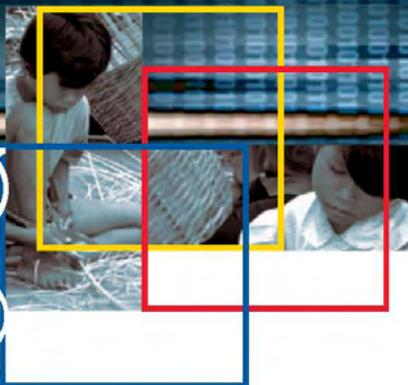




International
Labour
Office

SIMPOC



Manual for child labour data analysis and statistical reports

Statistical Information
and Monitoring Programme
on Child Labour (SIMPOC)



Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC)

Manual for child labour data analysis and statistical reports

International Labour Office
International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour

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Preface

The International Labour Office (ILO), through its International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), has helped turn the fight against child labour into a universal cause. IPEC is currently working with more than 75 countries to prevent and eliminate a scourge that still affects millions of children around the world. With the expansion of IPEC's activities over the years, the need for reliable, up-to-date information has progressively been highlighted. The improvement of the knowledge base on child labour is recognised as key to developing effective and sustainable means to confront the problem.

Starting in 1998, the Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) has assisted countries in generating reliable, comparable and comprehensive data on children's activities, at the same time enhancing existing national capacity to collect, process, analyse and disseminate child labour statistical information. Since then, SIMPOC has supplied technical assistance to more than 40 countries around the world conducting child labour surveys implemented by national statistical offices, ministries of labour and/or research institutions.

The proper analysis and presentation of the data collected through these surveys has posed particular challenges. The lessons learned and experience gathered throughout the years represent valuable information that can be used when analysing the data from future child labour surveys. Based on SIMPOC's experience in different regions of the world and with the aim of providing general guidelines for future analysis of survey information, the manual on child labour data analysis has been produced.

It is my sincere hope that this manual will guide those analysing survey data with the ultimate purpose of providing an increased understanding of the magnitude, causes and consequences of child labour.

Frans Röselaers,
Director,
International Programme on the
Elimination of Child Labour – IPEC.

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List of acronyms

CI:	Confidence Interval
CPS:	Current Population Survey
CV:	Coefficient of Variation
CSO:	Central Statistical Office/ Organization
DANE:	National Administrative Department for Statistics (Columbia)
ENTIA:	Encuesta Nacional del Trabajo Infantil y Adolescente (Nicaragua)
IEFP:	Instituto do Emprego e Formação Profissional (Portugal)
ILO:	International Labour Office
ILO-ACT/EMP:	International Labour Office – Social Dialogue – Bureau for Employers’ Activities
IMPS:	Integrated Microcomputer Processing System
IPEC:	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
ISCO:	International Standard Classification of Occupations
ISIC:	International Standard Industrial Classification
ISSA:	Integrated System for Survey Analysis
LSMS:	Living Standards Measurement Study
MPSLSW:	Ministry of Public Service Labour and Social Welfare (Zimbabwe)
PCA:	Principal Component Analysis
SAS:	Statistical Analysis System
SIETI:	System of Statistical Information on Child Labour (Portugal)
SIMPOC:	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
SNA:	System of National Accounts
SPSS:	Superior Performance Software System (originally Statistical Package for Social Science)
STATA:	Statistical software package
SUDAAN:	Survey Data Analysis
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA:	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNICEF:	United Nations Children’s Fund
USAID:	United States Agency for International Development

Introduction

Given the importance of national child labour survey reports,¹ and the wide circulation of the associated reports in-country and abroad, both high-quality data analysis and lucid reports based on that analysis are extremely important. In that spirit, this manual provides guidance in

- analysis of the data collected in national child labour surveys,² and
- preparation of the SIMPOC national report.

The manual is intended as a practical guide:

- Whenever possible, it provides illustrative examples from actual surveys and national reports.
- Analysts and report writers are encouraged, furthermore, to adapt or add – where feasible in terms of available financial, technical, and time resources – elements they consider relevant in the context of any given survey.

The SIMPOC national child labour report guidelines are applicable to any report on analysis of data collected in national child labour surveys and in some extent of data collected in any child labour survey.

Part I details the chapter-and-section structure of the SIMPOC child labour national report, from the preface, tables, and executive summary to the chapters on survey methodology, definitions, and analysis of children's activities to the conclusions, recommendations, and reference section. Part I also proposes ideas for reports of follow-up national child labour surveys (NCLSs) and other types of child labour surveys (CLSs).

Part II deals with issues not touched upon in Part I regarding the preparation, analysis, and presentation of data. Topics include preparing the dataset for analysis and tabulation, and recommended ways of presenting the data.

A short glossary of terms related to surveys and employment serves as a quick reference.

A series of appendices present information on the outline and tabulation plan for the report (Appendix A), a list of core indicators (Appendix B), issues related to sample size (Appendices C, D, and E), and a set of sample tables, based on SIMPOC's sample questionnaire, that can be used by countries as a basis in preparing their own tabulation plan (Appendix F).

Analysts are also encouraged to consult other manuals on household surveys and data analysis and presentation, including these:

¹ National child labour survey reports (a) identify correlates and possible causes and consequences of child labour; (b) determine the extent and nature of the problem; (c) inform the public and generate ongoing awareness regarding issues related to child labour; and (d) support the campaign against child labour at the national and international levels.

² Analysis of survey data for the SIMPOC national reports is based heavily on the observed frequencies of variables and co-movements between variables as revealed by cross-tabulations. More advanced analysis techniques – e.g. regression analysis – lie beyond the scope of this manual.

-
- UNICEF (2000): *End-decade multiple indicator survey manual*.
 - World Bank (2000): *Designing household survey questionnaires for developing countries: Lessons from 15 years of the Living Standards Measurement Study, Volumes 1, 2 and 3*.
 - United Nations Statistics Division (forthcoming): *An analysis of operating characteristics of surveys in developing and transition countries: Survey costs, design effects and non-sampling errors*.

Part I

Organizing and writing SIMPOC national child labour reports

Chapter 1: Preliminary activities

1.1. Target audience and report goals

Before organizing and writing a SIMPOC national report, the analyst needs to answer two essential questions:

- Who is the target audience?
- What are the report objectives?

The answers to these questions help to determine –

- the type and depth of analysis; and
- how the results are presented.

Target audience. The target audience includes those interested in children's rights – especially child labour issues – both at the country level and world-wide. More specifically, the report should appeal to –

- policy-makers;
- government institutions, international and non-governmental organizations, and others involved in the design and implementation of child labour interventions;
- those seeking a comprehensive overview of the current child labour situation in the greater national context; and, probably,
- researchers conducting studies of child labour and related topics.

Importance of putting oneself in the place of the reader. Even where potential readers might be acquainted with child labour topics, report writers should not assume their audience has an advanced knowledge of child labour legislation, international conventions, and other child labour issues. Nor should they assume that readers have more than a basic knowledge of statistics.

Report goals. These national reports serve two main aims:

- to present information for public awareness-raising regarding the nature and magnitude of national child labour problems and for campaigning at the national and international levels; and
- to present survey results enabling the Government, and others who work with children's rights, to identify those children's groups most in need of child labour interventions.

It is important, then, to present information on the magnitude of the child labour problem and its geographical distribution throughout the country, as well as information

regarding the characteristics of child labourers, including, among other topics, their age and sex distribution, involvement in schooling activities, the type of work in which they are engaged, and the possible hazards faced at work.

Appropriate level of statistical analysis. The SIMPOC national reports are thus meant to present comprehensive studies of the survey data, exploring relationships between variables and describing the national context within which child labour occurs. Data presentation should be clear and descriptive, with extensive use of summary and simple analytic statistics together with frequency tables and two- and three-way tabulations to show distribution of variables and co-movements between them.

As mentioned in footnote 2, above, the use of more advanced analytical techniques such as regression modelling is not required in SIMPOC national reports, so these are not discussed in this manual.³ Nevertheless, the national reports should supply a solid basis for more advanced statistical studies that other analysts might wish to pursue.

1.2. Developing a workplan

Achieving the report goals and communicating them successfully to the target audience first of all entails preparation of a detailed workplan. This plan should specify all needed activities, a timetable for their step-by-step completion, and, where applicable, the names of persons responsible for these activities.

A good workplan helps to –

- ensure that work proceeds in an orderly and timely manner (the timetable should be updated, in the light of delays, so that a valid reference plan is always available); and it helps, in the course of preparing the plan, to
- reveal which activities are dependent on others;
- which can be undertaken concurrently; and
- which can be started before the data processing and cleaning stage is completed.

1.3. Enhancing the knowledge base

Child labour is a complex and sometimes contentious issue. Child labour data should be processed by analysts who:

- have a good understanding of statistics;
- are well acquainted with the target country's socio-economic context;

³ Regression analysis, by holding other variables constant, allows a better assessment of the true relationship between dependent and independent variables. Those analysts that want to use regression tools to analyse survey data are encouraged to refer to specialized sources. These include United Nations Statistics Division (forthcoming): *An analysis of operating characteristics of surveys in developing and transition countries: Survey costs, design effects and non-sampling errors*; Deaton, Angus: *The analysis of household surveys: A microeconomic approach to development policy* (2003); and Maddala, G.S. (2001): *Introduction to econometrics* (3rd edition). For a good example of the application of regression techniques using actual SIMPOC national child labour survey data and a clear presentation and interpretation of the results from such an exercise, refer to *Child labour and education in Belize: A situational assessment and in-depth analysis* (ILO, 2003).

-
- are familiar with issues surrounding child labour and the national legislation and international Conventions on the subject; and
 - have knowledge of quantitative tools for measuring child labour and applicable software packages.

Survey data should be analysed in collaboration with staff from the national statistical office, or another institution in charge of the survey, for two reasons:

- to receive their valuable input; and, by involving local agencies in the analysis,
- to enhance their capacities to collect and process child labour data.

Discussions with key local people. Prior to analysis, the person in charge of data analysis and report writing may well wish to discuss the relevant child labour issues with staff from the Ministries of labour and education, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and other local people with a close interest in and, often, specialist knowledge of target areas. Analysts may thus

- acquire valuable background while
- sharpening their analytical skills, and
- enhancing a sense of ownership of the analysis among key national sectors, and, perhaps,
- gaining, in the process, endorsement from representatives of these sectors.

Where funds are available, some countries might even consider hiring a legal consultant to support analysis of information related to the legal context, and to help translate national legislation and international legal tools into a quantitative national measure of child labour (see section 2.7 of this manual for more details regarding this topic).

Secondary sources. In addition to discussing the topic with key persons in the country, analysts can prepare for the task by gathering and reviewing relevant publications and other available documentation such as national legislation on work and education, reviews of the state of children's welfare and rights in the country, and previous theoretical and empirical studies on child labour in the country and in other countries.

Staying abreast. Given the ongoing debates that surround certain child labour measurement issues such as those regarding light work and household chores (see section 2.7), and the evolving nature of related definitions, analysts should stay abreast of the latest empirical findings and the various prevailing arguments regarding the issues.

1.4. Producing a preliminary report

It takes considerable time to bring a national report to publication. Countries are thus advised to produce a preliminary release document for circulation among key partners and stakeholders.

The preliminary report is a concise, descriptive document summarizing the main results of the survey. Its primary purpose is to stimulate general interest in the survey findings and arouse anticipation of the forthcoming, more comprehensive, national report. The key to an effective preliminary report lies in its prompt release and its ability to convey the main results of the survey in a clear, efficient manner. The following guidelines should assist analysts in achieving both of these goals:

-
- Ideally, the preliminary report is released not more than one month after completion of data processing and cleaning activities.
 - To save time, decisions regarding choice of variables for analysis, information for tabulation and other graphical presentation, general layout, and means of distribution should be made before conclusion of the data cleaning stage. (The suggested list of indicators in Appendix B of this manual provides a good information basis for the preliminary report.)
 - The preliminary report should be approximately ten pages in length – the reader ought to be able to finish it in one sitting.
 - Conceptual, descriptive, and analytical content should all be clear and easy to follow.
 - Results should be presented descriptively, rather than analytically. Clear graphs can be a special advantage in this type of report.
 - Present only brief, general survey information, including dates, sample size, and nature of the survey population.
 - The main part of the report should focus on the incidence of child labour, its distribution according to main background variables such as age, sex, and urban/rural residency. Information regarding boys' and girls' school activities and involvement in household chores should also be mentioned.

Alternative presentation. The preliminary report may also be presented as a series of fact sheets, each dealing with a different topic, for example:

- distribution of child labourers according to key background variables;
- household characteristics;
- children's education;
- occupation;
- industry;
- time dedicated to work;
- reported reasons for working;
- exposure to hazards;
- use of tools/equipment and safety devices at work; and
- aspirations for the future among child labourers.

The information used in the preliminary report can then be used as an input for the national report.

Chapter 2: Drafting the report

Among the final steps related to a child labour survey are analyses of the information collected and preparation of the national report. Box 1 describes the content of a SIMPOC national child labour report, outlining the different chapters, sections and, subsections (see Appendix A for a complete outline of the report, including sample tabulations).

Box 1	
SIMPOC national report	
Outline	
A.	Preface
B.	Acknowledgements (optional)
C.	Table of contents (including lists of tables, boxes, and figures)
D.	Executive summary (3-5 pages)
E.	Chapter 1: Introduction
(a)	General country background
(i)	Population and human capital
1.	Demographics
2.	Health
3.	Education
(ii)	Economic structure
(b)	Justification for the survey
(i)	Global child labour situation
(ii)	National child labour situation
(iii)	Legal framework
(iv)	Institutions related to child labour
(c)	Survey objectives
(d)	Organization of the report
F.	Chapter 2: Methodology and data collection
(a)	Scope and coverage of the national child labour survey
(b)	Questionnaire
(c)	Sampling design and implementation
(d)	Pre-test
(e)	Training of interviewers and supervisors, and fieldwork
(f)	Data processing
(g)	Response rates and weighting
(h)	Reliability of estimates (design effects and standard errors)
(i)	Lessons learned and future improvements
G.	Chapter 3: Characteristics of the survey population
(a)	Population composition
(b)	Household economic characteristics
(c)	Household and education characteristics
H.	Chapter 4: Definitions related to children's activities

	(a)	Economic activity at any time in the previous 12 months
	(b)	Current economic activity
	(c)	Non-economic activity
	(d)	Child labour, etc.
I.		Chapter 5: Children's activities
	(a)	Working children
	(b)	Housekeeping activities
	(c)	School attendance
	(d)	Characteristics of work
J.		Chapter 6: Incidence and characteristics of child labour
K.		Chapter 7: Child labour and children's schooling, health, and household well-being
	(a)	Schooling
	(b)	Health
		(i) Hazardous conditions
		(ii) Injuries/illnesses
	(c)	Household well-being
L.		Chapter 8: The context of child labour
	(a)	Household size
	(b)	Household structure
	(c)	Socio-economic status
		(i) Income
		(ii) Parent's education
		(iii) Economic shocks
	(d)	Perceptions on reason child works, children's contribution to household income and children's savings
M.		Chapter 9: Conclusions and recommendations
N.		References
O.		Appendices (questionnaire, etc.)

Main report body organization

The introduction presents the country context. This helps the reader understand the environment in which boys and girls get involved in work, housekeeping, and schooling activities. The main focus, however, is on the context in which child labour occurs. The introduction also explains the reasons behind the survey and its goals, and outlines the organization of the study.

Chapter 2 deals with methodology and data collection, providing technical details regarding data collection and processing.

Chapter 3 presents the main findings related to the survey population in general.

Chapter 4 provides the main definitions needed and clarifies concepts related to children's activities referred to in the analysis.

Chapter 5 presents the survey findings regarding children’s work and involvement in household activities, and shows how these correlate with schooling. This information helps to set the context for the presentation of the child labour findings to follow.

Chapter 6 narrows the focus of analysis to “child labourers” – i.e. to those children whose work is detrimental to their schooling, health, or development. These are the children of central interest for the national report – those whose involvement in work activities contravenes national legislation or international Conventions.

Chapter 7 analyses the relationships between child labour and schooling, health, and household well-being. The assumption is that child labour interferes with children’s formal education and harms their health – even where household members perceive household well-being as benefiting from child labour, at least in the short term.

Chapter 8 examines contextual variables, mostly related to household characteristics, together with perceived reasons for engagement in child labour.

Conclusions and recommendations close the report.

Timeframe

Countries should try to produce the first draft of their national report within two months of finishing the data cleaning and processing. Thus, work on the report can begin after the fieldwork is conducted but before data cleaning and processing are completed. The following report sections are independent of any given survey results, and can be written before data processing is complete:

- Chapter 1 (Introduction)
- Chapter 2 (Methodology and data collection)
- Chapter 4 (Definitions related to children’s activities)

The **dummy tables** can also be prepared in advance, according to a tabulation plan and based on the survey questionnaire (see Appendix F for suggestions regarding dummy tables based on a sample SIMPOC questionnaire).

Drafts of the national report should be submitted for comment to all those – ideally people from a variety of disciplines – who might provide valuable comments and additional input. Expect the national report to go through numerous drafts before the report is finalized for printing and publication. While the process of reporting writing can seem long and at times tedious, each improvement to the draft helps to ensure that relevant concepts are well defined; methodologies are accurately and concisely described; definitions are clear and easily interpretable; and that tables, figures, and text provide an accurate description of the child labour situation in the country – all prerequisites of a high-quality, effective national report on child labour.

The rest of this section provides guidance in preparing each chapter and section of the SIMPOC national report, with reference, where appropriate, to some or all of the following points:

- content and purpose of the chapter or section;
- sample tables (with reference to those sample tables in Appendix F of this manual that correspond to the section; applies only to Chapters 3, 5, 6, 7, and 8 of the national report);

-
- discussion and analysis, with possible interpretations of results;
 - issues and considerations for analysis;
 - suggested sources of relevant information and references.

2.1. Preface

Content and purpose

The preface, or foreword, should consist of between two and four paragraphs written by ILO/IPEC, the national statistical office, and/or the Ministry of Labour. The preface commonly summarizes the importance, intentions, and contents of the report. The preface also makes an appropriate place to include acknowledgements, although these may instead be presented separately.

2.2. Tables

Content and purpose

The following tables and lists are included:

- Table of contents
- List of tables
- List of boxes
- List of figures
- List of acronyms (optional)

The **table of contents** presents chapter, section, and subsection in the order they appear in the report, with page numbers. It begins with the Executive summary – not those items before it – and ends with the last appendix. **Lists of tables, boxes and figures** and, if deemed necessary, a **list of acronyms** are included in, or follow, the table of contents.

Issues and considerations

The table of contents, providing as it does an outline of the entire report, should be clean, concise, and easy to read.

Be meticulous in checking the table of contents and the lists of tables, boxes, figures, and acronyms. Report authors should insure that the exact wording of headings and the page numbers listed in the table of contents are the same as those used in the report. Care should be taken to ensure that titles of tables, figures, and boxes listed in the beginning of the document are the same as those presented in the body of the text.

2.3. Executive summary

Content and purpose

The executive summary, three to five pages in length, consolidates the main points of the report. It should be concise enough that the reader understands the essence of the study, yet it must provide enough detail to accurately reflect the contents of the report.

The executive summary sometimes follows the same outline as the main report, but, in general, its primary aim is to highlight the most relevant points discussed in the study. It can focus on the interpretation of the main results and recommendations made, without much discussion of the survey methodology and other technical aspects.

Appendix B of this manual suggests a list of core indicators that summarize some of the main results of a child labour survey, and a discussion of these would provide a good abstract for this section. A reader must be able to understand the executive summary independently of the report.

If funds are available, the executive summary can provide the basis for a summary publication of the survey findings. Publishing such a synopsis of the national report promotes dissemination of results, and reaches a wider audience.

2.4. Chapter 1: Introduction

Content and purpose

The introduction to the national report contains four main elements:

- general country background;
- justification for the survey;
- objectives of the survey; and
- organization of the report in outline.

2.4.1. *General country background*

Content and purpose

This subsection should include a concise, yet comprehensive, discussion of the overall national situation with regard to demographics, health, and education, and the economy. This information provides the context in which all the survey findings will be interpreted. The report authors should recognize that many readers might be unfamiliar with a particular country, and this information will help to acquaint them with its current situation.

Issues and considerations

Choice of variables and other information to include. The analyst should choose the variables and other data to present in this subsection carefully, concentrating on information that helps to set the national context within which children live and work. The facts presented in this subsection should be linked to the analysis that follows, providing support for the conduct of the study as well as for the conclusions and recommendations.

