working children is largest in Timor-Leste, where working children lag one full grade behind. In Vietnam and Thailand children in employment and non-working children appear to progress through the education cycle at the same pace. However, because child workers are more likely to drop out after primary school, and because drop outs are presumably those with higher accumulated delay, the gap in grade-for-age reported in Figure 19 is likely to underestimate the true gap in completed grades between working and non-working children, i.e., the gap that would be observed in the absence of selective drop out. Information from learning achievement is needed for a more complete picture of the effect of work on school performance.

## 4.6 Out of school children

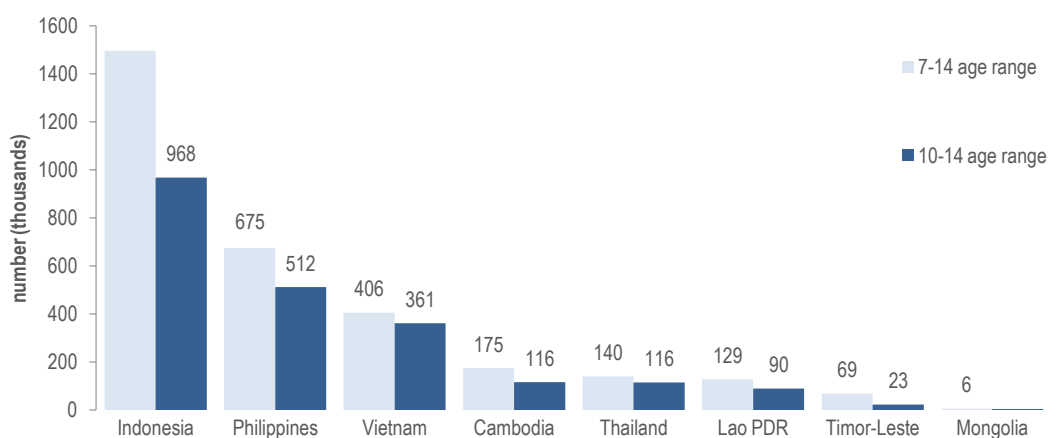
49. The number of out of school children varies across the study countries. In Timor-Leste and Lao PDR out of school children aged 7 to 14 years are a particular concern: 30% of children in this age group in Timor-Leste are not attending school while in Lao PDR 12% are out of the education system. The share of out-of-school children stands at seven percent in Cambodia, four percent in Indonesia, Philippines and Vietnam and at two percent in Thailand and Mongolia (Figure 20). Some of these out-of-school children are simply late entrants, i.e., children who will eventually enter school but have not yet done so. But even when the reference group is limited to the 10-14 years age group to exclude most potential late entrants the number of out-of-school children is high in several countries.

Figure 20. Numbers of out of school children are a particular concern in Timor-Leste and Lao PDR

Percentage of out of school children (OOSC), by age group<sup>(a)</sup> and country



No. of out of school children (OOSC), by age group<sup>(a)</sup> and country



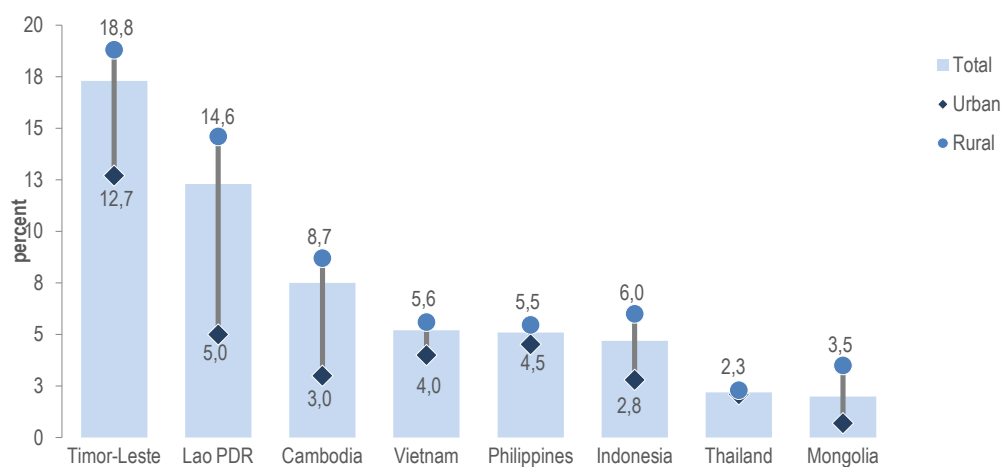
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refers to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

50. The share of out of school children is especially high in rural areas. As reported in Figure 21, the percentage of out of school rural children in the 10-14 years age range is five times that of urban children in Mongolia, three times that of urban children in Cambodia and Lao PDR and two times that of urban children in Indonesia. In Thailand, Vietnam and the Philippines the differences by residence in the out of school rate are smaller.

51. Gender factors do not appear relevant in determining the dimension of out of school children, except in Lao PDR where girls aged 10-14 years are four percentage points more likely to be out of school than boys (Figure 21 and Figure 22).

Figure 21. Rural children are much more likely to be out of school

Percentage of out of school children, 10-14 years age group, by residence and country

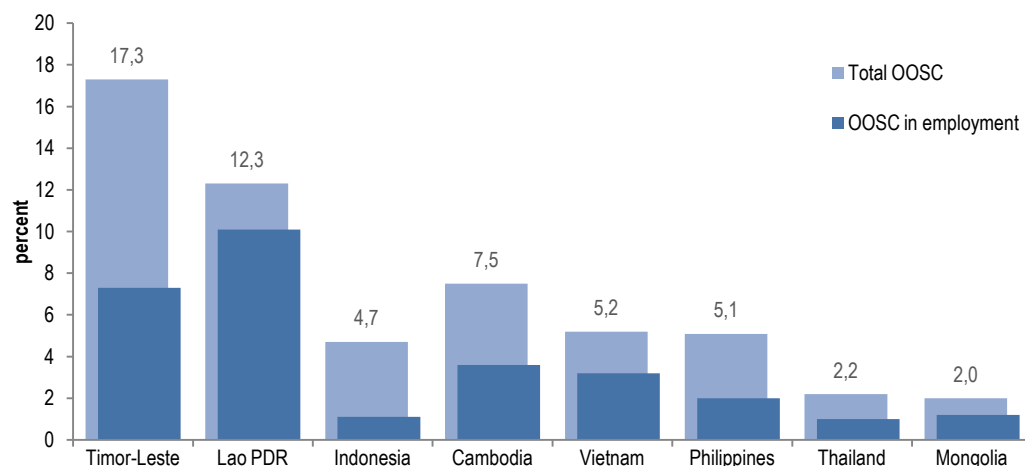


Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

52. The demands of work are not the only reason for children's absence from school. A large share of out-of-school children is not in employment in most countries (Figure 22) (Lao PDR is an exception). While work is undoubtedly an important barrier to children's schooling it is by no means the only barrier keeping children out of the classroom.

Figure 22. Many, but by no means all, out-of-school children are in employment

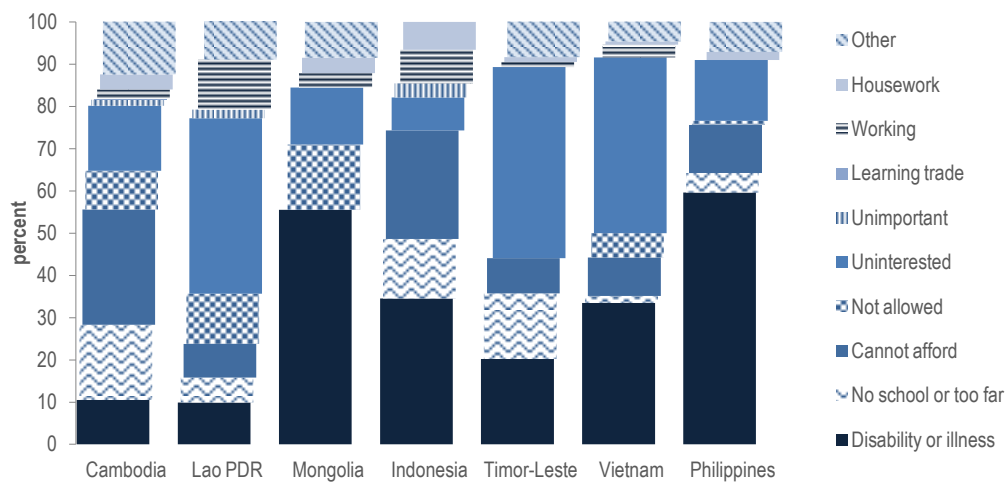
Percentage of out of school children (OOSC), 10-14 years age group, by work status and country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

53. Figure 23, which reports reasons cited for never entering school, suggests that attitudes towards school are especially important. Very large shares of respondents across all countries indicate not being in school because they saw it as unimportant or uninteresting, or were not allowed by their parents (e.g., 53% in Lao PDR, 45% in Timor-Leste and 47% in Vietnam). School-related factors, and specifically school access and school costs, are other important factors. Large shares of respondents across all countries (e.g., 45% in Cambodia, 24% in Timor-Leste) cite lack of nearby school facilities and/or high school costs as reasons for being out of school. The demands of housework or employment, on the other hand, together were cited by only a minority of respondents in most countries.