Mandatory information. In all cases, the analyst needs to include the year of observation, clear definitions of any indicators used, and comparable combined data from different sources (the analyst needs to make sure that if data that is combined comes from different sources they are really comparable, but the use of such data is not mandatory).

Sources and references

Much of this data may have been previously collected and reported by government agencies such as the national statistical bureau; the Ministries of labour, education and health; and the central bank. Other good sources of demographic, education, health, and economic data include international sources such as the *World development report* (World

Bank), the *Demographic and health surveys* (USAID), the *Human development report* (UNDP), the International Database (US Census Bureau), *Yearbook of labour statistics* and *Key indicators of the labour market* (ILO), *Demographic yearbook* (United Nations Statistics Division), the *Statistical yearbook* (UNESCO), and the *State of the world population* (UNFPA). See box 2, below, for more information about these sources.

Box 2

Some suggested data sources for contextual country information

The *World development report* and *World development indicators*, published by the World Bank, contain information on over 500 indicators of development. Data included in the report cover over 200 countries, and topics include population and demographics, labour and employment, education, health, environment, trade, government finance, national accounts, information and technology, to name just a few. In addition, time-series data are available for many countries. Information can be accessed online at <http://www.worldbank.org/data/wdi2001/> (accessed 27 March 2002).

The *Demographic and health surveys* are funded by the US Agency for International Development (USAID), and are implemented by Macro International Inc. These surveys provide information regarding the population, health, and nutrition of women and children in developing countries. Over 100 surveys have been conducted in Africa, Asia, the Caribbean, Latin America, and the Near East. Information can be accessed online at <http://www.measuredhs.com/> (accessed 27 March 2002).

The *Human development report* has been published annually since 1990 by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). This is an independent report presenting information on a wide variety of indicators to provide a global assessment of levels of long-term well-being in over 200 countries. The report includes composite indexes such as the human development index, the gender-related development index, the gender empowerment measure, and the human poverty index, in addition to individual indicators on topics such as education, health, economic performance, trade, public spending, and technology. Information can be accessed online at <http://www.undp.org/hdro> (accessed 28 March 2002).

The *International database* of the US Census Bureau is an online database providing population estimates and projections and other statistical tables of demographic and socio-economic data for 227 countries and areas around the world. Data are available on topics such as population, infant mortality and life tables, fertility and child survivorship, migration, marital status, family planning, literacy, labour force, employment and income, ethnicity, religion, and language. In addition, trend data are available for numerous measures. Information can be accessed online at <http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/idbnew.html> (accessed 28 March 2002).

The *Yearbook of labour statistics*, first released in 1935/36, is published by the International Labour Office (ILO) and contains 31 tables on labour topics such as the economically active population, employment, unemployment, hours of work, wages, labour cost, consumer prices, occupational injuries, and strikes and lockouts. Each annual addition usually covers the preceding 10 years, and contains information for some 190 countries. Information can be accessed online at <http://laborsta.ilo.org/> (accessed 20 July 2003).

The *Demographic yearbook*, published by the United Nations Statistics Division, is currently in its fifty-first edition, presenting population information for over 233 countries and areas of the world. Data are reported for the most recent year from national statistical offices for topics such as population size, composition, fertility, mortality, nuptiality, and divorce. Data are disaggregated by urban and rural residency whenever available. Information can be accessed online at <http://www.un.org/depts/unsd/> (accessed 28 March 2002).

The *UNESCO statistical yearbook*, compiled by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, is a comprehensive collection of international data in the fields of education, science, technology, culture, and communication. It includes indicators such as enrolment ratios for primary, secondary, and tertiary levels of education; illiteracy rates; newspaper circulation; teaching staff; and research and development. Information can be accessed online at <http://www.uis.unesco.org/en/stats/stats0.htm> (accessed 28 March 2002).

The United Nations Fund for Population Activities' *State of the world* population report has been published annually since 1978. Each year, the report focuses on a topic of current and future concern relating to population, such as adolescent health and rights, reproductive and health rights, poverty, and the environment. The report also includes demographic, social and economic indicators, and tables and charts presenting data for many countries. The report is available online at www.unfpa.org (accessed 30 October 2003).

(a) Population and human capital*Content and purpose*

This subsection presents information concerning demographics and health and education among the national population, with an emphasis, where relevant, on the child population. There follow some important indicators and topics to consider:

Demographics

- population size;
- population density;
- age, sex and, urban/rural distribution;
- population growth trend; and
- birth and fertility rates.

Health

- life expectancy at birth;
- maternal mortality;
- infant and child mortality;
- immunizations;
- HIV/AIDS prevalence, if possible by sex, among the child and adult populations;
- discussion of the national health care system in terms of access, health care finance, special programmes for boys and girls, and government spending on health; and
- discussion of any relevant gender or geographical disparities in health indicators, or in access to or quality of health care received.

Education

- literacy rates;
- primary and secondary enrolment ratios;⁴
- drop-out ratios;
- grade-age distortions;

⁴ Net enrolment ratios give the number of boys and girls enrolled at a particular level, who are of an age to be enrolled at that level, as a percentage of the population of age to be enrolled at that level. Gross enrolment ratios give the number of boys and girls enrolled at a particular level as a percentage of the population of age to be enrolled at that level. The age group of the population of age to be enrolled at a particular level is determined by national regulations.

-
- school quality measures (student-teacher ratios, if considered appropriate for the country,⁵ or others);
 - physical and economic accessibility of schools;
 - prevailing sex differences in education indicators and/or gender discrimination in the educational system;
 - existing special education programmes, e.g. schooling with flexible schedules or for returning or over-age students; and
 - total government expenditure on primary and secondary education; total expenditure on education as a share of gross domestic product and of total government expenditure; share of current and capital public expenditure for education, and expenditure per pupil.⁶

Discussion and analysis

The demographic information should provide a quick overview of the size and density of the population, as well as of apparent population trends. Distribution by geographical area, sex, and age is particularly important in determining the most populated areas in the country, whether the population shows a young profile, and whether or not it is balanced according to sex.

Health- and education-related indicators reflect the national level of human development. Those variables related to children's health and education merit special discussion.

(b) The economy

Content and purpose

The national economic situation is another key topic. The economic outlook provides information on recent trends in economic growth, recent changes in the economy, and any relevant government plans, all of which may affect child labour.

Among important economic indicators and other information to consider:

- income per capita;
- main national sources of revenue and export commodities;
- chief output and employment sectors;

⁵ The student-teacher ratio might not always be considered a good measure of the quality of schooling in a country. In this respect, refer to P. Glewwe's article in the *Journal of Economic Literature*, Vol. 40, No. 2 (June 2002), "Schools and skills in developing countries: Education policies and socio-economic outcomes". A paper that discusses output-based measures of school quality is E. Hanushek and V. Lavy's "Do students care about school quality? Dropout behavior and achievement bias in developing countries", *Living Standard Measurement Study Working Paper No. 107*.

⁶ Some expenditures – especially at the local level, or where a variety of government institutions are involved, might not get reported – hence, public expenditure data cannot always be interpreted as reflecting precisely what is actually spent on education. This indicator, then, should be used only as a rough approximation of real expenditure.

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- trends in economic growth rates;
 - poverty (proportion of population living in poverty, and poverty trends);
 - income inequality (as measured by Gini coefficients, income ratios, or other);
 - discussion of significant recent changes in the economy due to economic shocks such as currency crises or recessions, or natural phenomena such as earthquakes or droughts, or other, if applicable; and
 - discussion of important economic plans, government poverty alleviation policies, significant international investments, and a general short- and medium-term economic outlook.

Focus on child welfare. Discussion of the national economic context should focus on those aspects linked to children's welfare. Poverty, for example, is often listed among the main causes of child labour. Information regarding income per capita, poverty, and income inequality give an idea of the scope and intensity of income poverty in the country.

Information about the structure of the economy and the main employment sectors can later be compared to the sectors where child labourers, according to survey findings, are most common, helping to determine whether child labour follows the general pattern of the economy.

National labour market. Given its links to child labour, a general description of the national labour market is highly relevant here. The following topics can provide useful information:

- participation rates;
- unemployment;
- visible and invisible underemployment;
- minimum and average wages;
- trends in wage rates relative to the cost of living;
- importance of the informal sector;
- employment problems faced by males and females (e.g. differential wages, different unemployment and underemployment rates); and
- government job-creation plans.

Discussion and analysis

Information on the country's labour market will provide the reader with an idea of existing opportunities for adults, and the quality of available employment.

- **High rates of unemployment and underemployment** point to serious work-related problems for adults, as do low or stagnant minimum and average wages.
- **A large informal sector** indicates problems in the quality of work available, since conditions of employment are generally assumed to be superior in the formal sector.

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- **Gender discrimination** is revealed in lower wages and higher unemployment and underemployment rates among women.
 - **Government job-creation plans** can be an indicator of official concern for improving a country's employment situation, and provide a positive outlook for adults in the labour market.

Issues and considerations

Always specify whether real or nominal data/use real where appropriate. Whenever applicable, in discussing economic data, specify whether they are in real or nominal terms, and when appropriate – e.g. when making comparisons over time – data should be in real terms.

Include currency exchange rate or US-dollar equivalent. In addition, for readers unfamiliar with a country's local currency, where sums are quoted in the local currency, include the corresponding exchange rate or the equivalent in US dollars.

2.4.2. *Justification for the survey*

This section highlights the relevance of having conducted the survey and collected the information on child labour in the country.

(a) Global and national child labour situation

Content and purpose

The second main subsection of the Introduction: (a) describes the global child labour situation;⁷ and (b) refers to any previous knowledge regarding the child labour situation specific to the country. The survey context determines which of the following elements will be needed in this subsection:

- *Need for quantitative information where none exists.* Where national child labour data has never previously been collected, discuss the consequent need for quantitative information on child labour at the national level. Explain the unique nature of the SIMPOC data collection effort, and the value of the national report:
 - the data may be used to provide baseline information on the current child labour situation; and
 - this information can inform policies and programmes designed to combat child labour, and to educate policy-makers, government officials, community organizations and the general public about the extent and nature of child labour in their country.
- *Value-added data.* If previously collected data on child labour do exist for the country, this makes an appropriate subsection to discuss the value added of the current data.
- *Value as follow-up to previous surveys.* Existing sources of statistical information include regular national household surveys, SIMPOC surveys, UNICEF multiple indicator cluster surveys (with a child labour component), World Bank Living Standards Measurement Study surveys, and ILO/IPEC rapid assessments on the worst forms of child labour. If the present survey is a follow-up survey, its value may be

⁷ See, for example, *Every child counts: New global estimates on child labour* (ILO, 2002a).

justified in terms of its allowing assessments of the progress already made in combating child labour and evaluating the usefulness of existing policies or programmes.

- *Expected limitations.* Mention must also be made of general difficulties in measuring and analysing child labour, indicating some of the general limitations and shortcomings of the present survey and the child labour data analysed and presented in the national report. An explanation of why these shortcomings exist is important and, if possible, explain how these might be overcome in future efforts.
- *Realistic goals.* Mention any information gaps that will likely remain even after completion of the present child labour survey.
- *Acknowledge participating institutions.* In all cases, discuss the roles of institutions that participated in the different steps of the survey implementation in order not to diminish their sense of ownership of the survey and the analysis.

(b) Legal framework and institutions related to child labour

Content and purpose

International legislation. In presenting the legal framework for the study, reports should discuss whether the country has ratified the major Conventions:

- UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989);
- ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138);
- ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182); and
- UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (1979), which defines, among others, rights of women regarding education, vocational training, and employment.

National legislation. Include a thorough discussion of national legislation aimed at eliminating child labour or otherwise associated with child labour, such as that commonly found in –

- the national Constitution;
- the Labour Act; and
- educational policies.

Clearly specify the minimum ages, according to national legislation, for regular work and light work (if applicable), and the ages for compulsory schooling. Include a brief evaluation of how appropriate national legislation is for protecting children from exploitation through child labour.

Relevant institutions. List and assess key national and international institutions and existing or planned programmes that play a major national role in combating child labour.

2.4.3. Survey objectives

Content and purpose

Describe the purpose of the survey, including what the country hopes to accomplish with collection and analysis of the data. See box 3 for likely key objectives.

Box 3

Possible objectives of SIMPOC child labour surveys

- (a) To establish a sustainable process for the collection of information on the character, nature, size, and reasons for child labour in the country; to determine the conditions of work and their possible effects on the health, education, and normal development of the child labourer; and to allow for the analysis of disparities among age groups, sexes, ethnic groups, and regions within countries.
- (b) To use the child labour data and information as a basis to stimulate discussions among policy-makers, researchers, and other key stakeholders.
- (c) To increase public awareness among all people concerning the national child labour situation, including the possible causes and consequences of child labour and the conditions faced by child labourers.
- (d) To provide data and information for use in future monitoring and evaluation of the child labour situation at the national and sub-national levels.
- (e) To increase coordination among agencies and organizations addressing issues related to child labour, in particular, and the well-being of children in general.

This subsection also provides an opportune place to discuss how the child labour survey fits into the country's overall plan for monitoring and assessing the child labour situation within its boundaries.

2.4.4. Report organization

Content and purpose

Provide a succinct, chapter-by-chapter description of how the report proceeds.

2.5. Chapter 2: Methodology and data collection

Content and purpose

This chapter summarizes the survey methodology and data collection exercise, addressing the following topics:

- scope and coverage of the national child labour survey;
- questionnaire;
- sampling design and implementation;
- pre-testing;
- training of interviewers and supervisors, and fieldwork;
- data processing;
- response rates and weighting;
- reliability of the estimates (design and sampling effects); and

-
- lessons learned and future improvements.

Issues and considerations

Different survey steps should be used as inputs in writing this section. Where possible, and where appropriate, writers should discuss issues with such survey staff as field supervisors and data processors, drawing on their experience.

More technical details may be included in an appendix rather than in the main text, bearing in mind that the reader may or may not be familiar with advanced statistical analysis.

Each of the topics listed above is discussed in a separate section of Chapter 2.

2.5.1. *Scope and coverage*

Content and purpose

Target population. This subsection identifies the target population.

Standalone or add-on to another survey. This subsection is also an appropriate place to say whether the study is a standalone survey or an add-on to an existing survey such as a national labour force survey, a national household survey, Demographic and Health Survey, World Bank Living Standards Measurement Study (LSMS) survey, or UNICEF Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey. With add-ons, also discuss any other modifications made to the existing survey, aside from the child activities module. In Costa Rica and El Salvador, for example, where a child activities module was added to the country's annual household survey, the lower age limit in the economic activities module was also lowered to include all those aged five years and older, to gather more detailed information regarding the economically active population starting at that age.

Pre-fieldwork publicity campaign. Where a pre-fieldwork publicity campaign was conducted to sensitize the public on the occurrence of the national child labour survey, discuss these activities, including their perceived usefulness, successes, and lessons learned from the campaign.

Discussion and analysis

In order to be able to identify the target population it might be necessary to identify both the survey population and those segments that are excluded. In the 1999 Namibia Child Activities Survey, for example, the target population included children ages 6 to 18 years living in private households, while children living in institutions such as prisons and hospitals were excluded (Ministry of Labour, December 2000). In Honduras, for the 2002 household survey, the Bay Islands and the province of Gracias a Dios were excluded due to logistical difficulties and high costs associated with reaching the small population that lives in these regions. Collective housing units such as hotels, hospitals, jails, military quarters, and convents were also excluded, as were embassies and the residences of foreign diplomats (ILO, 2003d).

2.5.2. *Questionnaire*

Content and purpose

Include a copy of the questionnaire, preferably in an appendix. The questionnaire provides an important resource for the readers, and can serve as a model for others interested in conducting child labour surveys. If the survey applies a series of questionnaire modules/segments, a brief description of the modules, including information about whom the questions were addressed to (i.e. children or the parents/guardians), provides key

information on the scope of the data collected. It is also important to mention restrictions on the eligibility of respondents. In Colombia, for example, domestic workers, regardless of their age, were not allowed to answer questions related to the activities of boys and girls in the household (ILO, 2003f).

2.5.3. Sampling design and implementation

Content and purpose

A clear and concise description of the sample design sets the context for all the results to follow. It will also be of great help to researchers wishing to conduct their own analysis of the child labour data.

Sampling design and implementation decisions must be described in detail (guidelines for designing and implementing the actual child labour survey lie beyond the scope of this manual).⁸ The subsection on sample design should include detailed information on the sampling frame. Typically, this frame is based on the most recent population census. Reports should note the source of the sampling frame, the year it was generated (and in the case of a census, if there were intercensal updates of the frame), and if it has any known deficiencies.

Next, present an account of the enumeration areas, including the size and other stratifications or segmentations such as the primary sampling units and any other further disaggregations of sampling units. It is helpful to provide a table that describes the number of enumeration areas or primary sampling units within each stratum. With the South Africa national survey report, for example, the primary sampling units were divided by province and into four area types: formal urban, informal urban, tribal, and commercial farms.

Table 1. Number of primary sampling units by province and stratum, South Africa, 1999

Province	Formal urban	Informal urban	Commercial farms	Other rural	Total
Western Cape	59	25	20	0	104
Eastern Cape	39	21	20	29	109
Northern Cape	23	10	20	6	59
Free State	35	20	20	12	87
KwaZulu-Natal	50	26	20	26	122
North West	28	20	20	18	86
Gauteng	91	45	20	0	157
Mpumalanga	25	20	20	18	83
Northern Province	22	20	20	32	94
Total	372	208	180	141	901

Source: *Survey of activities of young people: Metadata* (available online at <http://www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/simpoc/southafrica/index.htm>).

After outlining the number and stratification of units, describe in detail the step-by-step process used to select each final unit of analysis. This is very important, since this information will help to describe exactly how the population weights were calculated, allowing data-users to determine which weights to employ, where necessary, in their analyses.

⁸ An ILO/SIMPOC manual on survey methodologies is forthcoming. A manual on data processing is currently available on the ILO website, <http://www.ilo.org>.

Other aspects of sampling design should also appear in this subsection. If the child labour survey, for example, is an add-on to an existing labour force survey, and a rotation pattern is utilized, or particular sub-groups of the population are over-sampled, these features should be clearly outlined in this subsection.

2.5.4. Pre-test

Content and purpose

Information regarding the pre-test – e.g. the number of households interviewed and any lessons learned from this exercise – is very informative for others planning to conduct child labour surveys.

Difficulties encountered and their remedies, including any unforeseen challenges or unexpected results and how they were addressed, provide useful lessons learned. These should be documented. According to the Ethiopia national report, for example, during the pilot study in preparation for the 2001 standalone child labour survey, “it was observed that children under 10 years are too shy and have problems in understanding the questions. Moreover, their responses were found to be inconsistent and illogical. Thus, it was decided to limit the administration of [the children’s form] only to those children aged 10-17 years” (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, Central Statistical Authority and ILO, 2002).

2.5.5. Training of interviewers and supervisors, and fieldwork

Content and purpose

Information regarding the selection parameters for interviewers (e.g. experience, knowledge, sex, language capabilities, aptitude for interacting with children) and the methods used for training supervisors and interviewers is useful in follow-up surveys or for others planning their own, related survey.

Information on the fieldwork may include the number of male and female interviewers used to collect the data; number of male and female supervisors; number of interviewers per supervisor; field relationship between supervisors and interviewers; and actions taken to minimize errors in data collection (e.g. re-interviews by supervisors). See box 4.

Box 4

Example of a report on training

“A total of 195 enumerators and 40 team leaders drawn from CSO, MPSSLW and Ministry of Education were trained during the third level training. Training started on 14 September 1999 and ended on 17 September 1999. The third level training comprised of two days of theoretical instructions and mock interviews. A day was set aside for practice in the field using real respondents and another day for discussions of fieldwork experiences. At the end of the training, trainees were given a test to establish their understanding of the concepts and definitions in the training manual covered during training sessions. During the training period, communication between the three centres was maintained in order to ensure uniformity in training” (CSO and MPSSLW, Page 12).

Timing issues. Explain any timing issues that might have affected the results – e.g. the beginning or end of a particular harvesting season or rainy season, or a natural disaster, or failure to reach some areas because of safety or other concerns.

This subsection should also include any other pertinent fieldwork information, including how long the data collection took. While non-sampling error is difficult to quantify, taken together, the above information can help to provide insights into pertinent areas that may affect the non-sampling error of the survey.