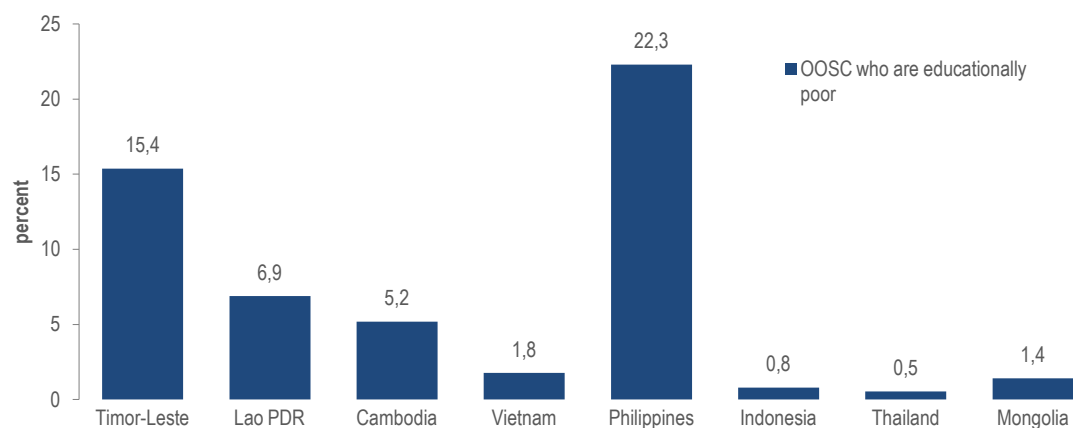
Figure 23. Attitudes towards school appear to play an especially important role in explaining why children are out of school  
Reasons for never entering school (% distribution), children aged 10-14 years, by country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure 24. Many of those who are out of school have very limited education and therefore are “educationally poor”

Percentage of out of school children (OOSC) and who are educationally poor (i.e., with less than two years of education), 10-14 years age group, by country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

54. Many of those who are out of school have very limited education and therefore are in need of “second chance” learning opportunities. As reported in Figure 24, a non-negligible share of out-of-school children suffer what UNESCO

terms “education poverty”, i.e., possess less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. It is likely that the education poverty indicator actually underestimates the second chance learning needs of out-of-school children, as basic literacy skills alone are less and less an adequate skills floor for successful entry into the labour market. Rather, higher-order technical, vocational and reasoning skills, requiring education well beyond the primary level, are increasingly needed. Reaching the group of out-of-school children with second chance educational opportunities is important to ensuring that these children do not enter adulthood lacking the basic skills needed for work and life.

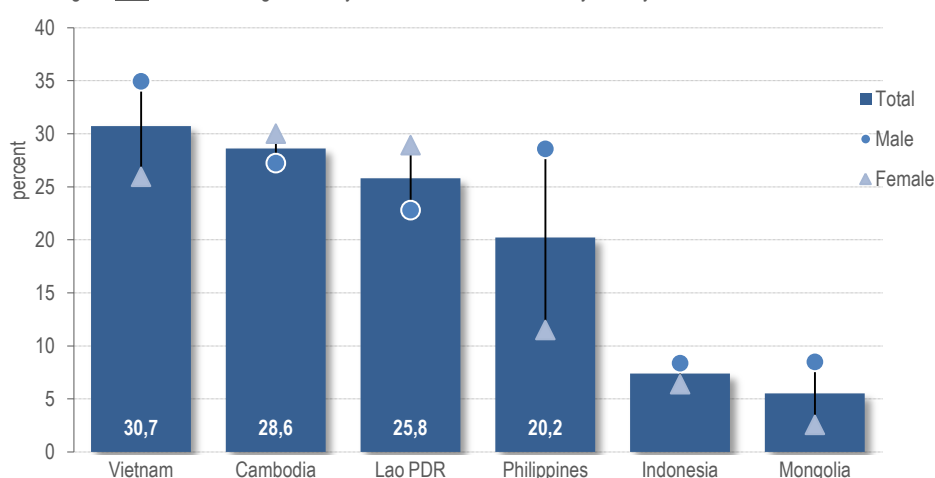


## 5. INVOLVEMENT IN HAZARDOUS WORK AMONG 15-17 YEAR-OLDS

55. Country-specific estimates of the numbers and shares of adolescents in hazardous work, reported in Figure 25, indicate that there are substantial shares of adolescents in hazardous work in most countries where data are available, although there is large variation across countries. Incidence of hazardous work among 15-17 year-olds is highest in Vietnam (31%), Cambodia (29%), Lao PDR (26%), and Philippines (20%).<sup>37</sup>

56. The pattern by sex in terms of involvement in hazardous work is not homogeneous across countries. Male adolescents are more likely to be in hazardous work in Vietnam, Indonesia and Mongolia, while the opposite pattern prevails in Cambodia and Lao PDR.

Figure 25. A high share of 15-17 year-olds hold jobs that are hazardous and therefore that constitute child labour  
Percentage of total adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous work,<sup>(a)(b)</sup> by country<sup>(c)(d)</sup>



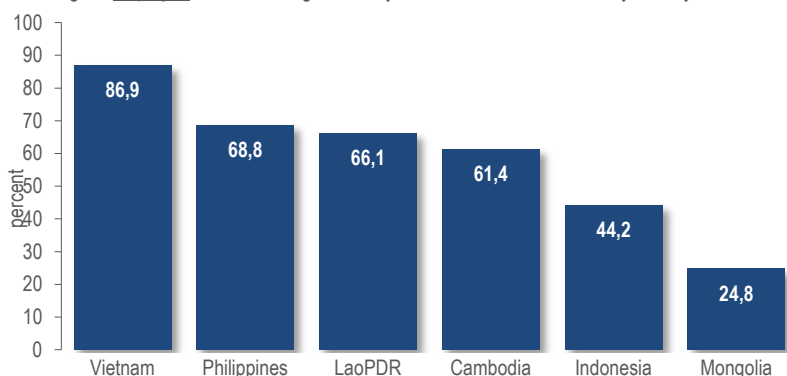
Notes: (a) Estimates based on this methodology provide an international statistical benchmark for comparative purposes but do not necessarily reflect hazardous work as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries. For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012* International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013; (b) Hazardous employment includes children working for 43 hours or more per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; and (c) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation; and (d) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years. Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

57. Adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous work constitute a very high share of all employed adolescents. Another way of viewing the issue of hazardous employment is its importance *relative to overall* employment for the 15-17 years age group. Globally those in hazardous work accounted for 40% of those employed in the 15-17 years age group. Country-level estimates, reported in Figure 26, exceed this global figure in all study countries with data except Mongolia. The hazardousness of adolescent jobs is highest in Vietnam, where 87% of employed adolescents are in hazardous work.

<sup>37</sup> It is worth reiterating that this hazardous work estimation is based on the ILO global estimates methodology (see Chapter 2) and therefore is not necessarily consistent with hazardous work as defined in legal terms in individual countries.

Figure 26. Adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous work constitute a very high share of employed adolescents

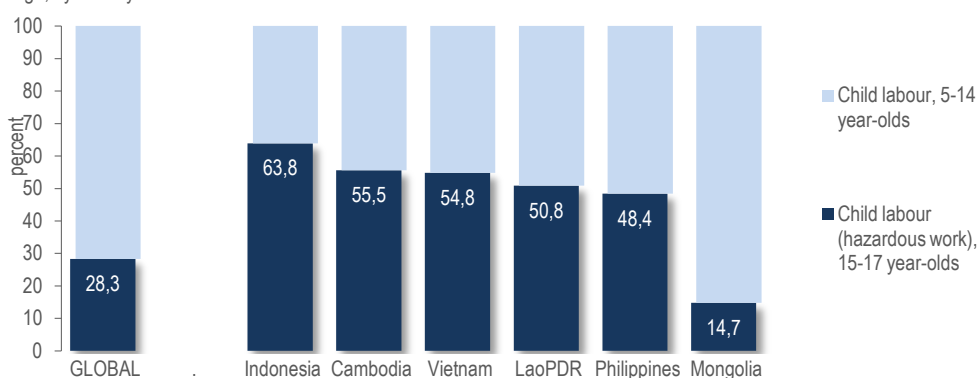
Percentage of employed adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous work,<sup>(a)(b)</sup> by country<sup>(c)(d)</sup>



Notes: (a) Estimates based on this methodology provide an international statistical benchmark for comparative purposes but do not necessarily reflect hazardous work as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries. For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012*/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013; (b) Hazardous employment includes children working for 43 hours or more per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; and (c) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation; and (d) ) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years. Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure 27. Adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous work also form a substantial share of the total child labour population

Percentage of 15-17 year-olds in hazardous work,<sup>(a)(b)</sup> as a percentage of the overall child labour population for the 5-17 years age range, by country<sup>(c)(d)</sup>



Notes: (a) Estimates based on this methodology provide an international statistical benchmark for comparative purposes but do not necessarily reflect hazardous work as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries. For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012*/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013; (b) Hazardous employment includes children working for 43 hours or more per week and children involved in hazardous occupation and/or hazardous industry; and (c) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation; and (d) ) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years. Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

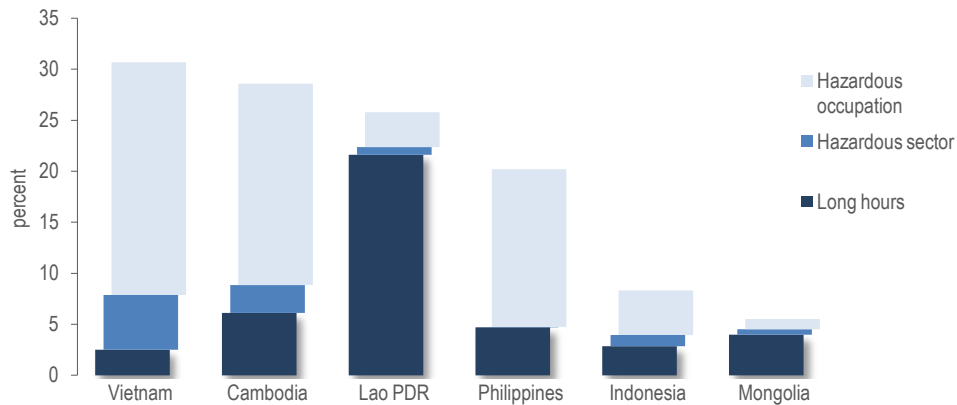
58. Adolescents in hazardous work constitute a substantial share of the overall child labour population. As reported in Figure 27, adolescents in hazardous work make up 28% of the total child labour population globally, but over 50% of the overall child labour population in all study countries except Mongolia. The relative importance of this age group to the overall child labour population is highest in Indonesia, where adolescents in hazardous work constitute almost two-thirds of all child labourers. These numbers make clear that addressing hazardous work in the 15-17 years age group is especially important to wider child labour elimination efforts.

59. The type of hazard facing adolescents with hazardous jobs varies considerably. Three groups of children are considered in estimating hazardous work in accordance with the ILO global estimates methodology – those in

hazardous industries, those in hazardous occupations and those working long hours. Figure 28 reports how adolescents in hazardous work are divided among these three groups. It indicates that long hours is the most important criterion in Laos and Mongolia while hazardous occupations play a relatively larger role in Cambodia, Vietnam and Indonesia.<sup>38</sup>

**Figure 28. Long hours is the most important criterion for child labour in the 15-17 years age range**

15-17 year-olds in child labour as a percentage for the 15-17 years population, by principal criterion for hazardousness,<sup>(a)</sup> and country<sup>(b)(c)</sup>



Notes: (a) Groups are identified in the following sequence. First, among employed 15-17 year-olds, all engaged those in designated hazardous industries are identified. Second, among the children engaged in other branches of economic activity, those employed in designated hazardous occupations are identified. Third, among the children not engaged in either hazardous industries or hazardous occupations, those who worked long hours during the reference week are then sorted out. Long hours are defined for the present purpose as 43 or more hours of work during the reference week; (b) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation; and (c) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years.

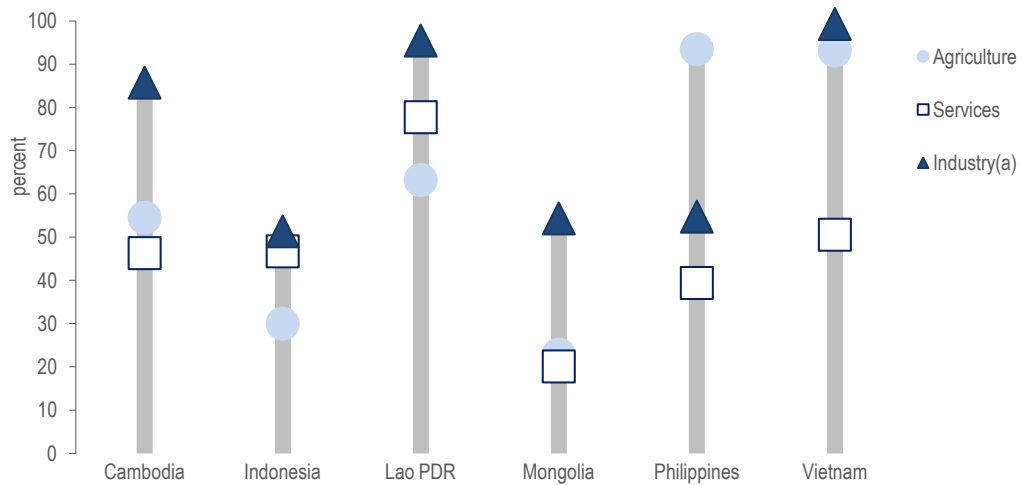
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

**60. Hazardous work appears especially common among adolescents employed in industry sector.** The industry sector, which includes manufacturing, electricity, gas, water, mining and construction, appears to be the most important sector in this regard (Figure 29). However, a non-negligible percentage of adolescent workers are also involved in hazardous forms of work both in the agriculture and service sectors in all considered countries.

<sup>38</sup> It should be noted, however, that these results are driven in important part by the sequence followed in the construction of our indicator of "principal criterion for hazardousness".

Figure 29. Hazardous work appears especially common among adolescents employed in industry sector

Share of 15-17 year-olds in hazardous work in each sector,<sup>(a)</sup> by country<sup>(b)(c)</sup>



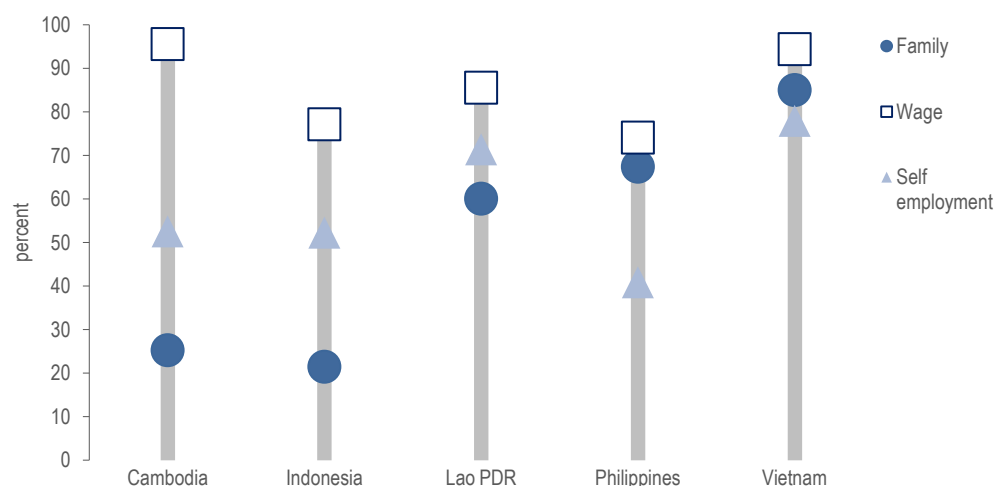
Notes: (a) Industry includes manufacturing, electricity, gas, water, mining and construction; (b) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation; and (c) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

61. In terms of status in employment, hazardous jobs appear most common among adolescents working in wage employment (Figure 30). Two observations are relevant in the context of these figures. First, the high share of wage employment that is hazardous is noteworthy. Wage employment is often treated as being higher “quality” or more desirable than other forms of employment, but this is clearly not the case in the study countries. Wage employment in the study countries is in fact most likely to be hazardous. Second, while one can suppose that the family constitutes a safer, more protected workplace for the adolescent, Figure 30 shows that family work is far from being hazard free, particularly in Laos and Vietnam.