2.5.6. Data processing

Content and purpose

Data processing – an integral part of the overall survey effort – tends to receive insufficient attention in discussions of data collection and survey activities. But data processing affects the quality of the datasets, and should be perceived as being as important as questionnaire design, sampling design, and data analysis.⁹

Data entry methods. National reports should include information on methods of data entry used – e.g. “double entry” and “intelligent data entry” – and on the software programmes chosen for use in entering and cleaning the data. The Central Statistical Office (CSO) in Zambia and the National Statistics Office in the Philippines, for example, used the US Census Bureau’s Integrated Microcomputer Processing System (IMPS) for all of their child labour survey data entry. The Zambia CSO also used the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) for all of the data cleaning.

Imputation techniques. This subsection should also include discussion of any imputation techniques used, for example, in cases where there are relatively high proportions of missing values for variables such as for birth date or household income. The discussion must describe how the results might be affected by the imputations.

Consistency or logic checks. Description of consistency or logic checks used to improve the data quality also belong in this subsection.

2.5.7. Response rates and weighting

Content and purpose

The response rates show the fraction of the sample that responded, and provide important information on the quality of the survey and the extent to which the results may be generalized accurately to the population of interest.

Response rates can be shown at various stages of the sample selection process. Household and person or child-level response rates should be presented in all reports, if possible by sex, to allow the detection of patterns in reaching boys/men and girls/women for interviews.

Methods of calculating sample weights. National report authors should also provide, where applicable, a detailed description of the formulae and methods used in calculating the sample weights both for households and persons.

Adjustments to sampling weights. Any adjustments to the sampling weights for under- or over-coverage or non-response, for example, should be properly noted. In the Nicaragua child labour survey, for instance, the provinces in the Atlantic region were statistically represented, but had a low sampling rate due to their low population density and the inaccessibility of certain communities that live there. On the other hand, low-income households in the urban regions were over-sampled. This under- and over-sampling was compensated for with adjustments to the sample weights, as explained in the national report (ILO, 2003e).

⁹ For more information on data processing, see the ILO/SIMPOC manual: *Child labour survey data processing and storage of electronic files: A practical guide* (Geneva, ILO, 2002).

Sources and references

- Couper, M.; De Leeuw, E. “Nonresponse in cross-cultural and cross national surveys”, in Harkness, J.; van de Vijver, F.; Mohler, P. (2000), *Cross-cultural survey methods* (New York, Wiley).
- American Association for Public Opinion Research. Standard definitions: *Final dispositions of case codes and outcome rates for surveys*. Available online at: http://www.aapor.org/default.asp?page=survey_methods/standards_and_best_practices/standard_definitions .
- Hussmans, R.; Mehran, F.; Verma, V. (1990). *Surveys of economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment: An ILO manual on concepts and methods*.
- ILO/IPEC. Forthcoming. *Child labour statistics: Methodologies for data collection through surveys*.

2.5.8. Reliability of the estimates (design and sampling effects)

Content and purpose

This subsection commonly includes discussion of the reliability of estimates based on the national survey data.

Non-sampling and sampling errors both affect the reliability of sample survey-based estimates.

Non-sampling errors are errors that typically, but not necessarily, stem from the data collection and data processing phases, including

- inability to obtain information about all persons in the sample;
- differences in the interpretation of questions;
- inability or unwillingness of respondents to provide correct information;
- inability of respondents to recall information;
- errors made in collecting and processing the data;
- errors made in estimating values for missing data;
- and failure to represent all sample households and all persons within sample households (undercoverage).

Examples. Household surveys might underestimate the girls’ participation rate, for example, because respondents, for cultural reasons, sometimes do not consider girls’ economic activities as work, thus reporting a girl as inactive when she is actually economically active. One study, for example, which evaluated, through re-interviews, the work of the interviewers used for data collection in the Current Population Survey conducted by the US Department of Labor to measure employment and unemployment in the United States, found that “the data published from the CPS are subject to moderate systematic biases.” (US Department of Labor, 2001)

Sampling error, in general, is more specific to the sample design, and refers to the uncertainty that arises from the chance factors affecting selection of particular units in the sample.

Sampling errors are partly a function of the sample design used and the estimation method chosen. They can be measured, for a given estimate, by the standard error. According to Hussmans, Mehran, and Verma (1990), “it is widely recognized as good practice for survey results to be accompanied by detailed information on the sampling variability of the survey estimates, and for interpretation of the results to take this variability into account” (page 323).

It is too time-consuming to calculate and too cumbersome, for purposes of presentation, to show the standard errors for every estimate. But some discussion and presentation of standard errors for key indicators is extremely useful. This might include, for example, the presentation of standards errors for both the total population and population subgroups such as levels and proportions of children working or children’s school attendance (possibly for specific age groups or broken down by sex). Box 5 shows an example of presenting standard errors, confidence intervals, and coefficient of variation (CV), another measure of dispersion, for key variables in the 2002 Costa Rica Multiple Purpose Household Survey.

Box 5

Table 2. Variance calculations of selected variables from the Multiple Purpose Household Survey, Costa Rica, 2002

Variable	Estimate	Standard error	C.V.(%)	95% confidence interval		Number of observations
				Lower	Upper	
Total population	3 997 883	83.519	2.09	3 834 186	4 161 580	44 138
Labour force	1 695 018	34.37	2.03	1 627 653	1 762 383	18 716
Employed	1 586 491	32.074	2.02	1 523 625	1 649 357	17 044
Unemployed	108 527	5.503	5.07	97 741	119 313	1 132
Inactive	1 365 809	27.62	2.02	1 311 675	1 419 943	15 076
Persons below 12 years of age	937 056	29.527	3.15	879 182	994 935	10 886
Total households						
Poor	20.6	0.6	3.13	19.3	21.9	2 156
With unsatisfied basic needs	14.9	0.5	3.3	14.0	15.9	1 502
In extreme poverty	5.7	0.3	5.83	5.0	6.3	654
Non-poor	79.4	0.6	0.81	78.1	80.7	7 188
Urban households						
Poor	17.3	0.8	4.73	15.7	18.9	726
With unsatisfied basic needs	13.8	0.7	5.00	12.4	15.1	576
In extreme poverty	3.5	0.3	9.66	2.9	4.2	150
Non-poor	82.7	0.8	0.99	81.1	84.3	3 159
Rural households						
Poor	25.4	1.0	3.92	23.4	27.3	1 430
With unsatisfied basic needs	16.6	0.7	3.98	15.3	17.9	926

In extreme poverty	8.8	0.6	6.98	7.6	10.0	504
Non-poor	74.6	1.0	1.33	72.7	76.6	4 029
Source: ILO, 2003b						

Some national statistical offices might have their own criteria for presenting estimates and their standard errors and confidence intervals. Colombia's National Administrative Department for Statistics (DANE), for example, has adopted the following general criteria for evaluating the quality of information:

Table 3. Criteria for assessing the quality of data in Colombia

CV	Quality
Less than 5 per cent	Good
Between 5 per cent and 10 per cent	Acceptable
Between 10 per cent and 15 per cent	Poor
Over 15 per cent	Not desirable
Source: ILO, 2003f..	

For estimates with a coefficient of variation (CV) greater than 10 per cent, DANE recommends presenting the estimate along with its confidence interval. The number of boys and girls seeking work in the city of Bogotá, for example, was estimated at 2.3 per cent, but with a coefficient of variance of 21 per cent. In this case, then, due to the "not desirable" quality of the estimate, the 95 per cent confidence interval was generated, and the number of boys and girls seeking work in the city is presented as being between 1.4 per cent and 3.2 per cent.

The design effect (*deff*) can also be extremely useful in measuring the overall effect of the sample design on the sampling variability. This describes the amount with which the variance of a sample design is inflated compared to the variance if the sample were a simple random sample. It can be defined as the "ratio of the sampling variance of the design to the sampling variance, assuming a simple random sample" (G.T. Henry, 1990). The design effect is calculated using the following formula:

$$deff = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_o^2} \text{ where}$$

- σ^2 = the variance of an estimate based on the current sample design and
- σ_o^2 = the variance of an estimate assuming a simple random sample

A design effect of 1.0 indicates that the sampling design employed is as efficient as a simple random sample, while a design effect of greater than 1.0 indicates the increase in the sampling error based on the current more complex and less efficient design.

Computer software programs can aid in the calculation of variances and design effects. The Demographic and Health Surveys use the Integrated System for Survey Analysis (ISSA), which allows for the computation of standard errors of complex survey designs. The statistical software packages STATA and SUDAAN also calculate design effects and standard errors based on complex survey designs.

This subsection can be concluded with an overall assessment of the quality and reliability of the data.

Issues and considerations

Document all fieldwork steps carefully. Where interviewers or supervisors submitted reports after the fieldwork, or where there was a post-data collection debriefing, these can serve as valuable elements in the qualitative evaluation of the information, possibly providing an idea of the non-sampling error. This again highlights the need for careful documentation of all steps of the fieldwork.

Sources and references

For a more thorough discussion of standard errors, see R. Hussmans; F. Mehran; V. Verma (1990): *Surveys of economically active population, employment, unemployment and underemployment: An ILO manual on concepts and methods*. For examples of countries that provide information for users to calculate approximate standard errors, see any of the following publications: Professor David Stoker's "Technical note on the estimation and the use of standard errors" (June 2001); US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Employment and earnings* (2001); Statistics Canada (February 2001).

2.5.9. *Lessons learned and future improvements*

Content and purpose

Follow-up surveys are always highly desirable. Besides providing up-to-date data on child labour, they help to identify any child labour changes or trends at the national and sub-national levels and in the conditions in which girl and boy labourers work. This is key information for monitoring national progress, and provides leverage for encouraging policy-makers and other key stakeholders to focus their attention and resources on child labour issues.

One way of increasing the likelihood of a follow-up survey is to make it an integral part of an overall national information system, highlighting its value for many uses. Identifying lessons learned, and suggesting future improvements, provides key information for

- future surveys within the country; and
- other countries or organizations interested in conducting their own child labour survey.

In Zimbabwe, for example, the 1999 National Child Labour Survey found that most children younger than nine years of age had a difficult time understanding and responding logically to some of the questions without the help of parents or guardians. In addition, the term "child labour survey" was often misunderstood, and created suspicions among parents and employers regarding survey objectives. During implementation, therefore, the survey was sometimes instead referred to as the "child activity survey". This type of information can prove useful when preparing follow-up surveys.

Methodological limitations. An overall discussion of methodological limitations should also be included, and suggestions offered on how to overcome these in future efforts.

2.6. Chapter 3: Characteristics of the survey population

Content and purpose

This subsection contains simple demographic and economic information for the target population, especially regarding girls and boys aged 5-17 years. It further contextualizes the report for the reader, previewing focuses to come on working children (Chapter 5), children that perform household chores (Chapter 5) and, most importantly, child labourers (Chapters 6, 7, and 8).

This subsection should include information regarding

- population composition;
- household economic information; and
- household and educational characteristics.

2.6.1. Population composition

Content and purpose

This subsection provides general demographic information on the survey population, including information on the age and sex structure of the population and its regional or provincial and urban/rural distribution.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

- Total population by sex, by age group (table 1).
- Population by urban/rural residency and sex, by age group (table 2).
- Population of children 0 to 17 years by sex, by single years of age (table 3).
- Population by urban/rural residency and sex, by province/region, and sex ratios by urban/rural residency, by province/region (table 4).

Discussion and analysis

Discussions might include:

- whether or not the population is relatively young (information easily determined through a population pyramid);
- degree of urbanization in the country, as revealed by the proportion of people in the country that reside in urban areas;
- sex balance as revealed by sex ratios;
- identification of the most populated urban and rural parts of the country; and
- apparent differences in the relative size or sex composition of the child population between urban and rural areas and regions/provinces.

2.6.2. Household economic characteristics

Content and purpose

This subsection should contribute to a better understanding of the overall national economic situation of households and people, especially boys and girls. This is particularly useful for putting the national child labour situation into context, since many studies have pointed to a relationship between child labour and poverty.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

- Number and per cent of households by income quintile, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 5).
- Number and per cent of female-headed households ¹⁰ by income quintile, province/region and urban/rural residency (table 6).
- Number and per cent of households by main activity from which households derive income, by region and urban/rural residency (table 7).
- Per cent of households by asset ownership, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 8).
- Average number of assets and per cent of households by cumulative number of assets, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 9).
- Average number of assets and per cent of households with children with cumulative number of assets, by region and urban/rural residency (table 10).
- Number and per cent of households by type of housing tenure, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 11).

Discussion and analysis

This subsection aims to assess socio-economic well-being among national households. Discussions should focus on whether –

- larger proportions of households with children are found in the lower-income quintiles;
- their main source of income can be considered relatively stable;
- asset ownership is high or low; and
- large proportions of households own a house or not, which might indicate a higher socio-economic standing.

Note any regional differences. Socio-economic status usually varies within countries, and it is important to highlight any regional differences.

The distribution of female-headed households by quintiles should be compared to that of all households, to determine if they are more affected by poverty.

¹⁰ A female-headed household is one where a woman is identified as head of the household (or reference person) at the interview. It should be kept in mind that the identification of the head of household is often criticized as being gender-biased, since people tend to identify males as heads, even where a female provides more economic support, takes most of the important decisions, etc.

Issues and considerations

Under-reporting income. Income is frequently under-reported in surveys, since people often do not wish to share that information with interviewers. The reported information on income is also sometimes limited to income from employment or wage income, and fails to include income from other sources such as from rent, dividends, or interest. In addition, in developing countries – especially in rural areas, given that many households rely in part or wholly on subsistence agriculture or seasonal agriculture, which can be only sporadic – economic status can be particularly difficult to measure through reported income.

The reader should be presented with a wide range of measures that help to identify the economic well-being of a household. This includes information on

- the main household sources of income;
- spending;
- ownership of assets such as cars, bicycles, and televisions; and
- housing type and tenure.

Other limitations. (a) Assets are associated with varying costs, and this is not taken into consideration in making the direct aggregations and comparisons of asset ownership. (b) The reliability of information on housing tenure has also been questioned, especially in countries where squatting is common, and land ownership disputes are common. Interviewers rarely ask to see ownership titles at interviews.

Applying a “wealth index”. A more advanced option is to present household economic status through a wealth index (see box 6 for instructions on the construction of a wealth index using the survey data). Once computed, the wealth index can be used in comparisons and cross-tabulations as an alternative measure of household economic status to the income and assets variables.

For example, to show variations in child labour according to economic status of households, households can be grouped into quintiles or deciles according to the wealth index, and the incidence of child labour is then computed for each of the groups. Tables showing the incidence and distribution of child labour according to the different background variables and the wealth index would replace sample tables 5 and 6 above, and tables 7 to 11 would then be unnecessary. Similarly, the wealth index could replace the income and asset variables in charts.

Box 6

Assessing household socio-economic status

Income information obtained through household surveys is often suspect, since people tend to under-report their income to interviewers. (a) In the absence of complete or reliable information on income, consumption expenditure data, if available, can provide an acceptable approximation of household socio-economic status, even though information on prices would be required to compose a more complete picture of well-being. (b) Other helpful tools for assessing household socio-economic status are asset or wealth indexes – recent research suggests a very close relationship between household assets and consumption (Filmer and Pritchett, 1998 and others). These indexes are constructed from information such as dwelling characteristics (construction materials, number of rooms), access to electricity, water and sanitation, and ownership of certain consumer durables, e.g. radios, televisions, refrigerators, bicycles, and cars.

To construct these proxy indicators of wealth or socio-economic status, one may use the “principal component” method to aggregate the information on asset ownership and housing characteristics into a single factor (see Filmer and Pritchett, 1998). Principal component analysis (PCA) is a data reduction technique that allows the reduction of the number of variables to a single factor that best summarizes or captures, through linear combinations of the original set, the “essence” of the individual variables and the variation in the original dataset. The index takes the following form:

$$\text{Index} = a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + a_3X_3 + \dots + a_nX_n$$

where the X_i 's are the n variables in the original dataset, or derived from them, that will be combined to construct the index, and the a_i 's are the weights (principal component coefficients) to be attached to each of the corresponding variables, and which will be determined from the data.

The first thing to do when computing the wealth index is to choose the variables that will be combined to assess wealth. Following what has previously been done to construct a wealth index, and based on the variables in SIMPOC's sample questionnaire, the following list of variables is suggested, but it could be adapted on a case-by-case basis to fit the information collected in given surveys:

- ownership of radio (binary);
- ownership of television (binary);
- ownership of refrigerator (binary)
- ownership of bicycle (binary);
- ownership of motorcycle (binary);
- ownership of car (binary);
- number of persons per sleeping room in the dwelling (quantitative);
- access to electricity (binary);
- main source of drinking water (categorical: pipe-borne inside house/pipe-borne outside house/tanker service/well/river/stream/bore-hole/dug out/pond/river);
- main type of toilet facility (categorical: flush to sewage system or septic tank/pour flush latrine (water seal type)/improved pit latrine (e.g. VIP/traditional pit latrine/open pit /bucket/other);
- main source of fuel (categorical: gas/electricity/solar/kerosene/wood/charcoal/other).

Categorical variables should preferably be ordinal rather than nominal, and they enter the equation as a set of dummy variables.

The linear combination that explains the most variation is called the first principal component, and it is this first principal component that is customarily used as a wealth index. Analysts should take care to test the derived index by comparing it with other variables such as consumption expenditure or occupational status. Higher index values can be expected to be correlated with higher consumption expenditures and with certain occupational statuses, and verifying the presence of these relationships can be a good way of testing the appropriateness of the derived index.

Principal components can easily be computed using statistical software packages. For example, in SPSS, under *Analyze*, with the *Factor* option in *Data Reduction*, one can choose the *Principal Component Method for Extraction* using the *Correlation Matrix* to compute the first principal component, which can then be used as a proxy indicator of socio-economic status throughout the analysis as explained above. See the sub-regional child labour report for Central America and the Dominican Republic for an example of computing a wealth index with data from eight SIMPOC surveys (ILO 2004a).

2.6.3. Household and educational characteristics

Content and purpose

This subsection describes the composition and structure of households, including information regarding

- sex of the head of household (or reference person);
- household size;
- number of children and number of adults of working age in the household;
- educational characteristics of household members; and
- distribution by sex of working members in each household.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

- Average household size and per cent of households by size, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 12).
- Per cent distribution of households by number of children, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 13).
- Population 5 years of age and more, by highest level of school completed, by age group and sex (table 14).
- Average number of years of school completed of population 10 years and more, by urban/rural residency and sex, by age group (table 15).
- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years currently attending school by sex, by age (table 16).

Discussion and analysis

This subsection provides a general description of households and their members, and it must highlight

- any visible differences in household size and distribution of number of children between urban and rural areas and regions;
- whether the population shows high or limited levels of schooling;
- any visible differences in educational attainment related to sex, age group, or location of residence; and
- children's school attendance (this is very important, since it will serve as an essential variable throughout the analysis of children's activities and child labour).

Issues and considerations

Needed adjustment. In different countries, compulsory schooling starts at different ages (4, 5 or 6 years, or other), so adjustments need to be made to include only those of schooling age in the related analysis.

2.7. Chapter 4: Definitions related to children's activities

Content and purpose

This chapter provides an important key to having readers understand the issues and interpret the results presented in the national report – it must therefore be drafted as clearly as possible. In general terms, the chapter –

- presents the legal definitions of key concepts relating to children's activities; and
- discusses the major differences between these and the statistical measures used in the report based on the survey results.

Legal definitions are sometimes vague and often complex, comprising conditional clauses and statutes that resist full capture by statistical measures. Report writers should warn the reader, then, and explain differences between (a) legal definitions of concepts such as “light work” and “hazardous work” and (b) the quantitative measures derived to approximate them. The report should also clearly outline (a) the ongoing debate surrounding many of these concepts and (b) the practical difficulties in measuring child labour numerically.

The chapter includes conceptual distinctions such as

- economic activity *versus* non-economic activity;
- current work *versus* work at any time during the previous 12 months; and
- housekeeping activities *versus* child labour *versus* hazardous work.

Quantitative measurement of concepts such as “child labour” and “hazardous work” will differ in the light of different national legislation. This manual therefore cannot provide standard definitions for them. Basic concepts of “current work” and “work at any point in the previous 12 months”, as well as “economic” and “non-economic activity” have been defined by the ILO,¹¹ and are briefly described below, among other concepts, to help ground the definitions presented in the report. It is necessary, however, to ensure that these concepts and definitions are the same as those used in the target country's labour force statistics and publications.

Economically active population. According to the ILO (2000a), the economically active population “comprises all persons of either sex who furnish the supply of labour for the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations systems of national accounts and balances during a specified time-reference period.”

The definition of economic activity therefore includes –

- those in paid employment (paid in cash or in kind);
- self-employed persons;
- own-account workers;
- apprentices who receive payment in cash or in kind;

¹¹ In this respect, see the resolutions concerning statistics regarding the economically active population, employment, and unemployment and underemployment adopted by the Thirteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (Oct. 1982).

-
- unpaid family workers who consume or produce economic goods or services for their own household consumption; and
 - the unemployed.

Those excluded from the definition. This definition excludes domestic chores performed in the own household and activities that are part of schooling.

Working children. For analytical purposes, working with the child labour survey data in the national report, the quantitative measure of working children will comprise those children who declare that they worked during the reference period in the production of economic goods and services as defined by the United Nations systems of national accounts (SNA) and balances. This definition encompasses those included in the bulleted points directly above, except for “unemployed”.

Those excluded from the definition. The above definition excludes those who are without work but are seeking work.

“*Work*”. Work may be defined according to the wording of questions in the child labour questionnaire. If appropriate wording is used in the survey, for example, boys and girls may be considered working if they

- participated in any work, including domestic work, for someone who is not a member of their own household; or
- performed any family work, e.g. on a family farm or business.

Issues and considerations

“Working children” definitions remain controversial. This definition of working children is contentious, and is often debated, since it restricts the group of working children to those performing SNA activities, and excludes such activities as household chores in the own home, which can sometimes be as harmful as or even more harmful than performance of economic activities.

Children seeking work. Child labour surveys often fail to include questions regarding willingness to work and job-seeking activities among inactive children.

A measure of those children seeking work might provide an idea of those children “at high risk” of becoming workers because they actually declare they are available for work if offered. In Panama, the results of the 2000 child labour survey revealed that, whereas 6.3 per cent of boys and girls aged 5 to 17 years in the country were actually working, another 1.3 per cent of the total of children did not work, but declared they were willing and able to work and actively looking for work – i.e. they were not working, but were probably at considerable risk of becoming workers (ILO, 2003g). If data on this group of girls and boys seeking work are collected in a country survey, a simple and brief description of the group’s main characteristics should be included in the report, thereby providing a more complete picture of the total child labour supply. The group of working children and children seeking work do not need to be combined for the analysis.

Issues and considerations

A danger of underestimation. This measure of work-seeking children should be interpreted with care, however. Many boys and girls likely enter work activities directly from economic inactivity – bypassing any stage of actively seeking work – suggesting that this measure is underestimating the real population of children at risk of becoming workers.

Inappropriate use of the measure. Neither should this measure of work-seeking children be added to the adult unemployment rate to yield a national unemployment rate – at their age, many of these boys and girls should not even be seeking work.

Youth unemployment is a serious policy concern in both developed and developing countries:

- on the one hand, high youth unemployment undermines future labour productivity and national economic development, since youth remain unemployed, poorly skilled, and inexperienced;
- on the other hand, youth involved in hazardous work or other worst forms of child labour, according to ILO Convention No. 182, should be immediately removed and deterred from those activities.

Just because boys and girls are seeking jobs, we should not try to generate work for them without regard for its type. But many youth seeking work – e.g. those older than 14 or 15 years – might provide a good indicator of a national need for improved and more relevant vocational training.

“Current economic activity” and “economic activity at some point in the previous 12 months”. The ILO defines the currently active population in the following manner (2000a):

- The labour force or “currently active population” comprises all persons who fulfil the requirements for inclusion among the employed or the unemployed.

Child labour surveys usually also include questions regarding children who were economically active at some point during the 12 months prior to the survey. With either group of economically active children, for purposes of analysis, children are considered workers if they declare they have worked, regardless of whether or not they were paid in cash or in kind for their activities.

In surveying working children, it may be necessary to employ only these two conceptions of work:

- those who worked in the previous year, or the 12 months, preceding the survey, irrespective of how long they worked during the year; and
- those who are currently working or who have worked at least one hour in the previous seven days.

Discussion and analysis

Value of the broader measure. The broader measure of “work at some point in the previous 12 months” is helpful in estimating how many children have been involved in some form of work over the previous year, thus capturing

- important seasonal work flows; and, potentially,
- those children who work only during school holidays or sporadically as demanded by family needs; and
- a larger range of children who, as is often the case, are involved in work only intermittently.

Value of the narrower measure. The measure of current work activity – while generally lower than the measure of work at any time during the previous 12 months – is useful in determining regular work patterns among children. In addition, more in-depth questions concerning work conditions (e.g. hours of work, time of day activities were performed, payment) can be posed to those children who reported working in the previous week – children and even parents/guardians often find it much easier to remember activities in which they are currently involved than those in which they were involved months before. Currently working children, therefore, can be subjected to more thorough analysis.

The captured numbers of one category or another may differ considerably. In part, this is because most working children, in many countries, are in agriculture, a highly seasonal industry. Another large proportion of children work only during school holidays or intermittently. For example, the 2000 Child and Adolescent Labour Survey in Nicaragua captured information on approximately 290,500 children that worked at some point in the 12 months preceding the survey, as opposed to only about 253,100 currently working children (ILO, 2003e).

Report on both categories. It is preferable to use the currently working population of boys and girls for thorough analyses of working children, but the population of children that worked at some point in the 12 months preceding the survey is also of interest, and a section of the report should present a brief related analysis (see Subsection 2.8.1], in this manual).

A short comparison of summary statistics for both groups can highlight interesting differences and similarities.

Not economically active. The ILO (2000a) defines the non- “not economically active” population as “all persons, irrespective of age, including those below the age specified for measuring the economically active population who are not ‘economically active’”.

Non-economic activities. People, whether they are economically active or not, might be involved in non-economic activities. Domestic or personal services provided by unpaid members of the household – activities that fall outside the boundary set by the UN system of national accounts – include these:

- housekeeping activities such as cleaning, decorating, preparing and serving meals;
- caring for children, invalid, or old people in the own home; and
- making small repairs in one’s own house.

The non-economically active population is particularly important when analysing the activities of boys and girls, since it comprises persons who work at home in domestic activities, the majority of whom are often girls.

Issues and considerations

Analysis of the non-economic activities of boys and girls using the survey data is often reduced to investigating their involvement in household chores, since information on other non-economic activities is often not collected.

These groups of child labourers are of more analytical interest than the broader group of working children in general.

“**Child labour**” is prohibited by country legislation and international Conventions.

The ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) and ILO Convention on the Worst Forms of Child Labour, 1999 (No. 182), and their corresponding Recommendations Nos. 146 and 190, respectively, serve as the primary guide for defining child labour.

The ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), provides the most comprehensive and authoritative international definition of minimum age for admission to employment or work and establishes the criteria that work must not be harmful to a child’s health, development or schooling. It obliges countries to set a minimum age for employment, stipulating that this age should not be less than the age for completing compulsory schooling and, at the very least, it should not be less than 15 years of age.

The Convention does allow for some flexibility, however. Countries with less developed economic or educational infrastructure may set the minimum age at 14 years. The Convention also allows countries to set a minimum age for “light work” at 12 or 13 years, depending on whether the minimum age for admission into regular employment was set at 14 or 15.

“**Light work**” is defined in the Convention as 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” (ILO, 1973a).

“**The worst forms of child labour**”, according to ILO Convention No. 182, include:

- all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery;
- forced and compulsory labour;
- commercial sexual exploitation;
- illicit activities; and
- hazardous work.

“**Hazardous work**” refers to work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is performed, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (ILO, 2002d, page 20). Recommendation No. 190 provides more detailed guidance to countries that seek to define hazardous work within their own borders. Recommendation No. 190 specifies that particular consideration should to be given to:

- work that exposes children to physical, psychological, or sexual abuse;
- work underground, under water, at dangerous heights, and in confined spaces;
- work with dangerous machinery, equipment, and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads;

- work in an unhealthy environment which may, for example, expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health; and
- work under particularly difficult conditions such as work for long hours or during the night, or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer.

Constraints of national legislation. Light work and hazardous work have to be defined within constraints of national legislation. The survey data will generally include as “child labourers” those girls and boys who: (a) work, during the reference week, for pay in cash or in kind; (b) work for the family or as a domestic worker without pay; and (c) meet one of the following conditions:

- is below the national legal minimum age for the industry or type of work performed;
- works excessive hours or more than the maximum established in the legislation for the age, industry or type of work;
- works in one of the worst forms;
- works in unsafe conditions.

In defining hazardous work and child labour quantitatively, analysts should begin by consulting their own country’s legislation regarding the work and schooling of children, aided by the texts of ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 and their corresponding Recommendations Nos. 146 and 190.

Box 7

Arriving at a quantitative measure of child labour: Some examples

Countries should always refer to their relevant national legislation, including the Constitution and the Labour Act, for guidance in defining child labour and hazardous work for purposes of the survey (ILO, 1996). In all cases, industries, occupations, and activities hazardous for adults in a county should be considered at least as hazardous for girls and boys, and can serve as a starting point for determining hazardous work for children. In general, the most common industries, occupations, or activities deemed hazardous for girls and boys, and therefore prohibited according to national legislation, include mining, maritime work, work with machinery in motion, work involving heavy weights and loads, construction and demolition work, transportation, and entertainment.

In El Salvador, the Labour Act explicitly prohibits the work of children at night, underground, under water, with explosive materials or flammable substances, in construction and demolition, entailing a danger of poisoning from toxic substances or emissions of deleterious gases or vapours, or damaging to the morals or good habits of children, e.g. in casinos, bars, theatres, cabarets, or printing presses of pornographic texts or images. A statistical measure of hazardous work in this country would require identifying those industries and occupations that meet any of the above descriptions.

For the global estimate on child labour, assuming a minimum age for light work of 12 years and a minimum age for admission into regular employment of 15 years, the ILO estimates the incidence of child labour in the world using a measure that includes (a) all children between the ages of 5 and 11 engaged in any economic activity; (b) all working children aged between 12 and 14 years except those in light work; and (c) all children aged 15 to 17 years in hazardous work and the unconditional worst forms of child labour (ILO, 2002a). Light work is measured as work performed by girls and boys above the age of 11 years that is not hazardous, and is not performed for more than 14 hours per week (on average two hours per day). Hazardous work, on the other hand, includes work performed for more than 43 hours per week and work in mining and construction, as well as selected occupations frequently considered hazardous in many countries.

A similar measure was used in Portugal, based on its national legislation (Sistema de Informação Estatística sobre Trabalho Infantil, 2002). In this case, data from the October 2001 *Social characterization of school-age children and their families* survey was used to estimate the number of working children and the

narrower category of child labourers. The group of working children comprised those in productive activities, paid or not, performed for at least one hour during the reference week. Child labour excluded those aged 12 years and older that worked fewer than 15 hours per week in light work, and those aged 15 and older in regular work, i.e. work between 15 and 35 hours per week and not considered hazardous according to the tasks involved or the workplace or environment in which they were performed.

Issues and considerations

Even though, conceptually, child labour should not be considered a subset of SNA work performed by children, with household surveys – where data on the unconditional worst forms of child labour is unlikely to be collected – the measure of child labour will turn out to be a subset of the measure of SNA work performed by children.

Another much-debated aspect of such a measure of child labour is the exclusion of housekeeping activities from the definition. In analysing the data for the national report, then, child labourers are the subset of working children whose work is harmful to their health, schooling, or development.

Narrowing the group targeted for analysis from working children to child labourers is also problematic due to

- vagueness often found in national legislation;
- lack of adequate scientific research and findings to support the establishment of standard working-hour thresholds for light and regular work; and
- lack of a standard definition of hazardous occupations and industries.

Evolving nature of statistical measures of child labour. Ongoing research is expected to provide guidance on these issues, providing more accurate quantitative measures of child labour in the future. For now, the statistical measure of child labour should be seen as an evolving measure, one that will continue to change as further knowledge becomes available to guide the determination of hazardous occupations and industries and hour thresholds for light and regular work.

Need for personal judgements. (a) Countries ratifying Convention No. 182 are obliged to define those industries and occupations considered hazardous. Many countries, however, still have not explicitly done so. This poses problems for analysts trying to measure child labour, and requires their personal judgement in adopting the relevant definitions; this highlights the need for analysts to include, in their research and in their reports, explicit explanations of any measure of hazardous work that they derive. (b) The same applies to light work, where many countries do not make provision for this concept in their legislation.

2.8. Chapter 5: Children's activities

Content and purpose

This chapter presents an overview of the activities in which children take part. The following section of the report describes the involvement of boys and girls in work, household activities, and schooling activities, including the following topics:

- work in the reference week and the 12 months prior to the survey;
- housekeeping activities;
- school attendance of children; and

- characteristics of work.

The group targeted for analysis in this chapter comprises only children, with an emphasis on working children and those devoting a minimum amount of time to housekeeping activities. This information should yield an idea of what children in the country do and how they combine activities, and sets the context for the analysis of the narrower group of child labourers, the target group for analysis in Chapters 6, 7, and 8.

Issues and considerations

“Idle” children. The data will most probably include the group of children that neither work nor attend school, and in certain countries this group could be quite large. Some of these boys and girls may have reported this state of idleness as due to disability or other reasons, but it is likely that at least some of these children actually do work, yet appear as “idle” in the data. This reported group of idle children presents a problem for the analysis of children’s activities, and ongoing research aims to shed some light on the real activities of these boys and girls.

Where the group of reported idle children is not insignificant in number, include a brief description of its main characteristics, focusing on distribution by main background variables, i.e. age group, sex, location of residence, and province/region. Involvement in housekeeping activities is also of interest for the analysis.

Tabulating certain disaggregated data. When tabulating data regarding children’s activities in this chapter, a certain type of disaggregation, where applicable, can provide interesting information. The procedure is based on groups comprised of combinations from the choices of “work/not work” and “attend school/not attend school” – i.e. “work and attend school”, “work only”, “attend school only”, and “neither work nor attend school”. The following table, which appeared in the El Salvador national report (ILO, 2003c), shows the distribution of the 5 to 17-year-old population by age group according to these categories. Note: The 17.6 per cent of boys and girls that reportedly neither work nor attend school is definitely not insignificant in magnitude, and warrants further attention in the analysis.

Table 4. Distribution of children aged 5 to 17 by age group, by type of activity, El Salvador, 2001

Type of activity	5-9 years	10-14 years	15-17 years	All
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Work	1.5	13.0	27.6	11.5
– Work only	0.4	4.3	16.8	5.4
– Work and attend school	1.1	8.8	10.8	6.1
Attend school only	72.4	78.4	54.5	70.9
Neither work nor attend school	26.1	8.6	17.8	17.6

Source: ILO (2003c).

2.8.1. Working children

Content and purpose

Presenting the incidence of work among girls and boys essentially answers the question of “how many?”. Box 8 shows how answers to this question can differ greatly in their significance, depending on whether we consider rates or actual numbers.

Box 8

Measuring the incidence of work among children

Indicators of the magnitude of the group “working children” answer questions related to “how many?”. The incidence of work among girls and boys should be described according to background variables including sex, age group, province/region, and urban/rural residency, as well as any others deemed relevant for the country. In addition, measures of working children should be presented both by levels (actual numbers of working boys and girls) and rates. Often, the rates of working children are low when the total child population is considered as the base, but the actual numbers of working children can be quite large, yielding quite a different picture of the situation. In South Africa, for example, while only 1.7 per cent of all children aged 5-17 years are working and not attending school, this is equivalent to almost one-quarter of a million children.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years that worked in the last 12 months and the last 7 days by sex and age (table 17).
- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years that worked in the last 12 months and the last 7 days by urban/rural residency and province/region (table 18).

Discussion and analysis

Information regarding the number and per cent of working boys and girls tells the reader about the extent of children’s involvement in economic activities, together with their distribution according to such variables as sex and region.

The findings on the boys and girls that worked during the reference week aim to reveal information regarding the regular work patterns of children, whereas the results regarding the boys and girls that worked in the 12 months prior to the survey will capture other seasonal and sporadic aspects of children’s work.

Analysis should examine the distribution of working children by province/region, location of residence, age group, and sex. Discussion should focus on whether working children are mostly of a certain sex and age group, and whether they are concentrated in particular parts of the country. Any observable differences in rates of working children between boys and girls, urban and rural locations, age groups, or province/regions should also be discussed.

2.8.2. Housekeeping activities

Content and purpose

This subsection presents information concerning involvement of boys and girls in housekeeping activities in their own homes. The main topics of discussion are

- number and per cent of boys and girls that perform household chores in their own homes above an established minimum of hours per week;
- number of hours per week they devote to these chores; and

-
- distribution of these children according to sex, age, urban/rural residency, and region.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week, by sex and age group (table 19).
- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 20).
- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week by urban/rural residency, and by sex and age (table 21).

Discussion and analysis

Gender and other biases in household chores. Analysts should highlight any noticeable differences in the participation of girls and boys in housekeeping activities, as well as those between age groups and between urban and rural residents.

Excessive hours of work. The number of hours devoted to these activities is often excessive. The hours of activity should also be considered in relation to the child's age – work shifts that seem acceptable for those aged 15-17 years, for example, might be extreme for boys and girls aged 5-9 years.

Issues and considerations

Setting an analytical time threshold for housekeeping activities. The vast majority of children, especially girls, perform household chores at least one hour per week. Researchers might want to set a time threshold for analysis of children's household chores. Some examples follow:

In Costa Rica, for example, the cut-off was set at ten hours per week, since it was observed that school attendance sharply decreased among boys and girls who performed household chores longer than that – greater numbers of hours spent on chores might interfere with children's schooling (ILO, 2003b).

In Colombia, a minimum of 15 hours a week was established, on the rationale that, below that threshold, household chores could be socially advantageous, contributing to the child's learning process and sense of satisfaction at contributing to the household. Above that threshold, however, they amounted to work that adversely affected the child's schooling and personal development (ILO, 2003f).

In the absence of a standard hour threshold, an analyst that chooses a minimum number of hours of household chores per week, as well as hour categories, needs to provide a justification for the standard adopted. On the other hand, research in this area is ongoing, and consensus on a threshold is to be expected in the future.

2.8.3. School attendance of children

Content and purpose

This subsection shows levels of school attendance among different groups of children:

- those who work;

-
- those who do not work; and
 - those who are involved in housekeeping activities.¹²

Information on the number of hours worked and the number of hours devoted to housekeeping activities, and their relationship with school attendance, should also be included.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by school attendance and involvement in housekeeping activities, by sex and age group (table 22).
- Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years not working, by school attendance and involvement in housekeeping activities, by sex and age group (table 23).
- Median number of hours worked per week for working children 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 24).
- Median number of hours per week devoted to housekeeping activities for children 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 25).

Discussion and analysis

Discussion should focus not only on the number and per cent of children in each of the groups that attend and do not attend school, but also on any noticeable attendance similarities and differences between groups such as these –

- working children and non-working children;
- boys and girls working and involved in housekeeping activities;
- boys and girls working and not performing housekeeping activities;
- boys and girls not working and involved in housekeeping activities; and
- boys and girls not working and not performing housekeeping activities.

Discussion of hours worked and hours devoted to housekeeping activities and their relationship to school attendance should yield an idea of how work intensity and intensity of household chores can be related to school attendance, the a priori assumption being that school attendance decreases as intensity of work and of household chores increases.

2.8.4. Characteristics of work

Content and purpose

This subsection analyses in greater detail differential work experiences among boys and girls, including

- industry where they work;
- occupation;

¹² There is obviously an overlap between those performing housekeeping activities and those boys and girls who work and who do not work.

-
- employment status;
 - work location; and
 - number of hours worked.

The idea is to complete the picture of working children by providing information on the characteristics and conditions of their work. This is important in setting the scene for child labour, the main topic of the report and the focus of Chapters 6, 7, and 8 to follow.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

Industry

- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex and age group (table 26).
- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by industry, by province and urban/rural residency (table 27).

Occupation

- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by occupation, by sex and age group (table 28).
- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by occupation, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 29).

Employment status

- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by sex and age (table 30).
- Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 31).

Location of work

- Number and per cent of all working children 5 to 17 years working at home or away from home by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 32).

Hours of work

- Mean number of hours, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by sex and age (table 33).
- Mean number of hours worked, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by province/region and urban/rural residency (table 34).
- Mean number of hours worked, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by industry (table 35).

Discussion and analysis

Industry information describes the sectors where boys and girls can be found working. Of particular interest, in the report, are –

- those industries where children can most often be found;
- any visible differential trends among boys versus girls;
- any observable differences between geographical areas; and
- differences between children of different age groups.

Occupation and employment status data describe the type of work children are doing. Of special interest in the report are –

- those with the highest concentration of girls and boys; and
- differences and similarities between groups of children.

Location of work can help to reveal the types of dangers children face at work. The report should specify potential dangers, especially with –

- work away from home (e.g. on the street, work at the employer's house); this is particularly important for those groups likely to be more vulnerable, in particular the younger children and girls.