Figure 30. Hazardous work appears especially common among adolescents working in wage and family employment

Share of 15-17 year-olds in hazardous work in each status category, by country<sup>(a)(b)</sup>



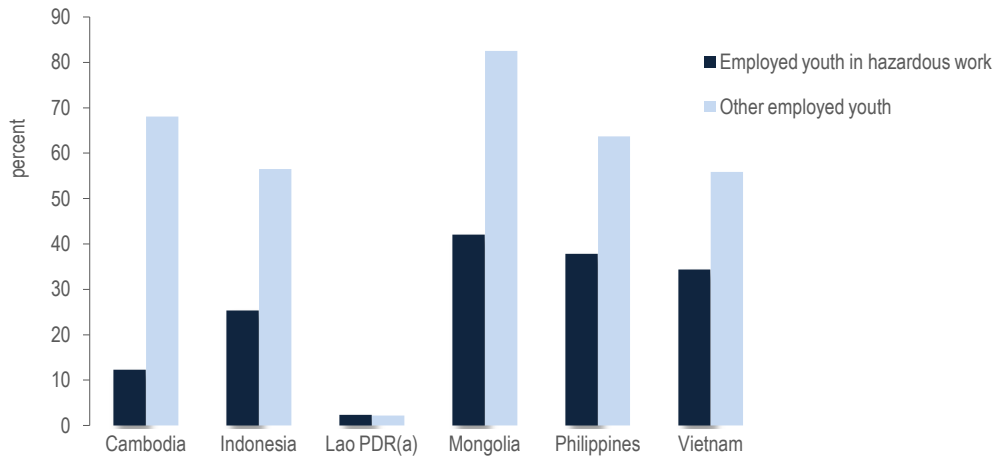
Notes: (a) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation; and (b) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

62. Adolescents in hazardous work appear disadvantaged educationally, in turn affecting their prospects for upward mobility and for securing decent work in the future. Work and education are not necessarily of course mutually exclusive activities. Many adolescents take an initial job while continuing to invest in their education and to advance their labour market prospects. Adolescents aged 15-17 years in hazardous work, however, appear generally less able to do this than similarly aged adolescents in other employment. As reported in Figure 31, the differences in this regard are often dramatic. In Cambodia, for example, only 12% of adolescents in hazardous work are able to continue with their education against over 68% of adolescents in other jobs. Similarly in Indonesia, there is a 30 percentage point difference in the education participation between adolescents in hazardous work and adolescents in other employment. Clearly, the conditions of hazardous work make this work less facilitative of continued education.

Figure 31. Those in hazardous work are much less likely to be continuing with their education

Percentage of employed adolescents aged 15-17 years attending school, by work type (i.e., hazardous or non-hazardous) and by country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

## 6. RESPONDING TO THE TWIN CHALLENGES OF CHILD LABOUR AND EDUCATIONAL MARGINALISATION: CREATING PATHWAYS TO DECENT WORK

63. There are no simple answers to the millions of children in the study countries who remain trapped in child labour. As underscored in the *Roadmap for Achieving the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour* adopted at The Hague Global Child Labour Conference of 2010,<sup>39</sup> child labour – in the study countries and elsewhere – is a complex phenomenon requiring a response that is comprehensive in nature and that involves simultaneous action across a range of policy sectors. In keeping with a comprehensive approach, the Roadmap document calls for the “mainstreaming” child labour elimination in broader policy frameworks at national and sub-national levels and for mechanisms to coordinate policy efforts against child labour.

64. As part of the searching for comprehensive solutions, the study countries have committed internationally, regionally and at national level to combat child labour through different legislative, policy and development measures. These commitments provide a basis and framework for accelerated combating child labour. Some key specific policy priorities in this regard are discussed below.

**Improving education access and quality**, in order that families have the opportunity to invest in their children’s education as an alternative to child labour, and that the returns to schooling make it worthwhile for them to do so.

65. There is broad consensus that the single most effective way to prevent child labour is to extend and improve schooling as its logical alternative. Despite progress, ensuring that children have access to quality education remains a major challenge in the study countries.<sup>40</sup> We saw earlier that there are still very high shares of children in the 7-14 years age range who are out of school in a number of the study countries, underscoring the distance that must still be travelled to reach universal primary enrolment. School attendance is especially low (and numbers of out of school children especially high) in rural areas, highlighting the importance of continued efforts towards school expansion using needs-based criteria to ensure that the most under-served rural groups are reached. Access to schooling matters but in the study countries it is only a part of the answer. Feedback on reasons for being outside of school highlights the importance of perceptions concerning the relevance and need for schooling. This feedback points to a general need to improve school quality in order that schooling is seen by parents as a worthwhile alternative to child labour. At present, schooling standards vary considerably across and within the study countries and quality is undermined by factors such as incomplete school buildings, teacher shortages, inconsistent teaching standards and poor curriculum relevance. ASEAN has an important potential role to play in this context. The process of economic integration within the ASEAN Economic

<sup>39</sup> *Roadmap for Achieving the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour by 2016*. Outcome document from The Hague Global Child Labour Conference 2010. Available at: [www.ilo.org/ipecinfo/product/download.do?type=document&id=13453](http://www.ilo.org/ipecinfo/product/download.do?type=document&id=13453).

<sup>40</sup> For a detailed general discussion of policy options relating to addressing child labour and educational marginalisation see: *Child Labour & Educational Disadvantage – Breaking the Link, Building Opportunity. A Review by Gordon Brown*. Office of the UN Special Envoy for Global Education, 2012 Available at: [http://educationenvoy.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/child\\_labour\\_and\\_education\\_UK.pdf](http://educationenvoy.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/child_labour_and_education_UK.pdf)

Community can be harnessed to push education quality across the Community and to link education with labour market requirements

**Expanding “second chance” education, in order to offset the negative education impact of child labour and promote social reintegration.**

Second chance policies are needed to reach former working children and other out-of-school children with educational opportunities as part of broader efforts towards their social reintegration. Empirical evidence presented above on educational attainment indicates that significant shares of children in many of the study countries leave the education system prior to the end of the primary education cycle and many of those out of school lack the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. Transitional education, involving separate intensive courses designed to raise academic proficiency to facilitate a return to the formal school system, offers one possible route for reaching children with second educational chances. The key advantage to a transitional education strategy is that it offers children a viable opportunity to re-enter regular schooling, rather than relegating them permanently to a parallel, and frequently inferior, non-formal education track. Second chance programmes are present in several of the study countries, but such programmes are generally limited in coverage, lack coordination and are not uniformly successful in terms of learning outcomes. This underscores the need for expanded national strategies that are more effectively in reaching vulnerable children with the second chance education opportunities they need for work and life.

**Mainstreaming gender considerations to account for the special vulnerabilities of female children and adolescents**

66. Adequately accounting for gender concerns is critical to the success of early interventions to combat child labour. Girl children face special barriers in terms of exercising their rights to education and protection from child labour, owing to factors such as early marriage, the demands of domestic responsibilities within their own home and traditional roles. This highlights the overarching need for inclusive education strategies, including girl-friendly schools, which are adaptive to and supportive of the unique schooling challenges faced by girl children. It also calls for targeted interventions addressing the variety of cultural, social and economic factors that leave girl children especially vulnerable to certain types of child labour, including commercial sexual exploitation and domestic service in third-party households.

**Expanding social protection to help prevent child labour from being used as a household survival strategy in the face of economic and social vulnerability.**

67. The importance of social protection to the fight against child labour has been well established. Social protection makes it less likely that families have to pull their children out of school and send them to work as a coping strategy when faced with economic vulnerability or shocks. Social protection is also critical to broader efforts towards reducing inequality, again with direct relevance for the fight against child labour. At present, social protection coverage across the study countries is uneven and many programmes are piecemeal and ad hoc. Existing programmes are not generally implemented as part of a holistic or systemic approach and as result many needy groups fall between the cracks in terms of coverage. In this context, establishing adequate social protection floors (SPFs)

constitutes a critical priority, both for child labour elimination efforts and for broader poverty reduction and social development goals. The ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation (No. 202) of 2012 provides a key framework for efforts in this regard. The Recommendation sets out that SPFs should contain basic social security guarantees that ensure that all in need can afford and have access to essential health care and have income security at least at a nationally defined minimum level over the life cycle.<sup>41</sup> A wide range of policy measures are relevant in this context, including conditional and unconditional cash transfers, public employment schemes, schemes, family allowances, school feeding schemes, social health insurance, unemployment protection and old age pensions, building on the wealth of existing policy experience in these areas in the region.<sup>42</sup>

### **Awareness raising and social mobilisation, to build a broad-based consensus for change and to engage civil society and social partners in achieving change.**

68. Awareness raising is needed as part of efforts to build a broad consensus for change. Child labour is a clear example in which both social norms and economic considerations are important, and strategic communication efforts need to be designed with this in mind. Households require information concerning the costs or dangers of child labour and benefits of schooling in order to make informed decisions on their children's time allocation. Cultural attitudes and perceptions can also direct household decisions concerning children's schooling and child labour, and therefore should also be targeted in strategic communication efforts. A mix of conventional (e.g., radio, television and print media) as well as of non-conventional communication channels (e.g., religious leaders, school teachers, health care workers, other opinion-formers) is important in order to achieve maximum outreach. Social media represents another increasingly important communication tool in the context of both national awareness raising and global campaigns targeting issues such as supply chains. Policy responses to child labour are also unlikely to be effective in the absence of the active participation of civil society and of social partners in implementing them. Building on efforts being undertaken with support from ILO-IPEC, UNICEF and other groups, religious organizations, educational institutions, teachers' organisations, NGOs, the mass media, community-based organizations, trade unions, employers' organizations and numerous other groups need to be actively engaged in the societal effort against child labour.