Hours worked is one measure of the intensity of work among boys and girls. Of special interest are –

- children that work long hours; and
- industries that demand high numbers of working hours.

Issues and considerations

Occupation and industry

Occupation-related information reveals –

- the types of work in which boys and girls are engaged;
- clues to the scale of the problem.

Industry data, on the other hand, reveal information regarding employers or sectors, and can serve more easily as a basis for policy interventions to be applied to workplaces.

Country-specific classification schemes for data. Some countries employ their own scheme for classifying data according to industry and occupation. This can be used in the national report, where useful. Some of the categories used, however, might be unfamiliar or unclear to readers. These should be explained in more detail, possibly in a footnote or an appendix.

Promoting international comparability and ease of aggregation. If the International Standard Industry Classification (ISIC) and the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) are not used to classify the respective data regarding industry and occupation in the main analysis, tabulations using these classification schemes should be

included in an appendix. This allows for international comparison of results and ease of aggregation across countries.

Details may be hidden at highest level of aggregation. Presenting industry and occupation categories at the highest level of aggregation can often hide interesting detailed information. In Costa Rica, for example, a survey revealed that 74.5 per cent of working children are in “elementary occupations”, yet a wide array of occupations are included in this category, ranging from street vendors to agricultural and construction workers (ILO, 2003b). In these cases, it might help to disaggregate the data, at least partially, to sub-major categories that better reflect job types where large numbers of working children are found. On the other hand, when few observations fall into more than one category, the analyst should consider merging some of them, always providing clear explanations of what is included in each new “merged” category.

Unlikely responses. In many cases, national child labour surveys have recorded small numbers of children in occupations that, given their age, are highly unlikely. Occupational categories such as “legislators, senior officials, and managers” and “professionals” are improbable for children, and usually reflect misunderstanding of questions during the interview or mistakes in data recording, coding, or entry (see subsection 5.2.2 of this manual for advice on handling unlikely responses).

2.9. Chapter 6: Incidence and characteristics of child labour

Content and purpose

As mentioned earlier, this chapter and the following two (Chapters 7 and 8) focus on child labourers only¹³ – they exclude children who do not work, and those who do work but whose participation in those work activities is perceived as not harmful and is permitted according to the country’s legislation.

This chapter presents the main characteristics of those children whose schooling, health, or development is harmed by their work, and whose participation in work activities is prohibited by the country’s legislation.

Some of the main information for presentation in the report relates to –

- the number and per cent of all children engaged in child labour; and
- the per cent of working children that are in child labour.

Other information that will help to provide a more complete picture of a national child labour situation includes –

- industry in which they work;
- their occupation;
- their status in employment;
- the location of their work; and
- the time of day and hours worked.

¹³ The legal framework described in Chapter 1 should be taken into account as much as is practicable in determining the quantitative standard used to measure child labour, as explained in section 2.7.

Incidence of child labour

- Number and per cent of all children and all working children 5 to 17 years of age who are child labourers by sex and age group (table 36).
- Number and per cent of all children and all working children 5 to 17 years who are child labourers by urban/rural residency and province/region (table 37).

Industry

- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex, age group, province/region, and urban/rural residency (table 38).

Occupation

- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by occupation, by sex and age (table 39).

Status in employment

- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 40).

Location of work

- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years working at home or away from home by age, sex, and urban/rural residency (table 41).

Time of day of work and hours worked

- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by time of day of work, by sex, age group, and urban/rural residency (table 42).
- Median number of hours worked per week for child labourers 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex, age group, and urban/rural residency (table 43).

Discussion and analysis

Information regarding incidence of child labour clarifies the magnitude of the problem among the sexes and age groups and its geographic distribution across the country. See subsection 1.2.8(d) for specific issues concerning the analysis and interpretation of data on the characteristics of work.

In light of the definition of child labour, this chapter (and the following two) focuses on children who –

- are below the minimum age established for the type of industry or work performed;
- work more than the maximum number of hours established for their age, the industry, or type of work; and
- work in unsafe conditions.

What makes the work harmful? The data presented in this chapter should highlight details related to age, industry, occupation, hours worked, conditions, or other, that make work harmful to child workers.

What, specifically, makes the work “child labour”? The report should clarify which features, in any given case, define the working children as “child labourers”. This information will include their age, number of hours worked, occupation, industry in which they work, conditions faced at work, or combinations of these.

Issues and considerations

See section 2.7 for issues regarding the quantitative measure of child labour, and subsection 2.8.4 for issues regarding industry and occupation.

2.10. Chapter 7: Child labour and children’s schooling, health and household well-being

Content and purpose

The report on the relationship between child labour and other variables such as children’s education, health, and household well-being should begin with a short discussion of previous research into the possible consequences of child labour, and the difficulties encountered in these exercises. Potential consequences of child labour include the effects of work on the schooling and health of boys and girls, as well as its effect on household income and household well-being.

This information should help the reader to contextualize the results of the current survey and to compare them with research results from other countries. Differences between the results obtained in other countries and the current results may suggest areas for future in-depth research.

Following this, the results of the current survey should be presented and discussed. This chapter should focus on the –

- observed relationships between child labour and different aspects of children’s formal education and health issues; and
- perceived importance of child labour for household well-being, as reported in the survey.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

Education

Attendance

- Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers who are currently attending school, by sex, age group, urban/rural residency, and region (table 44).
- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by industry (table 45).
- Median number of hours worked per week for child labourers 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 46).

-
- Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who are currently attending school and report that work affects their regular attendance or studies by sex and age (table 47).

Reported reasons for non-attendance

- Per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years, by reported reason for non-attendance, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 48).

Grade-age distortions

- Grade-age distortions for child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years attending school by age (table 49).

Grade repetition

- Number and per cent of all child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years who are repeaters, by sex and age group (table 50).

School dropping out

- Number and per cent of all child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years who dropped out of school, by sex and age group (table 51).

Health and safety

- Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who are not supervised at work by an adult by sex, age, urban/rural residency, region, and occupation (table 52).
- Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who reported working in hazardous conditions by sex, age group, and industry (table 53).

Household well-being

- Number and per cent of child labourers by reported effect on household if child stops working by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 54).

Discussion and analysis

Formal education and effects of work. Information regarding formal education aims clarify the affect of labour on children's schooling. The a priori assumption is that child labour has an adverse effect on children's schooling because (a) it takes time away from their regular attendance and/or homework, and (b) causes enough fatigue to interfere with learning. A more complete picture requires discussion of issues including school attendance and how this varies not only between sexes, provinces/regions, and age groups, but also by industry and hours worked. This might better indicate which industries intrude more on children's schooling, and how the ability to combine work and school attendance might depend on work intensity. Another important item of analysis is reported reasons for non-attendance, with special attention to declared reasons related to work. The educational system might be responsible for other significant factors, and this information should also be of interest for policy and programme design.

Distortions in grade attended/age data. Distortions between grade attended and age of the child¹⁴ may be an indicator of boys and girls' normal progress in school, as well as of school entry at an inappropriate age.

- High distortion rates would reveal that children are
 - not entering school when they should be, or
 - progressing more slowly than they should.

Repetition. High repetition rates should be interpreted as evidence of problems in children's normal school progress only with reference to the previous year.

Dropping out. The concept of children dropping out of school is narrower than that of non-attendance, since children who drop out did attend school previously, whereas those who do not attend could, in any given case, have attended school previously or not. The dropout rate then, reveals information about children who did attend school at some point but had to leave the formal educational system for some reason.

Difficulty of capturing issues of health and safety at work. Information gathered in the national child labour surveys can at most suggest a sketchy picture of the real hazards faced by boys and girls at work, and the effects of child labour on health.

- Adult supervision at work should indicate a higher probability of more safety at work, although more information is required to establish this.
- Information regarding children who report work in hazardous conditions should also indicate the magnitude of dangers faced.
- The report should also discuss survey information regarding the incidence of accidents and illnesses reportedly related to work.

Perceived effect on household of child ceasing work. Where the boy or girl stops working, respondent data may indicate that the household: (a) does not feel dependent on the child's contribution; (b) feels somewhat dependent; or (c) feels very dependent on it.

Issues and considerations

Observed education and health problems cannot be attributed with certainty to child labour. Analysts should provide careful interpretation of the apparent relationships between child labour and schooling and health variables. Observed correlations do not yield proof of causality, since other relevant variables such as socio-economic status are not being held constant in cross-tabulations. Adequate analysis of the lagged effect of child labour on schooling and health, furthermore, requires use of panel data.

Effect on household of child ceasing work. The analyst must remember that answers to related questions are only reported perceptions and not established facts. This information, however, could be of interest for child labour intervention design.

¹⁴ The starting age for the first grade of primary school is often assumed to be 6 years but, in reality, it varies from country to country. Country-specific information on the age corresponding to a particular grade can be deduced from the country's legislation on education.

Sources and references

For information on important research in the field of child labour refer to the ILO/IPEC publication: *Annotated bibliography on child labour* (ILO, 2003h). For interesting papers on the possible consequences of child labour and the issues surrounding these studies, see Rosati, F.; Rossi, M. (October 2001): *Children's working hours, school enrolment and human capital accumulation: Evidence from Pakistan and Nicaragua*; and O'Donnell, O.; van Doorslaer, E.; Rosati, F. (January 2002): *Child labour and health: Evidence and research issues*.

2.11. Chapter 8: The context for child labour

Content and purpose

This chapter should begin with a brief discussion of the findings of previous research on correlates and possible causes of child labour. Variables analysed in such research include, among others, those related to

- household socio-economic conditions;
- problems in the formal schooling system; and
- economic shocks.

This provides the reader with the relevant theoretical background and empirical information to compare this survey's results with previous findings. The remainder of the chapter should discuss survey findings regarding

- selected contextual household variables;
- declared reasons that children work, according to the survey answers; and
- children's contribution to household income and saving behaviour.

Sample tables (see Appendix F)

Household size and structure

- Average household size, number of children, number of adults, and dependency ratio for child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years, by age and urban/rural residency (table 55).
- Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers by sex, by household structure and parent survival (table 56).

Income

- Median household income of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by household structure, parent survival, family size, urban/rural residency, and province/region (table 57).
- Per cent of children in each income quintile by work status (table 58).

Parent's education

- *Table 59.* Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by highest level of schooling achieved by parent (table 59).

Perceptions of reasons child works, child's contribution to household income, and child's savings

- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by reported reason of parent or guardian for letting child work, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 60).
- Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years that earn an income by contribution to household income, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 61).
- Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years that earn an income and save by reason for saving, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency (table 62).

Note: If a wealth index was computed, it should be used in tables 57 and 58.

Discussion and analysis

Relation of household size to dependency refers to the number of household members that depend economically on those that support the household economically. Previous empirical findings suggest that child labour is more likely in larger households and households with a larger number of children relative to adults. This might point towards dependency issues, and an increasing need for household members, including children, to contribute to the household economy as the size of the household increases.

Correlation of poverty in the household and child labour. Child labour is usually associated with poverty, and the incidence of child labour by household income (or according to a wealth index) would indicate whether such a correlation exists in the target country.

Correlation of parental educational level and incidence of child labour. Regarding parental educational level, it is often observed that less-educated parents are associated with higher proportions of child labourers, which is commonly explained by suggesting that lack of education makes them less aware of the adverse present and future consequences of child labour.

Discussion of the parent/guardians' declared reasons for letting the child work could indicate their self-perceived dependence on the children's direct or indirect contribution to the household economy. Other possible reasons for the child working – determined through their answers to the corresponding questions – may be the children's direct contribution to household income or their saving for something specific in the future.

Issues and considerations

Establishing causal relationships. As mentioned in the preceding chapter, the analyst should be cautious about interpreting observed associations as established causal relationships. More surely determining the nature of the observed relationships often requires

- holding other variables constant;
- more information; and
- deeper analysis.

In reporting reasons that children work, the analyst should note that the data reflect only reported perceptions of reasons for child labour, not established facts regarding causes. Nevertheless, this information could be highly relevant for child labour intervention design.

Difficulty of assessing household contributions of unpaid child labourers. Whereas many child labourers work and contribute to the household income, a significant number of other child labourers work without pay, and their contribution to the household economy is indirect and many times harder to measure.

Sources and references

For information on important research in the field of child labour refer to the ILO/IPEC publication: *Annotated bibliography on child labour* (ILO, 2003h). Interesting results regarding possible causes of child labour are presented in Deb, P.; Rosati, F. (December 2002): *Determinants of child labour and school attendance: The role of household unobservables*.

2.12. Chapter 9: Conclusions and recommendations

2.12.1. *Conclusions*

Content and purpose

Following presentation and discussion of the results from the child labour survey, the report should gather the main conclusions in a single section that

- summarizes the main inferences drawn throughout the report from the survey findings;
- reviews what was learned about children's activities and about child labour in particular;
- presents each conclusion without lengthy explanation, relevant details having already appeared in the main analysis;
- introduces no new ideas; and
- attaches a weight to each theme proportionate to the weight accorded in the preceding analysis.

2.12.2. *Recommendations*

Content and purpose

Based on the report findings, propose recommendations that address

- a variety of issues; and
- different sectors of society.

These recommendations should emerge from the main problems identified in the report and summarized in the conclusions.

Recommendations should not be merely general, theoretical proposals. Effective recommendations are specific, explicit, relevant, feasible suggestions for action.

The recommendations may conveniently be organized according to addressee or content, especially when the list

- is long;
- covers many topics; or

-
- addresses many different sectors of society.

In the national report of Belize, for example, the recommendations are grouped in three sections: “International conventions, and national laws and policies”; “New intervention programmes”; and “Future research areas” (ILO, 2003a). With the Nicaragua report, a lengthy list of recommendations is organized according to content: “Partners”; “International labour norms and technical cooperation”; “Child labour and the poverty reduction strategy”; “National normative action”; “Research”; “Action programmes”; and “Sensitization and social mobilization” (ILO, 2003e).

Finally, each recommendation should state clearly

- how, when, and by whom it is to be implemented;
- how it is meant to contend with the particular problem it addresses;
- what outcome might realistically be expected; and
- foreseeable obstacles or difficulties in its implementation.

2.13. References

Content and purpose

This section lists all reference material used throughout the report. The following format is suggested:

- **Books:** Last name, first name, date, *Name of book* (City: Publisher).
- **Articles:** Last name, first name, date, “Name of article”, *Name of book or journal*, Issue or (City: Publisher).

or:

- **Books:** Last name, initial of first name. Date. *Name of book*. Publisher, city, country.
- **Articles:** Last name, initial of first name. Date. “Name of article”, *Name of book or journal*, Issue. Publisher. City, country.
- **Electronic references:** Last name of the author, initial of first name. Date of publication. *Title*. Retrieval date. URL.

All references are listed alphabetically by the author’s last name. When more than one work by the same author is cited, they are listed in chronological order, starting with the earliest. If more than one study with the same author and year is cited, they are distinguished from each other by a lower-case letter following the year (e.g. ILO, 2003a, ILO, 2003b, and so on).

Throughout the report, the sources of information must be carefully referenced with complete and correct citations. To avoid overcrowding the main text with bibliographical information, one may mention only the name of the author and date of the source in parentheses *in the main text*. With direct quotations, the year and page numbers should be inserted within parentheses. In both cases, the full citation is then presented in the reference section of the report following the format presented above.

Chapter 3: Writing the national report of a follow-up child labour survey

When countries conduct a second or subsequent child labour survey, researchers will want to make comparisons across time.

Problems with comparability. Surveys carried out at different points in time might not be fully comparable due to

- differences in sample design;
- definitions used; and
- questions asked.

Any comparative study needs to evaluate and clearly explain the extent to which these differences can affect the comparison of results. For example, a 1998 child labour survey in Costa Rica identified over 140,000 working children between 5 and 17 years of age. A subsequent 2002 survey showed that this number had dropped to nearly 113,000. Even though both child labour surveys were add-ons to the annual national household survey, however, these results are not comparable. The sample design was changed in 2001, and the weight factors for urban and rural areas adjusted, making the comparison of results between 1998 and 2002 inappropriate.

Presenting trends over time. Probably the easiest and clearest way to show trends over time is to create tables with adjoining columns for the same variables in the two (or more) different years. The following table is a partial representation of one that appeared in the 2001 Portugal national report (Ministry of Labour and SIETI, 2003), in which a comparison was made between the data collected in the 1998 and the 2001 surveys. This table clearly shows a reduction in the percentage of children working in the higher hour ranges in agriculture and commerce between 1998 and 2001.

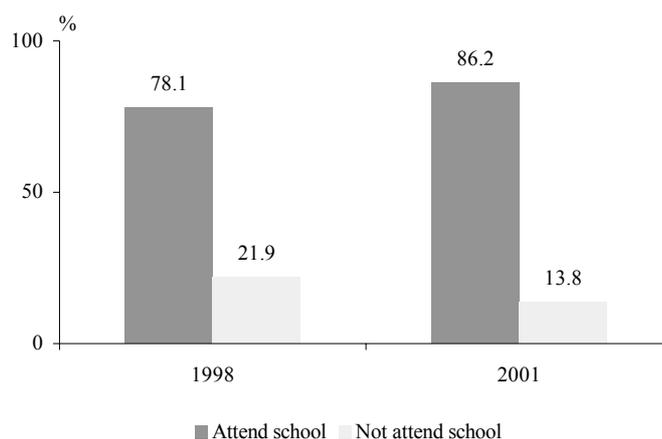
Table 5. Children in agriculture and commerce, by number of hours of work per day in the reference week, Portugal, 1998 and 2001

Number of hours	Agriculture		Commerce	
	1998	2001	1998	2001
< 1 hour	13.8	11.2	13.4	11.2
1-3 hours	51.9	69.1	38.8	58.0
4-6 hours	24.7	14.7	22.4	15.2
> 6 hours	9.5	5.1	25.4	15.7
Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Ministry of Labour and SIETI, 2003.

Similarly, the data for the two (or more) different years can be presented together in one graph to make trends highly visible. In the following graph, a representation of one that appeared in the 2001 Portugal national report, it is easy to see that school attendance rates among working children increased during the period between the two surveys.

Graph 1. Children in economic activities by school attendance, Portugal, 1998 and 2001



Source: Ministry of Labour and SIETI, 2003.

In describing the information shown in the comparative tables and graphs, discussion should begin with the most recent year, followed by an explanation of how this information differs from the older data, thereby highlighting any apparent trends.

Chapter 4. Reports for other types of child labour survey

Reports on child labour surveys other than national household surveys – for example, establishment surveys and school surveys – may, with few adjustments, generally follow the same format and guidelines presented in this manual. The methodology chapter of the report will have to be modified to describe any alternative techniques used; otherwise, the report always includes survey scope and coverage, the questionnaire, the sample, any training activities, data processing, reliability of the information gathered, and lessons learned.

With **establishment surveys**, if information on household characteristics is collected it should be analysed; but study of the establishment-related data constitutes the heart of the report. Analysis should address information regarding the

- size and other characteristics of the place where girls and boys work;
- characteristics of the other workers found in these establishments;
- wages earned by the boys and girls and other workers;
- respect for workers' rights; and
- conditions of work in general.

With **school surveys**, similarly, the report should present any collected information on household characteristics, but it should focus on the information concerning schools and schooling. This includes information regarding

- children's attitudes towards formal education;
- teachers' perceptions on working boys and girls and schooling; and
- any information on the characteristics of working children that is collected.

Part II

Further issues

In the second part of the manual, we address issues related to

- preparation of datasets;
- analysis of data; and
- presentation of results that did not emerge in Part I.

Chapter 5: Child labour data preparation, analysis and presentation

5.1. Preparing the dataset for analysis

In preparing the dataset for analysis, where more than one person is involved in tabulations and handling the data, one leader should oversee and carefully document the creation of the final dataset. Even where the dataset is prepared and handled by only one person, it is important that all steps in its preparation are carefully documented for future reference.

Before any tabulations of data can be made, the dataset will probably require some handling, as explained below.

5.1.1. Studying the questionnaire and other documentation

If analysts are to feel comfortable with the datasets, they need to study the questionnaire beforehand, gaining a clear overview of the –

- definitions used;
- questions;
- probe questions;
- answer categories;
- skip patterns; and
- interviewee subgroups for the different sections of the questionnaire.

The person in charge of analysing the data can begin studying the questionnaire and discuss it with other relevant parties before the data processing stage is completed. A review of the coding indexes and other relevant documentation can also be helpful.

5.1.2. Choosing the variables to include in the analysis

The preparation of the dataset used for the analysis is guided in large part by decisions regarding essential variables. To save time, such decisions can be made before the data are fully processed, but after a thorough review of the questionnaire and the list of variables at hand.

A major decision regarding choice of variable. One of the main decisions regarding choice of variables is related to the questions on children's involvement in work activities, which are used to determine the number of working children. SIMPOC child labour surveys ideally contain a set of questions directed at parents or guardians, and another set posed directly to children, including questions on whether girls and boys worked during the reference week. Even if some of the questions are the same, the answers do not necessarily coincide. Analysts must decide, on a case-by-case basis, which set of answers to use – the children's or the parents/guardians' – to compute the number of working children and the subset of child labourers, in each case using the information considered most reliable.¹⁵

Presenting comparative responses from both groups. With some topics, e.g. those related to perceptions, presenting comparative answers from both groups can be interesting. The 2000 National Child Labour Survey in the Dominican Republic, for instance, revealed that, according to 50.1 per cent of parents and/or guardians, the main reason for letting children work is for them to learn a useful trade. But when the same question was posed directly to the children, only 32.3 per cent of them shared this opinion.

5.1.3. Merging data files

Where the data are divided into multiple files, e.g. separate files containing information about households and individual persons, it might be necessary to merge files. This operation should be performed with extreme caution, and the results checked to ensure that the information on one file is associated with the corresponding information on the other file. The new dataset should also be carefully examined, where there are missing values, to ensure this does not reflect mismatched observations.

5.1.4. Creating and recoding variables and variable categories

Where the need arises, variables and variable categories can be created or recoded to ease analysis. Variables and variable categories should always be checked when created – e.g. using descriptive statistics or cross-tabulations – to ensure their correctness. Commonly created variables include those on work status (work/not work) and households with working children (yes/no); commonly created variable categories include those for age groups (5-9, 10-14, and 15-17, or others), tabulation categories for industry, and major groups for occupation (according to standard classification systems).

With recoding, good practice suggests that – rather than recode into the same variable or variable category name – recode into a new one. Analysts should normally use value labels that are in some way meaningful and self-explanatory; anyone who uses the dataset may then more readily understand the labels, reducing the chance of error. Commonly recoded variable categories include those for sex (“male” and “female” instead of “1” and “2”) and for location of residence (“urban” and “rural” instead of “1” and “2”).

¹⁵ IPEC research is currently comparing responses and evaluating the appropriateness of using answers to questions directed at adults versus those directed at children. Preliminary results are not yet available, but the research findings are expected to help guide decisions regarding which responses to follow in estimating the number of working children and child labourers.

5.1.5. Creating a data subset

Once analysts have decided which variables are to be used for the study, the data files have been merged if necessary, and any variables and variable categories have been created or recoded, they should create a file containing only that subset of variables necessary to conduct the analysis, thereby

- making the dataset smaller and easier to handle; and
- reducing the probability of error.

5.2. Getting to know the dataset and identifying data problems

Once analysts thoroughly understand the questionnaire and have created the dataset, they should get to know their data very well, and this often takes time.

Early familiarization with the data. The more familiar analysts are with the data, the fewer errors they may expect later in the process. For example, users should be familiar with the valid codes for missing data (e.g. “7”, “8”, “9”, “77”, “88”, “99”, “-9”, “-99”, “-999”), variables to use for weights (both the person and household weights), coding scheme used for occupations and industries, and other variables such as date of birth.

Scatter-plot matrixes. Preliminary study of the dataset can also lead analysts to identify patterns within the data, possible outliers, and other potential problems. A scatter-plot matrix offers an easy way to study patterns, identify possible outliers, and spot possible associations between pairs of quantitative variables.

Post-data cleaning and processing problems. Even though many data problems are solved at the data cleaning and processing stage, other difficulties may remain. Before making any tabulations, analysts should scrutinize the variables for evidence of any of the following problems:

- missing data;
- outliers;
- variables that display unusual patterns or have a suspicious number of answers in the “yes”, “no”, or another particular category;
- variables with a high number of “other” or “not applicable” answers; and
- variables that have unlikely answers for some cases (many of these could be outliers as well).

In face of any of these remaining inconsistencies or problems, analysts need to evaluate the situation and decide how to handle the data for analysis and presentation. A simple general rule is the following:

- Where the analyst does not trust the information of a particular variable, or strongly believes it does not reflect reality – and where data transformations or other options are not desirable or feasible – it is safer to exclude that variable from the analysis.

Looking ahead to improving subsequent surveys. Such data problems might reflect problems at the questionnaire design, data collection, coding, transcribing, or processing stages. These problems should be carefully discussed with those persons in charge of each of these activities, seeking optimal measures to improve data quality in the next survey.

The best solutions to the various data problems at the analysis stage have to be determined on a case-by-case basis. However, some easily applied measures are presented in what follows.

5.2.1. Handling missing values

Datasets often contain missing values for some variables, partly because

- respondents fail to answer some questions;
- interviewers fail to ask questions, or incorrectly or illegibly record responses; or
- errors occur in data transcribing or entering.

Timing of imputation measures. Ideally, imputation techniques will have been used before the data analysis stage and, therefore, missing data may not be a problem when creating tabulations for the national reports (see ILO 2004b).

Rare or random missing values. In a given dataset, if missing values are rare or random occurrences, then the problem may presumably be safely ignored. Data are considered missing entirely at random if the probability of their being missing does not depend on the missing values or any of the other values recorded (e.g. they are not linked to skip instructions).

Patterns in missing data. Sometimes, however, the missing data follow a pattern. Ignoring the problem in these cases will introduce a bias, and any inferences drawn will be incorrect.

Determining extent of missing data for every variable used. Extent of missing data should be determined for each variable used in the analysis. Analysts should be wary of any variable with a large proportion of missing values,¹⁶ since this might indicate that the occurrence of missing data is not random and, therefore, that large proportions of missing values may lead to biased results.

Respondents lacking knowledge or withholding information. In Nicaragua, in the 2000 Child and Adolescent Labour Survey, one of the highest non-response rates (27 per cent) occurred in the question posed to the parents or guardians regarding their knowledge of existing hazards at work for working girls and boys. It was argued that this high non-response rate was not random, but could in part reflect either lack of knowledge on the part of respondents, or the parents' or guardians' embarrassment at their actual knowledge of existing hazards (ILO, 2003e). In either case, ignoring the missing data would produce biased results. Another very common occurrence of missing values in surveys ensues from respondents withholding information regarding income due to their reluctance to reveal what they consider to be sensitive information.

Strategies for imputing missing data. Many strategies offer themselves for imputing missing data, including

- deductive;
- mean;

¹⁶ With household surveys, some analysts consider 10 per cent to be the cut-off between an acceptable quantity of missing data and a large proportion of missing data that needs to be handled with care. See, for example., UNICEF's *End-decade multiple indicator survey manual* (2000).

- bootstrapping; or
- regression-based imputation.

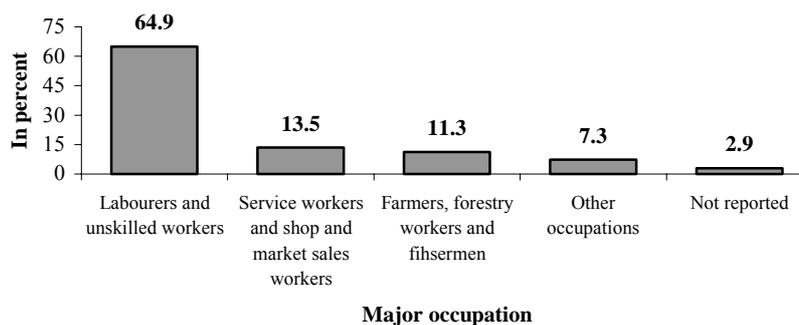
Techniques to substitute appropriate responses. Analysts should study the pattern of missingness for all variables with missing data, determining the most appropriate technique to generate suitable responses. Attempts should be made to substitute the missing values with appropriate estimates, thereby completing the datasets to be used for analysis and reducing the bias of survey estimates.

Dropping variables with persistent missing values from the analysis. Where missing values nevertheless remain, and they constitute a large proportion or they are not considered to be missing at random, one option is not to analyse the concerned variable at all. If the analyst does choose to include the variable in the analysis, a decision needs to be made regarding whether or not to include those observations in tabulations and graphs.

Deletion. A very widely used method for handling missing data is to delete any observation that contains missing values for any one variable that is part of the analysis. **This is often the default option in different statistical software packages.** Although easy to apply, this method often causes loss of relevant information and loss of statistical power by reducing the sample size, and it could result in bias, since it relies on the assumption that the missing values are completely random.

Tabulations and charts with missing values. Probably the simplest and most widely used method of handling missing data, when publishing tabulations and charts from the national child labour surveys, is to create a separate category for the missing respondents such as “Not reported”, or “Unspecified”. The following graph, for example, was used with the Philippines child labour survey data:

Graph 2. Proportion of children 5-17 years old who worked during the past 12 months, by major occupation, Philippines, October 2001



Source: National Statistics Office and ILO, 2002.

This option can become extremely cumbersome, however, when many variables used in cross-tabulations are presented, since, potentially, each variable could have missing cases. This partly explains why it is so important to make every attempt possible to get complete information at the data gathering stage or, if possible, to deduce a missing value from the existing information at the data editing stage, especially for key background variables. In the case of age, for example, a missing value might be safely deduced from information on date of birth, and, with sex, a missing value might be safely deduced from

relationship to the head of the household – e.g. “daughter”, “wife”, or “grand-daughter” would imply a female, and responses such as “son”, “husband”, or “grandson” would imply a male.

5.2.2. Handling other types of data problems

Outliers. Outliers are extreme values or observations that are inconsistent with the pattern shown by the remaining data points.

Determine the extent of their effect on the analysis. Where outliers are detected in the data, the first step is to determine the extent of their effect on the analysis.

- More extreme cases will have a greater influence on results than less extreme cases.
- Outliers with large sampling weights will have a greater effect on the results than those with smaller weights, and the relative weight of observations can be easily displayed and visually evaluated with the use of bubble plots, especially if the subgroup analysed is not too big.
- A comparison of results with and without such extreme or unusual observations helps determine their actual effect. Where analysts determine that outliers do not have a significant effect, they can be safely ignored. This becomes more likely as sample size increases. Depending partly on the characteristics of the outliers, as explained above, and partly on the statistic being computed, outliers will then not necessarily have a significant effect on results or develop into data problems.

Choosing statistics less susceptible to outliers. Analysts should remember that some statistics are more susceptible to outliers than others – for example, the mean is more susceptible than the median. One way to diminish problems with outliers is to choose those statistics less prone to being affected by them.

Other ways of handling outliers. Where analysts determine that outliers have an influence on the particular statistic computed, they should not ignore the problem. In studying influential outliers, they should try to find a reasonable explanation for the outliers’ existence, in which case the observations may be safely excluded so as not to affect the analysis, presenting results that do not reflect generally observed patterns. For example, a breakdown in the public water system in a particular area at the time of the survey could lead to zero sums being reported as answers to the question: “What was the estimated amount spent on water in the past month?”. In such a case, it would be incorrect to use the reported information to draw inferences regarding socio-economic status for the particular area. Excluding those extreme observations would present a preferable option. Another common way of handling outliers is to treat them as missing points and group them into an “other” category.

Where analysts cannot find a reasonable explanation for the presence of influential outliers, and treating them as missing points is not desirable, they should question actual use of the variable in the analysis.

Unusual patterns and suspiciously large answer categories. Where available, external information may be useful in determining whether a variable shows an unusual pattern or displays too many “yes”, “no”, or other answers.

A comparison of the age distribution for those aged 5 to 17 years according to the survey in Honduras and according to the population census conducted a year previously, for example, suggested that the survey underestimated the number of girls of certain ages, while overestimating the number of girls of other ages. Similarly, with boys it seemed that the survey overestimated those of some ages, and underestimated those in other ages. In

this case, the data analysis was conducted in its entirety using the age groups 5-9, 10-14 and 15-17, instead of single years of age, because, unlike with single years of age, the distribution of these age groups proved to coincide with that one suggested by the census results (ILO, 2003d). In this case, aggregation was enough to arrive at an expected distribution of the variable. In other cases, however, exclusion might be the best option for variables with unusual patterns or suspiciously large proportions in certain answer categories that the analyst feels do not reflect reality.

Unlikely responses. Unlikely answers can appear in the data for a number of reasons, including

- misunderstood questions;
- misreported information at the interview; or
- wrongly recorded or transcribed information.

“Professional occupation” for children is one common unlikely answer in child labour surveys. Given the children’s age, it is highly unlikely that children will have professional occupations. Answers, however, can easily go unnoticed by data editors unless they directly compare ages and occupations. Where cases are few, it may be safe to exclude them. An easy alternative solution is to treat them as missing points, and group them into an “other” category. This forms part of the total population for the variable, and appears in tabulations and graphs as “other”, but does not require analysis.

Large “not applicable” categories. Large numbers of “other” or “not applicable” answers might reflect poor question design, and the issue should be raised with those responsible for the design of the questionnaire. At the data analysis stage, the usefulness of including such variables should be carefully evaluated, as they might not provide much information.

5.3. Using weighted data

The survey sample is intended to represent a given population. Hence, each observation in the sample, once weighted using the corresponding raising factor, represents several cases in the whole population. The raising factor will not be the same for every observation, depending on the sample design. Therefore, when computing statistics such as rates and proportions for the different variables, the weighted data should be used to avoid bias in results. This also assures that the statistics computed are consistent with the total numbers presented for the different variables in the report.

5.4. Disaggregating data

Most analysts want to present as much detail as possible in the tabulations.

Problems with smaller sample sizes. The more variables and categories used for disaggregating the data, however, the smaller the sample size on which the estimates will be based, and thus the less precise the resulting estimate. When few observations fall into a certain category, the estimates based on those few cases might not be reliable. Consequently, analysts need to pay close attention to subgroup sample size, as subgroup analysis can lead to unreliable estimates. The reliability of an estimate depends on the actual unweighted number of respondents in a particular category, not on the weighted number. Alternative solutions include these:

- *Not reporting the estimates.* One possibility – where subgroup analysis results are not deemed reliable, and collapsing categories is not desirable – is simply not to report the estimates.
- *Minimum criteria.* If countries choose to display the results, and given that all estimates based on sample data are associated with varying degrees of sampling error, countries should develop or adopt minimum criteria for publishing or releasing estimates based on the child labour survey data.

Developing minimum criteria. Deciding on a minimum unweighted number of observations (i.e. minimum denominator) necessary for displaying results may constrain the extensive disaggregation of data. Some countries may have established their own criteria when publishing data, and it is recommended that they continue to use them, insofar as the methodology used to create the criteria applies to the national child labour survey. For example, the Central Statistical Office (CSO) in Belize generally uses a minimum denominator of 30 observations to base the estimates it releases. (This minimum was also used to present the results of the 2001 Child Activity Survey.) If a country has not yet developed a methodology for publishing estimates based on the child labour surveys, ILO/SIMPOC recommends that the following criteria be adopted:

- If an estimate is based on less than 25 observations, present the estimate in the tables with an asterisk (*) next to the figure. The asterisk should then be defined at the bottom of each table where it appears. The warning might read in this way: “* Figures should be interpreted with caution, since estimates are based on a small sample size.”

Box 9 provides an example.

Box 9		
Reporting figures based on small cell sizes		
<p>In reporting estimates, analysts need to know the number of unweighted observations on which each estimate is based. If the number falls below a minimum criterion, a warning should accompany the estimate, as shown in the example below.</p>		
<p>Table 6. Average monthly income of working children in some industries Nicaragua, 2000</p>		
Industry	Average monthly income	Number of observations (unweighted)
Agriculture, hunting, forestry, and fishing	\$43.09	274
Mining and quarrying	–	4
Manufacturing	\$63.44	125
Electricity, gas and water supply	\$34.15*	21
Construction	\$83.43	49
Wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants	\$51.71	195
Community, social and personal services	\$40.27	189
<p>– Figure not presented as there are less than ten observations.</p> <p>* Figure should be interpreted with caution, since estimates are based on a small sample size.</p> <p>Source: National Child and Adolescent Labour Survey, Nicaragua, 2000.</p>		

For more information on how this criterion was developed, see Appendix E (A. Ritualo; F. Mehran, March 2002: “Estimate Release Criteria for SIMPOC Surveys”).

Minimum threshold of observations. In certain cases, however, the number of observations is so small that it is preferable not to publish estimates based on them at all, not even where they are accompanied by a warning. A threshold of 10 observations is sometimes used as the minimum observations necessary to display estimates, as shown in the example in box 9.

Confidentiality issues. The analyst should always bear confidentiality issues in mind when evaluating the extent to which data should be disaggregated and analysed, avoiding the exposure of sensitive information:

- As cell size becomes smaller, the probability of being able to identify an individual household increases, raising the risk of compromising the confidentiality of the information provided in the survey.
- The persons handling the data need to identify any variables still present in the dataset that may compromise confidentiality, and treat them carefully, excluding them, if necessary, from the analysis and the dataset.

5.5. Choosing background variables

The national surveys contain a plethora of information, more than could ever be covered in any single report. Those responsible for writing the reports must therefore remain focused. The following measures may assist:

- An outline of desired indicators and tabulations can help to avoid drowning in data.
- Report authors might be advised to present some of the results by key background variables, since full dataset analysis, hiding diversity within countries or within groups of persons in countries, often fails to produce the most interesting results. Main background variables include, among others, sex, region/province, urban/rural residency, and single years of age or age groups, many of which are suggested in the sample tabulations presented in Appendix F.

Variables relevant for some countries and not for others. Certain background variables, e.g. nationality and ethnic group, might be highly relevant for some countries but not for others, depending on their structure. In Belize, for example, results from the 2001 Child Activity Survey showed widely varying child participation rates for the three major ethnic groups: 27.6 per cent for Mayan children, 11.1 per cent for Mestizos, and 6.6 per cent for Creoles. Clearly, ethnicity should be considered an important background variable for this country, but it might not be relevant or applicable in other countries.

Relevance of both similarities and differences between groups. The analyst should pay close attention, then, to the choice of background variables and their categories, bearing in mind that, sometimes, similarities between groups are as relevant as differences between them, and thus should not be ignored.

Explain relevance of background variable categories. It is also important to explain the relevance of different categories of background variables, e.g. the relevance of the chosen hours-of-work categories or age groups with regard to the country's work and education legislation.

Danger of overly extensive disaggregation. Analysts must be careful, when dividing the data into the different variable categories, not to disaggregate so extensively that they reduce the sample size to the extent the results are rendered unreliable (see section 5.4). With geographic areas, even though it is interesting to analyse data for highly disaggregated units, analysts need to recognize the smallest geographic unit allowed by the sample design used.

Adapting the sample tables in Appendix F. The background variables and their categories presented in the sample tables in Appendix F were chosen for illustrative purposes, and are not meant to be either universally applicable or exhaustive. Countries should thus feel free to make modifications to the sample tabulations, the background variables used, and their categories.

5.5.1. Age groups

In establishing age categories, countries might want to choose age groups relevant in terms of national education and work legislation.

In Nicaragua, for example, the age groups 5-9, 10-13, and 14-17 years were used in the analysis because the minimum age for employment was set at 14 years. In Colombia, the age groups used were 5-9, 10-11, 12-14, and 15-17 years, based on the differential minimum ages for working in rural and urban areas.

Using age cut-offs for light work and general employment. Another option that might reveal meaningful results is to use the age cut-offs for light work and general employment. In a country where the minimum age for light work is set at 12 years, for example, and the minimum age for general employment is set at 14, it would be interesting and significant to use the age groups 5-11, 12-13, and 14-17 years – i.e. the group of children too young even for light work; those permitted light work but not yet regular work; and those eligible for general employment.

Cross-country comparison and ease of aggregation across countries. On the other hand, the standard use of the age groups 5-9, 10-14, and 15-17 years allows for cross-country comparison of results, and allows the data to be easily aggregated across countries to derive regional estimates. In cases where the cut-offs between these latter age groups do not coincide with the country's maximum age for compulsory schooling and/or the minimum age for employment, the country should conduct the main analysis using those age categories that are relevant according to its legislation – but, for the sake of international comparability, include tabulations using the other categories (5-9, 10-14, and 15-17 year) in an appendix.

Adapting the sample tables in Appendix F. In the sample tabulations presented in Appendix F of this manual, the categories 5-9, 10-14, and 15-17 years are used for age groups. The country should make the appropriate adjustments to the tables in case it uses other groups.

5.6. Gender analysis

A gender perspective is needed, in the analysis of child labour survey data, to reveal gender-based disparities among boys and girls.