### **Strengthening legislative and policy frameworks, as a foundation and guide for action against child labour.**

69. Achieving sustainable reductions in child labour requires a supportive policy and legislative environment which is in line with international standards and effectively mainstreamed into national development plans and programmes. This has the important effect of signalling national intent to eliminate child

<sup>41</sup> ILO, 2011. *Resolution and conclusions concerning the recurrent discussion on social protection (social security)*, International Labour Conference, 100th Session, Geneva, 2011, in Record of Proceedings (Geneva, 2011), No. 24: Report of the Committee for the Recurrent Discussion on Social Protection.2011b, paras. 4 and 5. Available at: [http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed\\_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms\\_152819.pdf](http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_norm/@relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms_152819.pdf)

<sup>42</sup> For a detailed discussion of this point, see *World report on child labour: Economic vulnerability, social protection and the fight against child labour* / International Labour Office. - Geneva: ILO, 2013. ISBN 978-92-2-126234-3 (print); 978-92-2-126235-0 (web pdf). Available at: [http://www.unesco.org/library/PDF/2013\\_Worl\\_Report\\_on\\_CL\\_and\\_Social\\_Protection\\_EN\[1\].pdf](http://www.unesco.org/library/PDF/2013_Worl_Report_on_CL_and_Social_Protection_EN[1].pdf)



labour and providing a framework in which this can be achieved. The study countries have made a number important legal commitments to child labour but the legal framework is by no means complete. The critical next step on the legislative front is to ensure that these Conventions are effectively domesticated into national legislation. Domestication should include the elaboration of national lists of hazardous work that is prohibited for all persons below the age of 18 years. National action plans can play a critical role in galvanising national efforts aimed at actually implementing national legislation and goals therein, starting with the elimination of worst forms of child labour. Child labour is multi-faceted and cuts across traditional policy boundaries, meaning that national plans, and policy responses generally, should be *cross-sectoral* in nature. The effectiveness of legislation in protecting children from child labour also depends on establishing and strengthening mechanisms for monitoring and enforcing laws, including provisions for inspections and for the removal of child labourers to safe places. Effective community based child labour monitoring systems (CLMS) are especially needed as a mechanism for identifying children who are involved or at risk of engaging in child labour, referring them to labour inspectorates and appropriate social services, and tracking them to ensure a positive outcome.

### **Improving the evidence base, to inform policy design and to ensure the effective targeting of interventions.**

70. Effective and well-targeted responses to child labour demand a strong body of knowledge on the issue, including an understanding of how many child labourers there are, which sectors and geographical areas they work in, the demographic characteristics of the children involved, and the type of work that they carry out. Despite recent national household surveys in most of the study countries, data quality and comparability are uneven and significant information gaps remain, affecting understanding of the child labour phenomenon and the ability of policy-makers to address it. There is a general need in this context for regular systems for the collection, analysis and dissemination of child labour statistics, as well as more targeted research aimed at filling specific knowledge gaps. Data collection systems should be linked to and integrated with other data on adolescents and adult employment/unemployment and to the range of other data sources relating to child protection, social protection, education and related issues. Better data on the worst forms of child labour is especially needed, recognizing that “the effective elimination of the worst forms of child labour requires immediate and comprehensive action.”<sup>43</sup> More evidence is also needed, *inter alia*, on migration (in-country and cross-border) and child labour and on the gender dimensions of child labour.

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<sup>43</sup> Preamble, Convention 182 - Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, International Labour Organization, 1999.

## APPENDIX. ADDITIONAL STATISTICS

Table A1. Child labour<sup>(a)</sup> by sex, residence, age group and country

Country	5-14 yrs <sup>(b)</sup>				15-17 yrs			
	Sex		Residence		Sex		Residence	
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Cambodia	7.7	8.2	4.2	8.9	27.2	30.0	15.2	32.2
Lao PDR	6.7	8.7	2.2	9.2	22.8	28.9	14.2	30.5
Thailand <sup>(c)</sup>	8.1	7.9	7.8	8.0	-	-	-	-
Mongolia	11.8	10.2	2.9	20.8	8.5	2.6	2.5	9.2
Indonesia	4.4	3.9	2.0	5.3	10.2	6.4	7.7	8.9
Philippines	5.4	3.0	2.8	5.2	28.6	11.5	10.7	26.6
Timor-Leste <sup>(d)</sup>	17.2	14.9	7.4	18.9	1.5	0.4	0.8	1.1
Vietnam	8.9	7.7	3.4	10.3	34.9	25.9	14.7	37.2

Notes: (a) Estimates based on this methodology provide an international statistical benchmark for comparative purposes but do not necessarily reflect child labour as defined by national legislation in each of the study countries. For details on the methodology, see ILO-IPEC, *Making progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012*/ International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) – Geneva: ILO, 2013; (b) The lower age boundary for Timor-Leste estimates is ten years; (c) Data for Thailand does not provide information on hazardous occupation and on hazardous industry and does not cover children aged 15 to 17 years; (d) Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A2. Children's involvement in employment and schooling, 7-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by residence and country

Country		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Cambodia	U	1.0	92.5	5.0	1.5	6.0	97.5	2.5
	R	2.8	81.4	10.1	5.8	12.9	91.5	8.5
Lao PDR	U	-	-	-	-	2.6	95.6	4.4
	R	-	-	-	-	10.4	86.3	13.7
Thailand	U	0.5	85.3	13.1	1.1	13.5	98.4	1.6
	R	0.7	83.3	14.9	1.0	15.7	98.3	1.7
Mongolia	U	0.1	94.3	5.0	0.6	5.0	99.3	0.7
	R	1.9	70.0	26.9	1.1	28.8	96.9	3.1
Indonesia	U	0.4	94.4	2.8	2.4	3.2	97.2	2.8
	R	0.9	87.5	7.5	4.1	8.4	95.0	5.0
Timor-Leste	U	3.0	81.0	6.3	9.8	9.3	87.3	12.7
	R	8.7	66.4	14.8	10.1	23.5	81.2	18.8
Philippines	U	0.8	90.8	5.5	2.9	6.3	96.3	3.7
	R	1.6	86.5	9.2	2.7	10.8	95.8	4.2
Vietnam	U	1.3	93.8	3.5	1.4	4.8	97.3	2.7
	R	2.4	84.9	11.0	1.7	13.4	95.9	4.1

Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A3. Children's involvement in employment and schooling, 7-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by sex and country

Country		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Cambodia	M	2.6	83.1	8.4	5.9	11.0	91.5	8.5
	F	2.2	84.0	9.8	3.9	12.1	93.8	6.2
Lao PDR	M	-	-	-	-	7.6	89.7	10.3
	F	-	-	-	-	9.7	87.0	13.0
Thailand	M	0.8	83.1	15.0	1.1	15.7	98.1	1.9
	F	0.5	84.6	13.9	1.0	14.4	98.5	1.5
Mongolia	M	1.4	82.5	15.1	1.0	16.5	97.5	2.5
	F	0.4	83.8	15.1	0.7	15.5	98.9	1.1
Indonesia	M	0.9	89.3	6.1	3.6	7.0	95.4	4.6
	F	0.5	90.4	5.7	3.4	6.2	96.1	3.9
Timor-Leste	M	7.7	68.7	14.5	9.1	22.2	83.2	16.8
	F	6.9	71.4	10.8	10.8	17.7	82.2	17.8
Philippines	M	1.9	85.8	9.0	3.4	10.9	94.7	5.3
	F	0.6	90.7	6.6	2.1	7.2	97.3	2.7
Vietnam	M	2.5	86.6	9.3	1.7	11.7	95.9	4.1
	F	1.7	88.4	8.4	1.5	10.1	96.8	3.2

Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A4. Determinants of children's employment and schooling, marginal effect after biprobit estimations, children aged 10-14 years: main results

Independent variables <sup>(a)</sup>	Employment exclusively		Schooling exclusively		Both activities		Neither activity (inactive)	
	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z	dy/dx	z
Male	0.0038	3.48	-0.0160	-4.00	0.0102	2.88	0.0020	1.62
Rural	0.0099	8.05	-0.0734	-16.92	0.0663	17.04	-0.0028	-2.04
Household wealth.: quintile 2 <sup>(b)</sup>	-0.0068	-4.50	0.0227	3.89	-0.0108	-2.09	-0.0051	-3.08
Household wealth.: quintile 3 <sup>(b)</sup>	-0.0072	-4.49	0.0262	4.31	-0.0142	-2.62	-0.0048	-2.71
Household wealth.: quintile 4 <sup>(b)</sup>	-0.0165	-8.79	0.0511	7.82	-0.0210	-3.64	-0.0135	-6.38
Household wealth.: quintile 5 <sup>(b)</sup>	-0.0210	-9.70	0.0610	8.57	-0.0217	-3.44	-0.0183	-7.31
Household head education level: primary <sup>(c)</sup>	-0.0308	-18.74	0.1051	16.71	-0.0515	-9.23	-0.0228	-14.07
Household head education level:	-0.0616	-25.73	0.2098	29.57	-0.1026	-16.51	-0.0456	-19.28

Notes: Estimates based on pooled data with country fixed effects; (a) Other control variables were age and country; (b) Reference category is household wealth: quintile 1; (c) Reference category is no schooling; (d) Reference category is Vietnam.

Source: UCW calculations based on Thailand Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 3 (MICS 3) 2005-2006, Mongolia Labour Force Survey with Child Activities Module (LFS-NCLS) 2011, Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSLS) 2007, Vietnam National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) 2012

Table A5. Children's involvement in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by orphan status and country

	Orphan <sup>(b)</sup>	Non-orphan
Cambodia	15.9	8.9
Thailand	18.4	12.7
Timor-Leste	24.1	19.2

Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range; (b) At least one parent deceased.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A6. Children's occupation category in agricultural employment, 5-14 years age group, by country and sex

		Crop production	Animal production	Mixed crop and animal production	Forestry/logging	Fishing	Total
Cambodia	Male	61.5	31.1	-	3.1	3.3	100
	Female	69.4	25.6	-	2.9	1.9	100
Lao PDR	Male	95.4	3.8	-	0.4	0.5	100
	Female	96.6	1.4	-	2.0	-	100
Mongolia	Male	4.6	95.4	-	-	-	100
	Female	3.2	96.8	-	-	-	100
Indonesia	Male	51.7	20.6	1.4	21.9	4.3	100
	Female	56.1	12.7	0.6	27.9	2.8	100
Philippines	Male	75.9	11.1	-	4.1	8.9	100*
	Female	80.1	12.4	-	1.8	5.7	100
Vietnam	Male	37.5	48.6	1.5	6.3	5.4	100
	Female	40.6	49.6	0.9	7.6	1.2	100

Notes: \* Philippines, the residual category "other" is not shown

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A7. Distribution of children in crop production by crop type, 5-14 years age group, by country and sex

		Cereals (except rice), legumes	Rice	Vegetables, fruits	Support activities for crop production	Other	Total
Cambodia	Male	8.4	17.6	39.0	25.2	9.9	100
	Female	8.5	13.0	43.2	22.1	13.2	100
Lao PDR	Male	1.7	83.5	5.0	8.5	1.3	100
	Female	1.1	81.6	4.7	10.9	1.8	100
Indonesia(a)	Male	66.1	-	33.9	-	-	100
	Female	60.1	-	39.9	-	-	100
Philippines	Male	24.5	41.8	32.2	-	1.4	100
	Female	38.4	28.1	32.8	-	0.7	100
Vietnam	Male	41.4	11.3	31.5	2.0	13.9	100
	Female	39.9	15.2	23.0	0.8	21.1	100

Notes: (a) The category "Cereals, legumes" include also rice.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A8. Children's status in employment in the manufacturing sector, 5-14 years age group, by country

		Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	Male	86.8	12.82	0.4	-	100
	Female	71.6	28.36	0.0	-	100
Indonesia	Male	56.3	14.5	29.2	-	100
	Female	42.2	31.3	26.5	-	100
Philippines	Male	79.0	18.1	0.0	2.9	100
	Female	72.6	16.2	3.4	7.9	100
Vietnam	Male	63.9	32.44	3.7	-	100
	Female	59.1	35.67	5.2	-	100

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A9. Children's status in employment in the commerce sector, 5-14 years age group, by country

		Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	Male	92.2	7.1	0.7	-	100
	Female	94.1	1.3	4.6	-	100
Indonesia	Male	93.9	1.4	4.7	-	100
	Female	94.6	2.8	2.7	-	100
Philippines	Male	73.8	11.4	14.4	0.3	100
	Female	87.2	7.3	4.9	0.6	100
Vietnam	Male	75.9	16.6	7.6	-	100
	Female	89.6	5.5	4.9	-	100

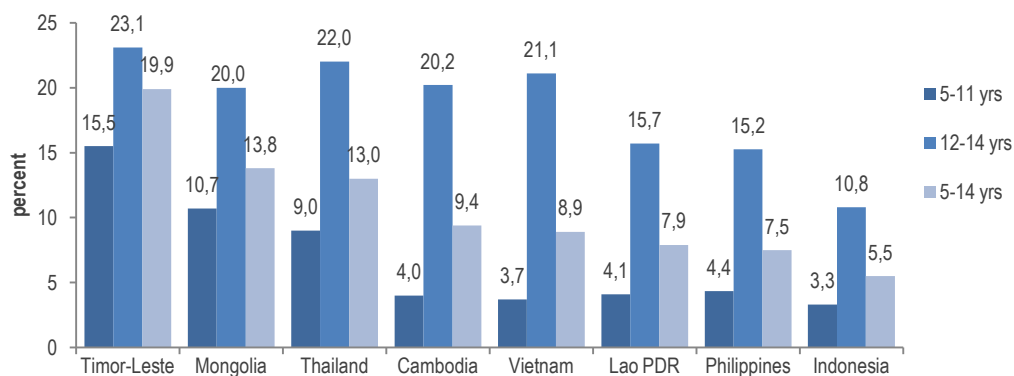
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A10. Distribution of children in commerce by commerce type, 5-14 years age group, by country

		Sale and repair of motor vehicles	Sale in stores, stalls or markets with food, beverages or tobacco predominating	Sale in stores, stalls or markets with clothing, footwear and leather articles	Other	Total
Cambodia	Male	3.3	42.2	7.3	47.2	100
	Female	0.0	43.2	2.6	54.2	100
Mongolia	Male	8.6	45.8	6.6	39.0	100
	Female	5.9	51.0	18.0	25.2	100
Indonesia	Male	1.7	75.7	0.0	22.6	100
	Female	0.0	64.9	2.3	32.8	100
Philippines	Male	2.2	69.3	0.7	27.8	100
	Female	0.0	87.8	0.4	11.8	100
Vietnam	Male	8.9	54.4	3.3	33.4	100
	Female	2.0	43.4	20.7	41.4	100

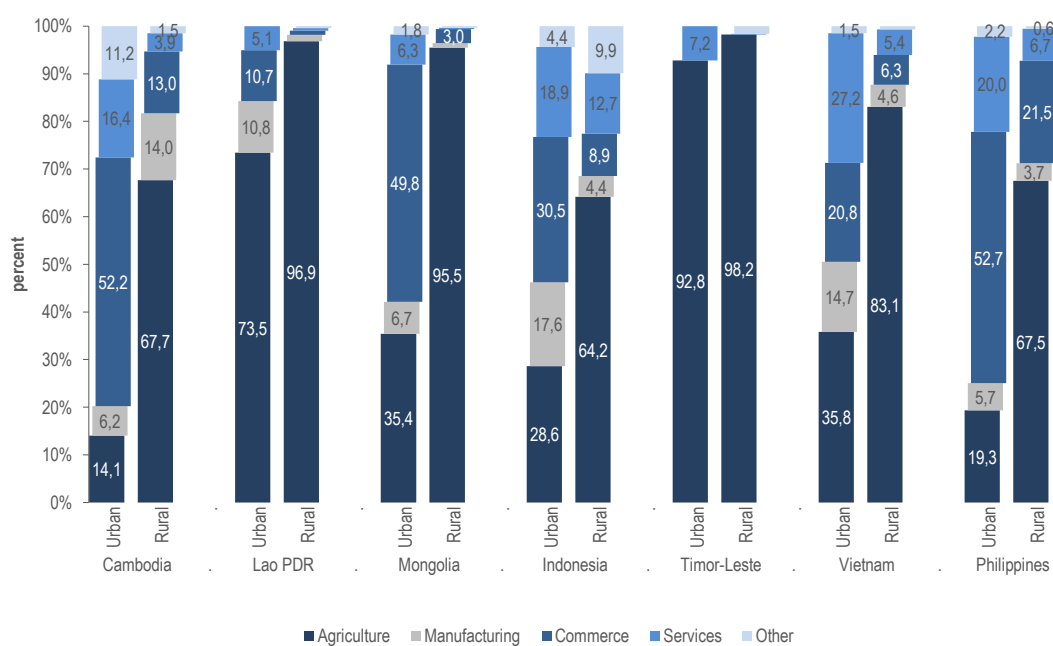
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure A1. Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by age group and country<sup>(b)</sup>