More than simple disaggregation by sex. Gender analysis can be performed as long as sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive data are collected in the survey. But more is needed. Applying a “gender lens” also entails comprehensive analysis and interpretation of the sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive data, if researchers are to understand how and why the nature and possible causes of child labour differ between boys and girls, and how work can affect boys and girls differently.

The aim of incorporating the gender perspective is not to present gender as a predominant theme throughout the report, but to include the sex variable among those relevant variables affording a deeper understanding of children's activities and the child labour problem in its many dimensions. Consequently, it is of interest to capture the differences, similarities, and relationships in general between male and female children.

To capture the different dimensions of the work experience of boys and girls, several relevant variables must be analysed, among them –

- socio-economic status;
- occupation;
- status in employment;
- nature of employment (permanent, seasonal, etc.);
- income level;
- benefits received at work;
- hours of work;
- location;
- time of day of work;
- school attendance; and
- incidence of work-related accidents and illnesses.

Differential disadvantages by gender. The Nicaragua survey, for example, revealed that, whereas boys are more involved in dangerous work activities and thus are more likely to suffer accidents and illnesses than girls, females work longer hours than boys on average, thus reducing the time they have available for study and rest (ILO, 2003e). These simple findings show that both groups are disadvantaged but in different ways, and reveal the need, in establishing a more complete picture of the child labour problem, for analysis of the many aspects of work related to each group.

Significance of including household chores in the analysis. With boys and girls, it is especially important to include household chores in the analysis. When analysis is restricted to economic activities, boys usually appear at a significant disadvantage. But, when household chores are part of the study, the burden faced by many girls becomes evident. The analysis in Belize, for example, showed that, whereas 14.8 per cent of boys and only 7.3 per cent of girls aged 5 to 17 years were involved in economic activities, a measure of children's activities that included both economic activities and household chores identified a total of 78.0 per cent of boys compared to 79.7 per cent of girls active (ILO, 2003a).

Necessary qualities in the analyst. Successfully incorporating the gender theme in the report requires the analyst to have previous familiarity with gender analysis or, at the least, sensitivity towards the topic, reflected in awareness and understanding of the cultural and social factors that determine the context for sex-based differences.

Supplementary sources. For a comprehensive summary of the different issues surrounding gender in labour statistics, see ILO working paper *Incorporating gender issues in labour statistics* (2001). For a good overview of gender concerns in child labour-related efforts, refer to the ILO publication *Good practices: Gender mainstreaming in actions against child labour* (2002f). The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Information's (1997) *Handbook for producing national statistical reports on women and men* also provides clear guidance for presenting and discussing statistics to effectively show similarities, disparities, and relationships between men and women.

5.7. Control groups

Comparisons between working children and non-working children, and between child labourers and not child labourers, do not provide proof of causality. But they can prove enlightening when using the survey data to show the strength of relationships between variables, and even suggest possible causes and consequences of child labour. In Costa Rica, for example, the 2002 child labour survey results showed that, whereas 44.1 per cent of working children had dropped out of school and 51.7 per cent of those that were still attending were behind the grade that corresponded to their age, only 6.9 per cent of child non-workers in the same age group had dropped out of school, and only 26.6 per cent were behind their corresponding grade (ILO, 2003b). Using the group of non-workers as a control, it seems that work presents an additional obstacle to children's retention and normal progress in school.

When interpreting results and drawing conclusions, analysts should note that, whereas analysis of correlations and comparisons with control groups might hint at causal relationships, they do not provide solid evidence of the causes and consequences of child labour.

5.8. Use of external sources of information

Qualitative and quantitative information from external sources should be included throughout the report to strengthen the analysis:

- This information can be used to support conclusions and recommendations made on the basis of the current child labour survey.
- Even where external information is inconsistent with the survey findings, discussion of possible reasons for the differences can produce interesting results.
- In cases where the household survey data, due to a limited number of observations, cannot provide very detailed or reliable estimates, external sources may sometimes be used to corroborate the findings. In the national report for Belize, for example, survey findings based on few observations regarding injuries and illnesses related to work activities among boys and girls were strengthened by presenting detailed Social Security Board information:
 - Data from the Social Security Board indicate that 149 persons in the 14 to 17 year age group were injured on the job in 2001. The majority of injuries to the children were open wounds and injury to blood vessels (53 per cent), and another 32 per cent were classified as early trauma (head, fingers, feet, etc.). Children in Orange Walk, Corozal and Stann Creek districts account for 74 per cent of all the injuries. These districts are home to the sugar cane, citrus and banana industries where it is suspected that children are more exposed to the use of farm tools. The total injuries to this age group alone amounted to 3,484 lost days and approximately BZ\$47,990 (Belize Social Security Board, 2002).” *ILO, 2003a, page 49.*

5.9. Presentation of results

Optimal presentation of results will depend on –

- type of data (continuous or discrete measurement data, categorical or binary);
- available space; and
- other factors.

Use of tables and graphs. Results may simply be discussed in the text, but tabular presentation (one-, two- or multiple-way) is usually a great help to the reader. Graphs, to a lesser extent, are also useful.

5.9.1. Tables

An effective national report

- presents the main survey findings in detailed and organized tabulations; and
- provides sound interpretations of results.

Tables display information in a concise and orderly manner. Nevertheless, not all data collected in the survey need to be tabulated or cross-tabulated. The analyst should judge which tables to include in the report, which variables to choose, and which variable categories and variable crossings are most interesting.

Appendix F consists of sample tables that can serve as guides in preparing dummy tables before data analysis begins. National reports need not include all feasible tables – analysts have to judge, in any given survey, which tables are appropriate.

See box 10 for helpful suggestions on preparing clean, comprehensible tables.

Box 10

Tips for preparing clean comprehensible data tables

- Tables should appear near the first reference to them in the text.
- Tables should be sequentially numbered throughout the report.
- Table titles should be concise and descriptive.

The title should present the reader with a clear idea of the table's content, the population included, and the reference period. The title should start with the general topic, followed by the items in the columns, followed by the items in the rows. For example, the title of a table of population with sex categories in columns and age categories in rows would be "Population by sex, by age group". Table titles should not be too long – additional information can be included in notes at the bottom of the table. The source of the information needs also be noted at the foot of the table, and the source reference should appear below all other notes.

- The "total" rows and columns should always be included.
- Appearance should be consistent for all tables.

Features such as font type, font effects, use of capital letters, indentations, and spaces should be used consistently across tables. Font size might vary depending on available space, but it should never be so small as to make reading difficult. The placement of the "total" column and row should also be the same across tables, that is, be either at the top or bottom (for rows), or left or right (for columns) in all tables.

- Present both numbers and proportions where appropriate.

The survey results provide more reliable information on proportions than on absolute values, so the tendency in most national child labour reports has been to publish proportions rather than numbers. Nonetheless, whenever proportions are reported, it is necessary to include the information on the total number of cases. This allows the reader to compute the estimated absolute values if desired. Often, however, the presentation of numbers tells a more powerful story compared to proportions, and, when numbers are presented, they should always be accompanied by the corresponding proportions. In summary, the proportions should always be presented, accompanied by either the absolute value for categories or only by the total number of cases.

- Cite the statistics displayed in the tables in the text.

If proportions are presented in the tables, these are the figures that should also be cited in the body of the text. That is, do not publish a table with only proportions yet cite absolute numbers in the text. This can confuse the reader.

- **Not all figures presented in the tables need discussion in the text.**

- **Frequency tables and cross-tabulations.**

The use of frequency tables is appropriate to present binary and categorical data. Measurement data can be divided into different categories or be presented through summary measures such as means, medians, and standard deviations. Cross-tabulations between two or more variables, on the other hand, might reveal information regarding the relationship between the variables.

- **Large numbers can be rounded to at least the hundreds digit.**

It is unlikely that the survey data provide results at a one-digit degree of accuracy. Therefore, figures such as 189,882 can be presented as 189.9 (in thousands).¹ This is not recommended, however, when the numbers are small.

- **Round per cents to one digit after the decimal.**

It is not likely that the survey data provide results beyond a one-digit decimal degree of accuracy; therefore, per cents should be presented with only one decimal point, e.g. 45.7 per cent rather than 45.74 per cent.

- **Be consistent with the use of decimal points within tables.**

If per cents are shown at the one decimal point level, be sure all per cent figures use one decimal point. For example, per cents should be presented as 14.7 and 30.0.

- **Sums of column or row counts must be computed using unrounded numbers, and the total should be appropriately rounded.**

If necessary, this note may be added to the foot of the table: "Detail may not add to totals because of rounding."

- **Ensure that all totals match between tables with the same population denominator.**

All tables that refer to the same population groups should have the same population totals. If, for example, a table presenting information regarding the education of all working children includes the total number of working children, and another table presents the health of all working boys and girls with the total number of working children, the total figures for working children in each table should match. If they do not, it is probably due to differing numbers of missing data on education and health. In such cases, a note should be placed at the bottom of the tables, explaining that a certain number of cases are missing.

- **Define all symbols and acronyms used in the table.**

Notes should be placed at the bottom of the table explaining the meaning of any symbols and acronyms used. These notes should appear above the note regarding "source", which is the last entry.

- **Minimize the use of abbreviations.**

Space limitations might make it necessary to reduce the length of column and/or row labels, and abbreviations may appear a good solution. Nevertheless, some readers might not be acquainted with the abbreviations used, unless they are commonly used or known (e.g. km., lbs.), hence it is better to minimize their use.

- **Be consistent with wording between tables and between the text and the tables.**

If the terms "attending school" and "not attending school" are used in data tables, decide to use these terms exclusively when referring to the same concept. Do not, for example, mix terminology such as "schooling" and "not schooling" and "at school" and "not at school". These changes in terminology only risk confusing readers, leading them to question whether these expressions refer to different definitions or concepts.

- **Cells should not be left empty.**

If zero is the number measured by the survey, "0" must appear in the cell. If the combination of variable categories is not applicable to the data, this should be noted, preferably with a symbol explained at the bottom of the table. If the observed value is rounded to zero, a symbol should appear in the cell and be explained at the bottom of the table.

¹ In such a case, the numbers can be expressed in thousands or hundreds. For instance 189,882 should not be rounded to 189,900 because zeros are significant digits, but it could be rounded to 189.9 (in thousands) or 1,898.8 (in hundreds).

For every table presented, a discussion of the main findings in the table should follow. This entails describing groups or categories that particularly stand out, e.g. regions

with high numbers or proportions of working children or child labourers and regions with low figures. Descriptions of apparent patterns or trends should be included in the discussions. For example, it is important to highlight the pattern of boys' and girls' labour and its consequences in terms of gender relations in the household and the workplace. If there has been evidence or previous research that might help explain why certain patterns or trends prevail, it is important to discuss this as well. This information provides the reader with some of the answers to the question of "why?"

5.9.2. Graphical displays

In many cases, data may be presented in a more visually appealing form using a graphical display (e.g. bar charts, column graphs, line graphs, maps), even though more data, and more detailed information, can be contained in a table. To avoid overcrowding the main text, the same data do not need presentation in both tabular and graphical forms, but a choice should be made. It may be appropriate, in some cases, to present the graphics within the main body of the text and leave the detailed tables to an appendix. Where this is so, it is important to refer to the location of the table in the body of text, e.g.: "For detailed tabulations see table X, Appendix X." See box 11 for hints on preparing effective graphs.

Box 11

Tips for presenting data graphically

The purpose of graphics is to represent results in an accurate, clear, and efficient manner. They should be visually appealing and easy for readers to comprehend, even independently of the text.

- **Graphs should illustrate only important points.**

Graphs take up space, and not all data can be represented graphically. It is up to the analyst then, to judge which information will benefit most from graphical presentation.

- **Graphs should be sequentially numbered within chapters.**

This makes graphs easy to locate within each chapter.

- **Graphs should be understandable without reference to the text.**

This entails giving each graph a title that refers to the content, the population, and the reference period. It may also be necessary to include notes at the foot of graphs to explain acronyms, abbreviations, etc. If necessary, a key to the graph or labels should also be included. The source of the information needs to be noted at the foot of the graph, and the source information should be the last entry at the bottom of the graph.

- **Choose a clear graphical display.**

A wide choice of graph types are available, among them line, bar, column, stacked column, area, and scatter plots. The most appropriate type for particular data points depends partly on the number of categories to be represented and their relative size. The analyst might want to experiment with representing particular data points using different types before choosing the most appropriate one. The analyst should also keep in mind that the many segments of each graph should be clearly distinguishable in the different types of media in which the report may be disseminated, such as two-colour printed copies, black-and-white printed copies, or downloadable Internet files. Redundant features such as excessive gridlines or unnecessary 3-D effects should be avoided, since they crowd the plot area and risk distracting the reader.

- **Appearance should be consistent.**

Characteristics such as font type, size and effects, use of capital letters, and spaces should be used consistently across graphs. Font size should be large enough that labels are easily legible.

- **Graphs should often be 50 per cent wider than they are high.**

Most graphs look awkward if they are too high or too wide. With most graphs, the proportion of width to height should be roughly 1.5 to 1. The actual proportions used, however, also depend on what is being graphed, the number of data points, and the type of graph.

-
- **Axis scales should start with the minimum value.**

If scale breaks are used, these should be visible. Otherwise, there is the risk that the reader will understand differences between categories as being larger/smaller than they actually are.

- **All axes should be properly labelled.**

The unit of measurement for each axis must be clear, and tick marks and gridlines included where necessary. It should also be obvious to the reader which are the variables and variable categories included in the graph.

- **Define all symbols and acronyms used in the graphs at the bottom of the graph.**

It is also a good idea to use the same symbols across graphs.

Ensure that each graph or table is relevant. Each table and graph used in the national country report should be included only because it provides the reader with important information, whether this is new information, confirmation of previous findings or trends, or descriptions of the population that will help the reader better understand the conditions within which girls and boys live or the nature and extent of child labour.

Double-check references to table or graph in associated interpretations in the main text. Each table and graph must be referenced in the body of the report together with an interpretation of the main findings. After the first draft of the report has been completed, therefore, the author should double-check to make sure that each table and graph is referenced in the text.

Delete irrelevant or unimportant tables and graphs. Delete tables or graphs that are never mentioned in the main body of the text – it can be assumed that the information they contain is irrelevant or unimportant to the current report. (At the same time, as we have mentioned above, all tables and figures must be understandable without reference to the text.)

Short glossary of useful terms

Terms related to the survey

Coefficient of variation (CV): Defined as the standard error divided by the mean. Used as a measure of dispersion or sampling variability.

Coverage errors: *Undercoverage* occurs when units in the target population are missing from the frame. *Overcoverage* occurs when some units in the sampling frame are not in the target population.

De facto residence survey: Type of survey where the association of individuals is defined according to the place where they were staying at the time of the survey, regardless of their usual place of residence.

De jure residence survey: Type of survey where the association of individuals with households is defined according to the person's usual place of residence – i.e. visitors at the household are excluded, but usual residents are included in the survey even if they were temporarily away from the household at the time of the enumeration.

Design effect: Describes the amount by which the variance of a sample design is inflated compared to the variance if the sample were a simple random sample.

Design weight: Factor by which survey observations are weighted to produce estimates of the whole population. For each observation, the design weight is equal to the inverse of its probability of being selected into the sample, adjusted for non-response.

Dwelling: Housing structure in which one or more households may reside.

Household: Person or persons who have made arrangements, individually or in groups, for providing themselves with food or other essentials of living.

Non-response: Occurs when the required information is not obtained from units selected into the sample, or not for all relevant items for each of these units.

Non-sampling errors: Errors that are not related to the sampling methodology but that occur at other phases of the survey operation. These include, among others, errors due to response bias, response variance, editing, coding, data entry, undercoverage, overcoverage, sample selection, refusals, and not-at-home.

Primary sampling units: Area units of relatively large size chosen from the sampling frame at the first stage.

Response rate: Number of eligible sample units that respond, divided by the total number of eligible sampled units.

Sampling bias: The difference between an estimate based on a sample survey and the same estimate derived from a complete count using the same questionnaire, enumerators, instructions, and processing methods.

Sampling error: Refers to the difference between an estimate derived from a sample survey and the “true” value that would result if a census of the whole population were taken under the same conditions.

Sampling frame: Representation of the target survey population from which samples can be selected.

Self-weighting sample: Sample in which each elementary unit in the population has the same, non-zero, probability of coming into the sample.

Terms related to employment

Currently economically active population: All persons above a specified minimum age who are either employed or unemployed during a short reference time period, such as one week or one day.

Economically active at some time during the year: All persons above a specified minimum age for the measurement of the economically active population who experienced at least one week (or one day) of employment or unemployment in the course of the reference year.

Economically active population: All persons of either sex who furnish, during a specified time reference period, the supply of labour for the production of goods and services as defined by the United Nations Systems of National Accounts and Balances (SNA). This definition includes the production and processing of primary products, whether for the market, for barter, or for own consumption; the production of all other goods and services for the market; production of fixed assets for own use; and, with households that produce such goods and services for the market, the corresponding production for own consumption. The production of services for own consumption is excluded, except for housing services and paid domestic service.

Employed: Persons are considered employed if they are older than the age specified for measuring the economically active population and if, during a specified period, fell into one of the following categories: (a) performed some work for wage or salary, in cash or kind; (b) were temporarily not at work during the reference period, but had a formal attachment to their job, having already worked in their present job; (c) were self-employed, performing some work for profit or family gain, in cash or in kind; (d) persons with an enterprise – which may be a business enterprise, a farm, or a service undertaking – who are temporarily not at work during the reference period for some specified reason. Those who work at least one hour during the reference period (week or day) are considered employed.

Household chores: Domestic services considered non-economic activities, provided by household members without pay. Household chores include preparing and serving meals; making, mending, washing, and ironing clothes; shopping; caring for children, sick, infirm, or elderly persons in the household; cleaning, decorating, and maintaining the dwelling; and transporting household members and their goods.

Industry (branch of economic activity): Activity, as defined in terms of types of goods produced and services provided, of the establishment in which an employed person worked during the survey reference period.

Labour force: See “currently economically active population”.

Light work: Work that is (a) unlikely to be harmful to the health or development of boys and girls; and (b) does not prejudice their attendance at school; participation in vocational orientation or training programmes approved by the competent authority; or their capacity to benefit from the instruction received.

Non-economic activities: Activities that fall outside the boundary of economic activity as defined by the United Nations Systems of National Accounts (SNA) –

e.g. domestic tasks in one's own home, nursing own children, sewing own clothes, repairs in one's own house, and volunteer community activities.

Occupation: Kind of work performed during the reference period by the person employed, as defined by the set of tasks and duties assigned and/or performed by an individual.

Population not currently active: Includes those not in the labour force: (a) those above the age specified for measuring the economically active population not employed and not unemployed, and (b) those below the age specified for measuring the economically active population.

Status in employment: Status of economically active persons with respect to their employment – i.e. whether they are employers, employees, own-account workers, unpaid family workers, or other.

Unemployed: All persons above the age specified for measuring the economically active population who were without work during the reference period, but who were available for work and seeking work. In a more relaxed definition, the unemployed were without work and available for work, but were not seeking work.

Usually economically active population: Those employed and unemployed for more than a certain number of weeks during a long reference period, such as one year.

Worst forms of child labour: 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.

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Appendix A

Outline of SIMPOC national report and minimum sample tabulation plan

- A. Preface** (to be written by ILO/IPEC and/or the National Statistical Office/Ministry of Labour)
- B. Acknowledgements** (optional)
- C. Table of contents** (including a list of tables, boxes and figures)
- D. Executive summary** (3-5 pages)
- E. Chapter 1 – Introduction**
 - a. General background of the country
 - (i) Population and human capital
 - 1. Demographics
 - 2. Health
 - 3. Education
 - (ii) Economic structure
 - (b) Justification for the survey
 - (i) Global child labour situation
 - (ii) National child labour situation
 - (iii) Legal framework
 - (iv) Institutions related to child labour
 - (c) Objectives of the survey
 - (d) Arrangement of the report
- F. Chapter 2 – Methodology and data collection**
 - (a) Scope and coverage of the National Child Labour Survey
 - (b) Questionnaire
 - (c) Sampling design and implementation
 - (d) Pre-test
 - (e) Training of interviewers and supervisors and field work
 - (f) Data processing
 - (g) Response rates and weighting
 - (h) Reliability estimates (design effects and standard errors)
 - (i) Lessons learned and future improvements
- G. Chapter 3 – Characteristics of the survey population**
 - (a) Population composition
 - Table 1. Total population by sex, by age group
 - Table 2. Population by urban/rural residency and sex, by age group
 - Table 3. Population of children 0 to 17 years by sex, by single years of age
 - Table 4. Population by urban/rural residency and sex, by province/region, and sex ratios by urban/rural residency, by province/region

(b) Household economic characteristics¹

Table 5. Number and per cent of households by income quintile, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Table 6. Number and per cent of female-headed households by income quintile, province/region, and urban/rural residency

Table 7. Number and per cent of households by main activity from which households derive income, by province/region, and urban/rural residency

Table 8. Per cent of households by asset ownership, by province/region, and urban/rural residency

Table 9. Average number of assets and per cent of households by cumulative number of assets, by province/region, and urban/rural residency

Table 10. Average number of assets and per cent of households with children with cumulative number of assets, by region, and urban/rural residency

Table 11. Number and per cent of households by type of housing tenure, by province/region, and urban/rural residency

(c) Household and education characteristics

Table 12. Average household size and per cent of households by size, by province/region, and urban/rural residency

Table 13. Per cent distribution of households by number of children, by province/region, and urban/rural residency

Table 14. Population 5 years of age and more, by highest level of school completed, by age group and sex

Table 15. Average number of years of school completed of population 10 years and more, by urban/rural residency and sex, by age group

Table 16. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years currently attending school by sex, by age

H. Chapter 4 – Definitions of work and child labour

(a) Economic activity in the last 12 months

(b) Current economic activity

(c) Non-economic activity

(d) Child labour, etc.