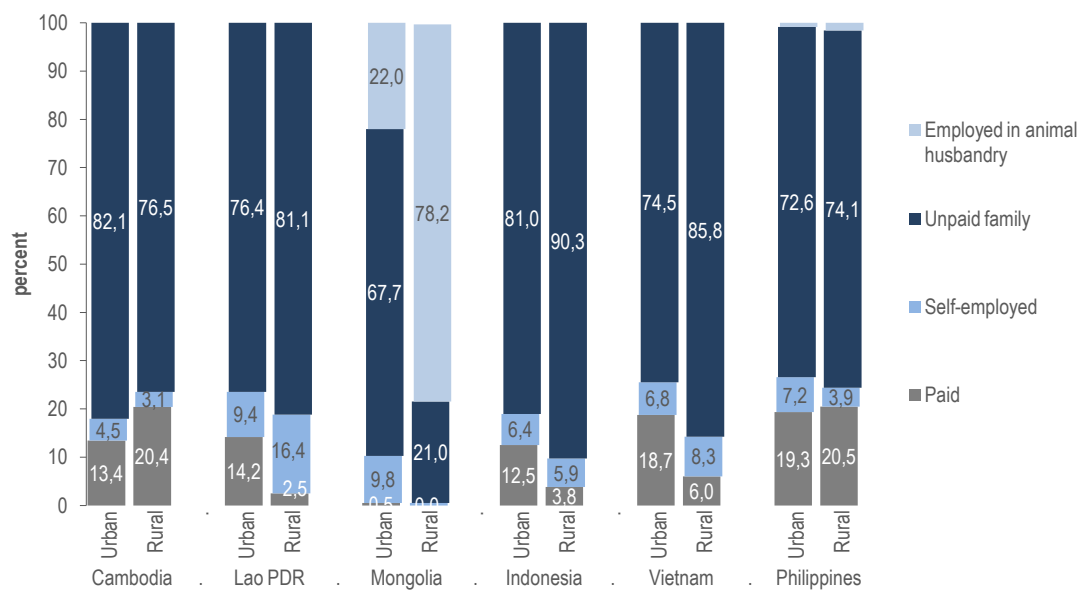
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range; (b) Cross-country comparisons of children's employment should be interpreted with caution, as estimates are based on different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure A2. Sectoral composition of children's employment (% distribution), 5-14 years years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by residence and country



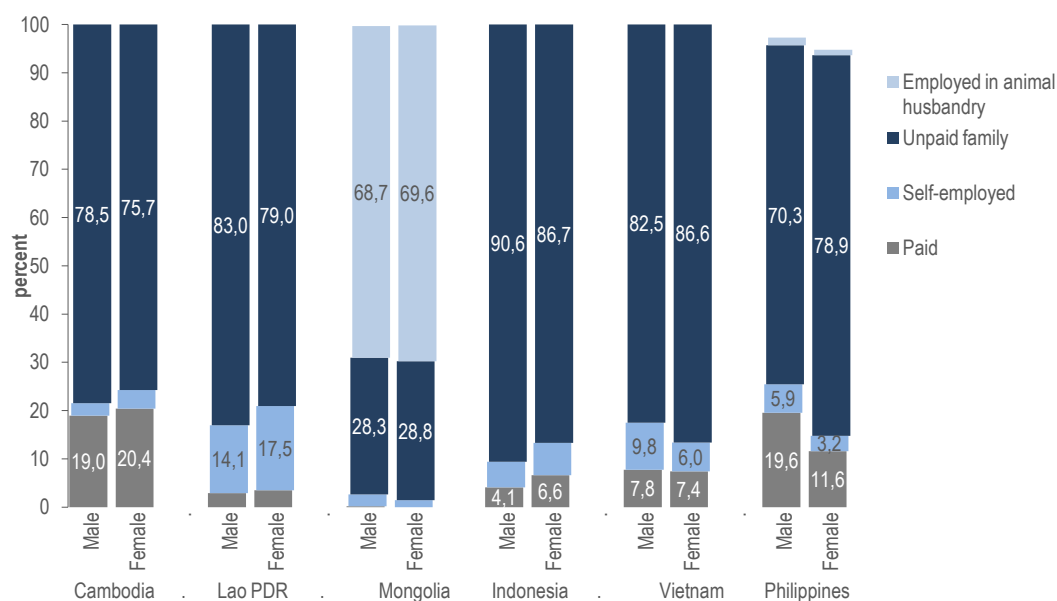
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure A3. Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by residence and country



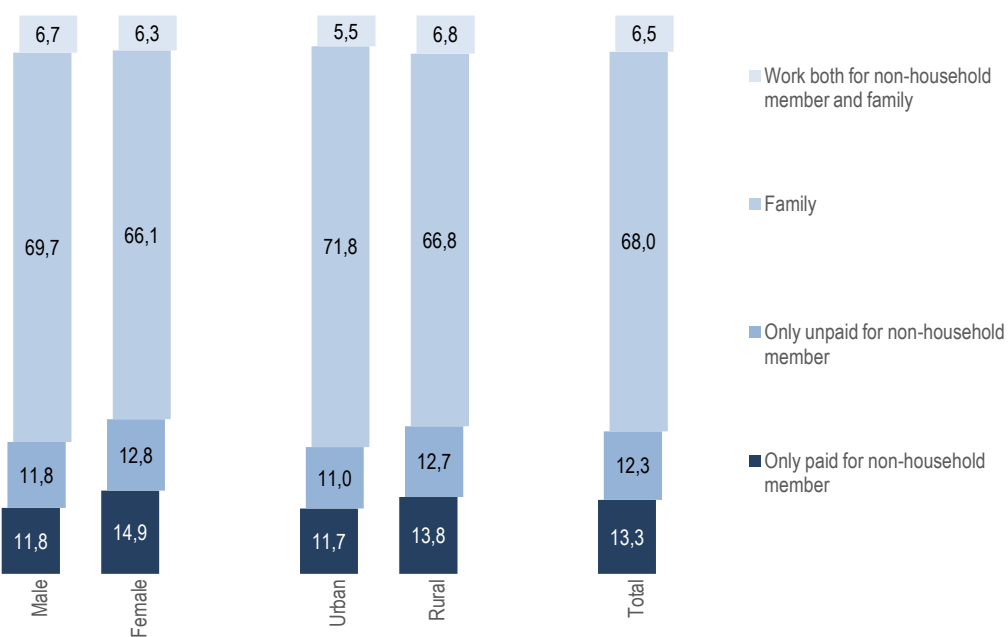
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure A4. Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years years age group<sup>(a)</sup>, by sex and country



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

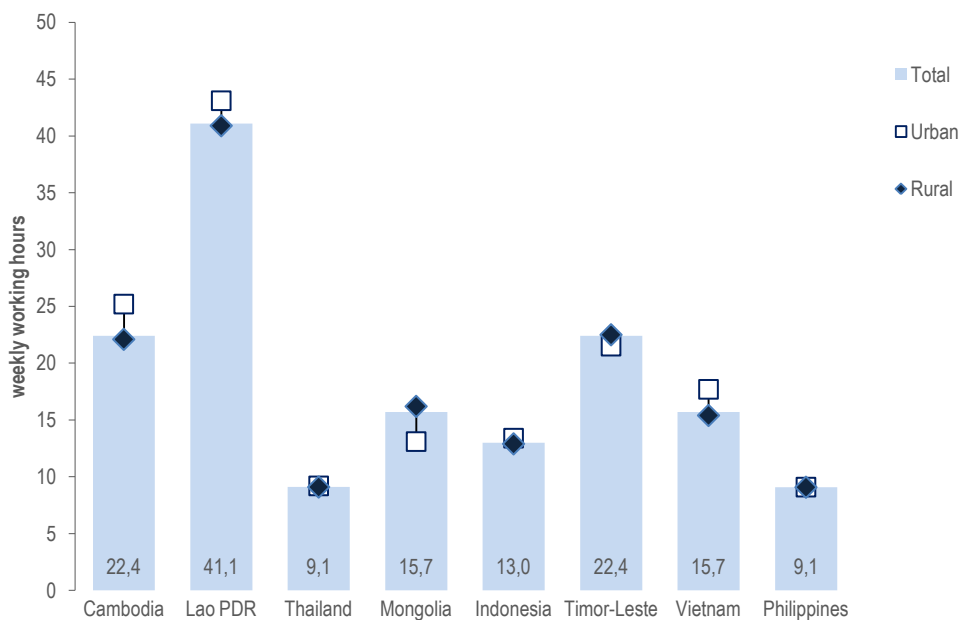
Figure A5. Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group, by sex and residence, Thailand



Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

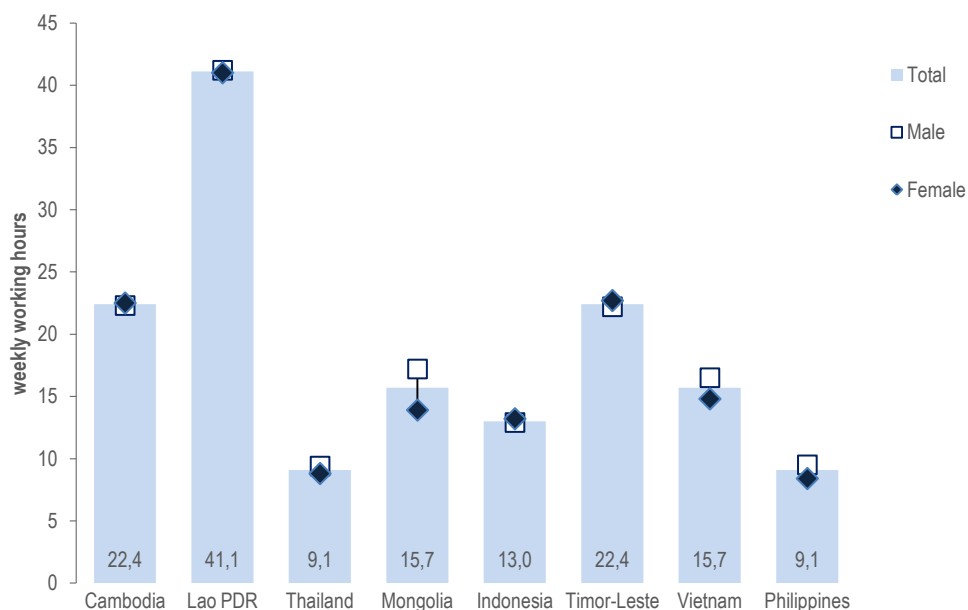
Figure A6. Children in employment put in long hours

Average weekly working hours, 5-14 years age group(a), by residence and country



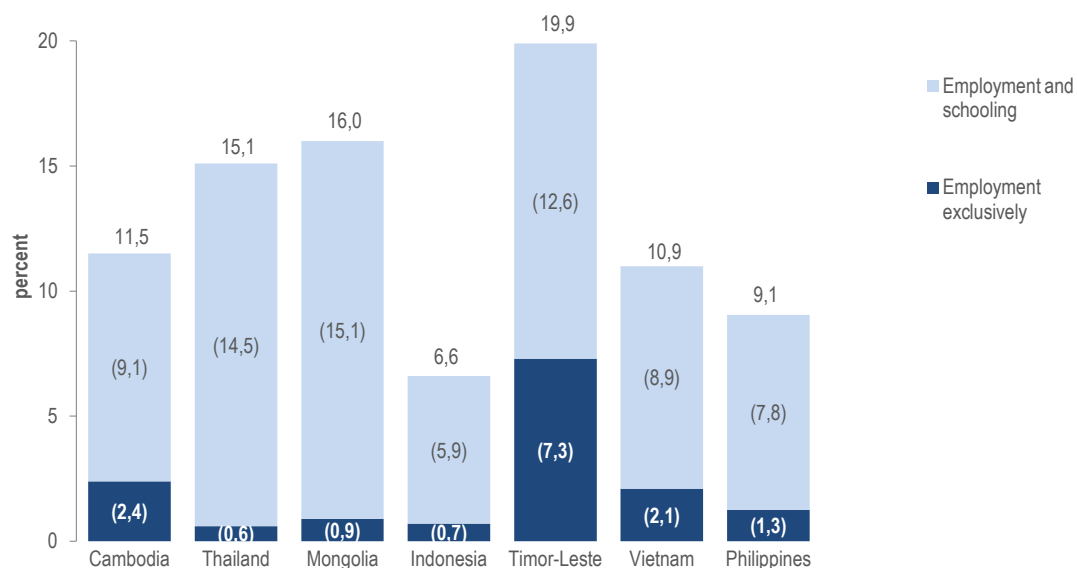


Average weekly working hours, 5-14 years age group(a), by sex and country



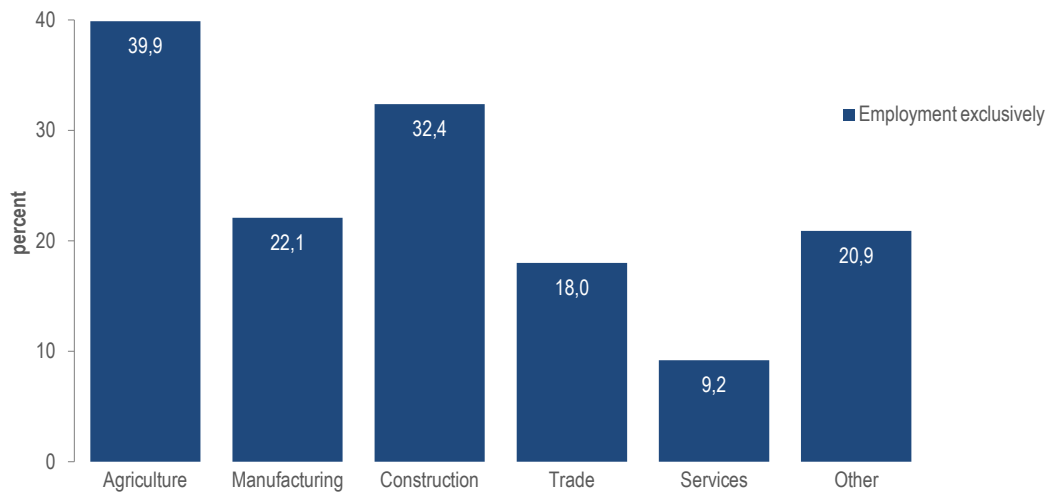
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure A7. Percentage of children in employment by school status, 7-14 years age range(a), by country



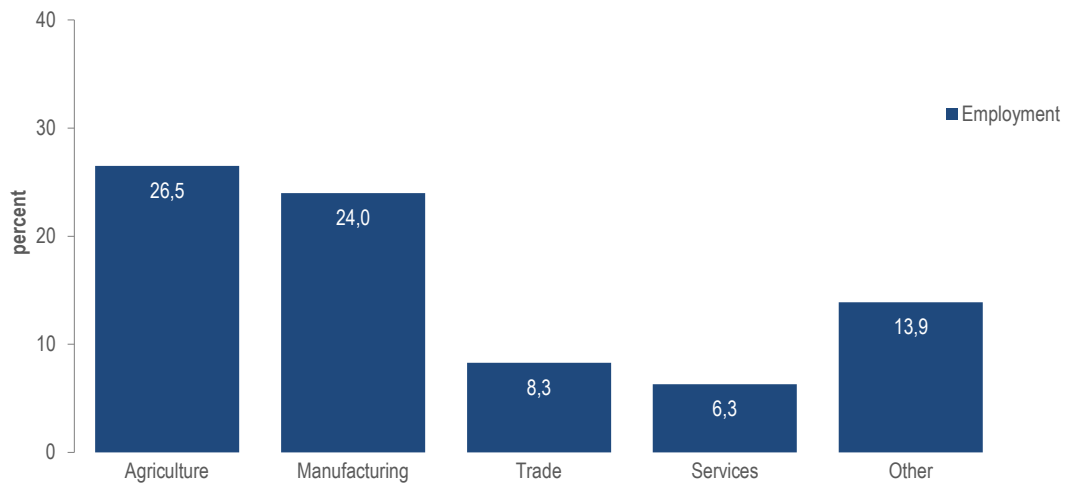
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.  
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Figure A8. Incidence of work-related disease and injury, by sector in employment – Vietnam



Source: UCW calculations based on Vietnam, National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) 2012

Figure A9. Incidence of work-related disease and injury, by sector in employment – Indonesia



Source: UCW calculations based on Indonesia, Child Labour Survey (CLS) 2009

The eight study countries in the East and South-East Asia region – Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Vietnam and Mongolia – have witnessed significant progress in terms of reducing child labour and increasing primary school attendance.

Nevertheless, child labour continues to be high in several of them and an alarmingly high number of primary school-aged children are out of school, often due to the demands of work. Accelerating progress against child labour and educational marginalization therefore remains a critical development priority in the eight countries.

The Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Programme has produced this Report to contribute building the evidence base necessary for the design and targeting of policies necessary for achieving this accelerated progress. It brings together the most recent available information from a variety of national household surveys to provide a detailed picture of child labour and the related challenge educational marginalisation in the East and South-East Asia region.

The Report reinforces the central message of the 2015 World Day Against Child Labour, i.e., the close link between child labour and schooling and, in particular, the important role of quality education in tackling child labour.