I. Chapter 5 – Children's activities

(a) Working children

Table 17. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years that worked in the last 12 months and the last 7 days by sex and age

Table 18. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years that worked in the last 12 months and the last 7 days by urban/rural residency and province/region

(b) Housekeeping activities

Table 19. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week, by sex and age group

Table 20. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week, by province/region and urban/rural residency

¹ If a wealth index is computed, it can be tabulated instead of income in tables 5-6 and tables 7-11 can be excluded.

Table 21. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week by urban/rural residency, and by sex and age

(c) School attendance of children

Table 22. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by school attendance and involvement in housekeeping activities, by sex and age group

Table 23. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years not working, by school attendance and involvement in housekeeping activities, by sex and age group

Table 24. Median number of hours worked per week for working children 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Table 25. Median number of hours per week devoted to housekeeping activities among children 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

(d) Characteristics of work

Industry

Table 26. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex and age group

Table 27. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by industry, by province and urban/rural residency

Occupation

Table 28. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by occupation, by sex and age group

Table 29. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by occupation, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Status in employment

Table 30. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by sex and age

Table 31. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Location of work

Table 32. Number and per cent of all working children 5 to 17 years working at home or away from home by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Hours of work

Table 33. Median number of hours, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by sex and age

Table 34. Median number of hours worked, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Table 35. Median number of hours worked, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by industry

J. Chapter 6 – Incidence and characteristics of child labour

Incidence of child labour

Table 36. Number and per cent of all children and all working children 5 to 17 years of age who are child labourers by sex and age group

Table 37. Number and per cent of all children and all working children 5 to 17 years who are child labourers by urban/rural residency and province/region

Industry

Table 38. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex, age group, province/region, and urban/rural residency

Occupation

Table 39. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by occupation, by sex and age

Employment status

Table 40. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Location of work

Table 41. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years working at home or away from home by age, sex, and urban/rural residency

Time of day and hours of work

Table 42. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by time of day of work, by sex, age group, and urban/rural residency

Table 43. Median number of hours worked per week for child labourers 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex, age group, and urban/rural residency

K. Chapter 7 – Child labour and children’s education, health, and household well-being

(a) Education

Attendance

Table 44. Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years who are currently attending school, by sex, age, urban/rural residency, and region

Table 45. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by industry

Table 46. Median number of hours worked per week for child labourers 5 to 17 years attending and not attending school by sex, age and urban/rural residency

Table 47. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who are currently attending school and report that work affects their regular attendance or studies by sex and age

Reported reasons for non-attendance

Table 48. Per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years, by reported reason for non-attendance, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Grade-age distortions

Table 49. Grade-age distortions for child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years attending school by age

Grade repetition

Table 50. Number and per cent of all child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years who are repeaters, by sex and age group

School dropping out

Table 51. Number and per cent of all child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years who dropped out of school, by sex and age group

(b) Health and safety

(i) Hazardous conditions

Table 52. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who are not supervised at work by an adult by sex, age, urban/rural residency, region, and occupation

Table 53. Number and per cent of all child labourers who reported working in hazardous conditions by sex, age group, and industry

(ii) Injuries/Illnesses

(c) Household well-being

Table 54. Number and per cent of child labourers by reported effect on household if child stops working by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

L. Chapter 8 – The context for child labour

(a) Household size

Table 55. Average household size, number of children, number of adults, and dependency ratio for child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years, by age and urban/rural residency

(b) Household structure

Table 56. Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by sex, by household structure and parent survival

(c) Socio-economic status

(i) Income²

Table 57. Median household income of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by household structure, parent survival, family size, urban/rural residency, and province/region

Table 58. Per cent of children in each income quintile by work status

(ii) Parent's education

Table 59. Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by highest level of schooling achieved by parent

(iii) Economic shocks

(d) Perceptions on reason child works, children's contribution to household income and children's savings

Table 60. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by reported reason of parent or guardian for letting child work, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Table 61. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years that earn an income by contribution to household income, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Table 62. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years that earn and income and save by reason for saving, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

M. Chapter 9 – Conclusions and recommendations

N. References

O. Appendixes (Questionnaire, etc.)

Following is a rough approximation of the relative weights of each section within the report, which can help guide the effort that should be devoted to each.

² If a wealth index is computed, it can be used instead of income in tables 57 and 58.

Table A. Relative weights of chapters and sections of the national report

Section of the report	Weight (out of 100)
A. Preface, B. Acknowledgements, C. Table of contents (including lists of tables, boxes and figures), and D. Executive summary	5
E. Introduction	10
F. Methodology and data collection	8
G. Characteristics of the survey population	10
H. Definitions of work and child labour	4
I. Children's activities	16
J. Incidence and characteristics of child labour	16
K. Child labour and children's education, health, and household well-being	10
L. The context for child labour	10
M. Conclusions	5
M. Recommendations	6

Appendix B

Suggested list of indicators on child labour and housekeeping activities

The following list suggests indicators that are easy to compute, yet provide a summarized but comprehensive picture of children's involvement in housekeeping activities and the child labour situation in a country. These indicators will ideally be comparable across countries and over time, thus the definitions and methodology used to compute them needs to be very clearly presented. Except for the indicator on household chores, the set of indicators relates to child labourers, not working children in general, which is what we are most interested in analysing.

For each individual indicator, a set of relevant background variables is suggested. If other background variables, such as ethnicity for example, are considered important in the analysis for a particular country, analysts are encouraged to use them as well. If sample size allows, it would be interesting to compute the indicators for those child labourers that attend school and those that do not attend school separately.

Table B. Core indicators

Category	Indicator	Definition
1. Child labour	Current child labourers By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of children who reported working for pay (in cash or in kind), working for the family or as a domestic worker without pay during the reference week, meeting one of the following conditions: child is below the minimum age established in the legislation for the industry or type of work performed; child works excessive hours or more than the maximum established in the legislation for the age, industry or type of work; work is one of the worst forms; child works in unsafe conditions.
2. Housekeeping activities	Children performing housekeeping activities in own home By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of children who reported performing household chores in their own home above a minimum amount of hours per week that is considered to interfere with their schooling, development, etc.
3. Intensity of labour	Mean number of hours worked By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Sum of the hours worked per week by child labourers divided by the total number of child labourers.
4. Industry	Child labour in various industries By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of all child labourers in various industries.
5. Occupation	Child labour in various occupations By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of all child labourers in various occupations.

Category	Indicator	Definition
6. Location	Child labour by location of employment By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of child labourers that work at home versus away from home.
7. Status in employment	Child labour in various employment statuses By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of child labourers that work as regular employees, paid domestic workers, unpaid family workers, or other.
8. Working conditions	Child labourers that work under adverse working conditions at workplace By: age group, sex, urban/rural residency, and region/province	Number and per cent of child labourers that report working with dust, fumes, gas, in a noisy environment, with extreme temperatures or humidity, with dangerous tools, underground, at a height, with insufficient lighting, with chemicals, or carrying heavy loads.

1. ***Child labour***

The first indicator, that on child labour, is the one that will reveal the estimated magnitude of the problem in the country, and also for the different groups within the country. It is of interest, then, to know the extent of the problem at the national level in order to make comparisons over time and with other countries; but it is also relevant to be able to compare the magnitude of the problem for subgroups of child labourers within and between the countries and over time, hence the information should be disaggregated by sex, age group, region, etc.

2. ***Housekeeping activities***

The indicator on housekeeping activities reveals information on children's involvement in household chores, which can sometimes have an effect as negative as or worse than labour, especially if they absorb much of children's time or the chores in question are dangerous. Housekeeping activities then, just like labour, can affect children's schooling, health or development. This indicator gives an idea of the magnitude of children's involvement in housekeeping activities above a certain minimum hour threshold that is considered not harmful to them.

3. ***Intensity of labour***

One of the aspects of labour that can make it so harmful to children is the amount of hours that they devote to it, and the hours of work is one of the parameters that helps define hazardous work for different age groups. The indicator on the intensity of labour is meant to give an idea of how much time boy and girl labourers devote to economic activities on average.

4. ***Industry***

The information on industry provides information on where children perform their work and which the employment sectors are. This information is particularly relevant for policy intervention design. Also, certain industries, such as construction and mining, are usually considered too hazardous for children to be involved in.

5. ***Occupation***

The indicator on occupation will provide information on the actual tasks or occupations performed by child labourers at work. Occupation is one of those parameters that helps distinguish child labour from non-harmful types of work.

6. Location

The location of work of child labourers can give an idea of hazards faced at work. Children that work away from home are presumably more exposed to hazards. Examples of workplaces away from home are the employer's house and the street, which are known to involve significant potential dangers for child labourers, in particular for the most vulnerable ones (younger children, girls, etc).

7. Status in employment

This indicator will reveal the extent to which child labourers work for pay or provide their "help" to the family without direct monetary gain. Another important piece of information that will be revealed with this indicator is the extent to which child labourers are in paid domestic work, which is a significant category in many countries.

8. Working conditions

Adverse or hazardous conditions are another parameter that will help distinguish child labour from non-harmful work. This indicator aims to capture the information on the extent of these hazardous working conditions to provide an idea of the dangers that child labourers face at work.

Appendix C

Sample size and standard error

The data from the South Africa *Survey of activities of young people (1999)*, conducted by Statistics South Africa, South Africa Department of Labour, and the ILO/IPEC programme are used in the following example to illustrate the relationship between the standard error and the sample size of the estimate.

The estimate of the number of female children aged 5 to 9 engaged in economic activity for 3 hours a week or more and who were injured in the last 12 months is 6,024 (see table D.1). This estimate is based on a sample of 8 children, and the standard error of the estimate was found to be 3,405. Therefore, the lower limit of a 95 per cent confidence interval (CI)¹ for this estimate is -785, while the upper limit of the estimate is 12,834. Consequently, the “true” population value of girls aged 5-9 engaged in economic activity for 3 hours a week or more and who were injured in the last 12 months ranges from 0 to 12,834. Therefore, because the resulting estimate could range from zero children or the estimate could be twice as many children as estimated (12,834), the estimate of 6,024 can be considered statistically unreliable.

Table C.1. Descriptive information on the number of female children aged 5 to 9 engaged in economic activity for 3 hours a week or more and who were injured in the last 12 months, South Africa

Estimate	Sample size of the estimate	Standard error of the estimate	95 per cent confidence interval	
			Lower limit	Upper limit
6,024	8	3,405	-785	12,834

Source: Prof. David Stoker. June 2001. “Technical note on the estimation and the use of standard errors.” *Statistics South Africa*, table B.6.

Comparatively, the estimate for the number of females age 5-9 engaged in economic activity for 3 hours or more a week is 515,865 and is based on a sample of 509 children with a standard error of 32,559 (see table D.2). Therefore the 95 per cent CI results in a “true” population value ranging from 450,746 and 580,984, a more reliable estimate.

Table C.2. Descriptive information on the number of female children aged 5 to 9 engaged in economic activity for 3 hours or more a week, South Africa

Estimate	Sample size of the estimate	Standard error of the estimate	95 per cent confidence interval	
			Lower limit	Upper limit
515,865	509	32,559	450,746	580,984

Source: Prof. David Stoker. June 2001. “Technical note on the estimation and the use of standard errors”, *Statistics South Africa*, table B.4.

¹ “Approximately 95 per cent of the intervals from 1.96 standard errors below the estimate to 1.96 standard errors above the estimate would include the true population value.” United States Department of Labor. August 2001. *Employment and Earnings*. Volume 48, Number 8. Washington, D.C., USA, p. 152.

Appendix D

Choice of a threshold (a^2)

In order to define a threshold a^2 we estimate a conservative threshold based on information from the US Department of Labor (2001) publication on employment and earnings data collected from the Current Population Survey (CPS). The US Department of Labor does not calculate or, at least, it does not publish a ; however, we can estimate a by substituting the appropriate values specified below into the following formula where:

$$S_{xp} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{b}{x}\right)(p(1-p))}$$

$$S_{xp} = a$$

b parameter = 3,000 (near value of b given by the US Department of Labor for calculating approximate standard errors).

x base = 75,000 (the US Census Bureau only presents estimates from the Current Population Survey (CPS) when the base (x) is equal to 75,000 or greater)

p , proportion = .50 (this is the most conservative scenario, since no other value of p would produce a larger result of $p(1-p)$).

The choice of a is therefore calculated as

$$a = S_{xp} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{3,000}{75,000}\right)(0.50(1.0 - 0.50))} = 0.10$$

Appendix E

Estimate release criteria for SIMPOC surveys

13 March 2002

One of the requirements of SIMPOC countries is to produce a report describing the child labour situation in the country based on the findings of the national child labour survey. Each country will produce various weighted estimates to describe the population at the national and/or regional level. Furthermore, ILO/IPEC will also publish various estimates based on the SIMPOC Child Labour Survey data in order to further describe the child labour conditions in the SIMPOC countries.

Since the estimates are derived from a sample survey, and not from figures based on a complete count of the population of interest, for example a census, the estimates based on the sample survey may differ to some degree from figures based on a complete count taken under similar circumstances. An estimate based on a sample survey may differ from the true population figure due to two possible types of error: *non-sampling error* and *sampling error*. *Non-sampling errors* are errors that are not related to the sampling methodology but may occur at other phases of the survey operation. The extent of the non-sampling error is difficult to measure, since the error is introduced, for example, when the respondent interprets the question differently than the researchers intended, if interviewers misunderstand instructions, respondents are unwilling to give correct information, or if errors are associated with data processing (data entry, editing, and coding). If these errors occur unsystematically, they will have little effect on the estimates derived from the sample survey. However, if they do not occur randomly, they could introduce biases in the survey estimates. Of course, taking careful efforts to ensure that interviewers are highly qualified and well trained, survey questions are carefully designed, data processors are highly trained, and the most advanced data processing methodologies are used, can minimize the extent to which non-sampling errors affect survey estimates.

All estimates derived from a sample survey have some degree of *sampling error*. The sampling error of an estimate is the difference between an estimate based on a sample survey and the same estimate derived from a complete count using the same questionnaire, enumerators, instructions and processing methods in the absence of non-sampling errors. According to Hussmanns, R., Mehran, F, and Verma, V. (1990), "... information on the magnitude of sampling errors is essential in deciding the degree of detail into which the survey data may meaningfully be classified." As such, we would like to establish guidelines which users may follow when publishing estimates based on SIMPOC national survey data, given that all of the estimates are associated with varying degrees of sampling error.

The current paper, therefore, develops a formula (see formula 3) that readers can either adapt to their own survey specific characteristics and preferences or they can simply adopt the guidelines outlined in the conclusions section that will be followed by ILO/SIMPOC. The paper is organized in the following manner. Section one defines the standard error of an estimate and defines the standard error in the context of the design effect. The next section provides the main formula for identifying n , the number of sample cases associated with a particular design effect and standard error. The paper concludes with a discussion of how ILO/SIMPOC will use the methodology derived in this paper for publishing estimates based on SIMPOC surveys.

Definition of standard errors

A common measure of the sampling error is the variance of an estimate. The variance (σ_o^2) for a proportion based on a simple random sample is calculated using the following formula:

$$(1) \quad \sigma_o^2 = \left(1 - \frac{n}{N}\right) \left(\frac{p(1-p)}{n}\right)$$

In formula (1) n is the number of observations selected in the sample used to calculate the base of the estimate, N is number of observations in the universe and p is the proportion being estimated. As the SIMPOC child labour surveys are not likely to use the simple random sampling technique,

the standard error thus is defined within the context of the design effect. The design effect describes the amount with which the variance (σ^2) of a sample design is inflated compared to the variance (σ_o^2) if the sample were a simple random sample. It can be defined as “the ratio of the sampling variance of the design to the sampling variance, assuming a simple random sample.” (Henry, G., 1990, p.122). The average design effect of demographic surveys in developing countries is likely to range from 1.18 to 1.67 with an average of 1.4 (Verma, V. 1991). Taking the square root of 1.4 (which is used more often in practice, because it provides a comparable interpretation to the standard error)¹ indicates that the standard error is increased by a factor of 1.2 ($= \sqrt{1.4}$) over the standard error if the sample had been drawn using the simple random sample survey methodology.

The design effect is calculated using the following formula

$$\text{deff} = \frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma_o^2} \text{ where,}$$

$\sigma^2 =$ the variance of an estimated proportion p and

$\sigma_o^2 =$ the variance of an estimated proportion p under a simple random sample (formula given above in equation 1).

In general, the variance of an estimate, whether based on a simple random sample or not, can therefore be found by substituting σ_o^2 from equation (1) into the above equation and solving for σ^2 :

$$(2) \quad \sigma^2 = \text{deff} \left(1 - \frac{n}{N} \right) \left(\frac{p(1-p)}{n} \right)$$

According to the formula above, the variance is influenced by the sample size the estimate is based on, n . That is, everything else constant the larger the n the smaller the standard error and the smaller the n the larger the standard error. When an estimate, therefore, is based on a small number of observations the standard error tends to be very large and thus does not reveal very useful estimates. For an example of how the reliability of an estimate can vary dependent on the sample size the estimate is based on see Appendix E.

The following methodology is therefore, used to determine the number of observations, n , that an estimated proportion is based on, where ILO/SIMPOC deems it necessary to publish a warning as to the reliability of the estimate.

Estimates of n

We begin by defining the variance of an estimated proportion a^2 , that we accept as the maximum variance for which we release estimates. That is, if the variance of an estimated proportion, σ^2 , is greater than a^2 , the estimate is published with a warning.

In other words, we consider the variance of an estimate too large to conclude meaningful results and therefore warrant a warning when publishing when the following condition holds:

$$\sigma^2 > a^2$$

In order to define n , the number of sample cases that are associated with a variance of an estimated proportion less than a^2 we use the formula established in equation (2) where:

$$\text{deff} \left(1 - \frac{n}{N} \right) \left(\frac{p(1-p)}{n} \right) > a^2$$

and solving for n in the above equation we find the following:

¹ *ibid.*

$$(3) \quad n < \frac{\text{deff}}{a^2} \cdot p(1-p)$$

Note that the finite population correction factor $\left(1 - \frac{n}{N}\right)$ can be omitted when the sampling fraction n/N is less than 5 per cent (Henry, G., 1990).

Formula three, above, is the final formula, which can therefore be used to calculate n based on selected design effects and values of a and p . For the purposes of publication, ILO/SIMPOC will assume $a = 0.10$ (see Appendix III for calculation of a) and $p = \frac{1}{2}$ since this is the worst case scenario as no other value of p produces a larger value for $p(1-p)$. Therefore the value of n associated with different design effects are presented in table E.1 below.

Table E.1. Calculated values of n for various design effects

Design effect (deff)	n , minimum number of observations for presenting summary statistics
1.0	25
1.4	35
1.5	38
1.6	40
1.7	43
1.8	45
1.9	48
2.0	50

Note: The various values of n are calculated using equation 3) above and assuming $a = 0.10$ and $p = \frac{1}{2}$.

Conclusions

A design effect of 1.0 indicates that the sampling variance of a particular design is equal to the sampling variance assuming a simple random sample, which is likely never to be the case for SIMPOC Child Labour Surveys. In general, the costs of a simple random sample rule it out as a sampling methodology used by SIMPOC. The design effect of the SIMPOC Child Labour Surveys, therefore, is likely to range between 1.0 and 2.0, again noting that the average design effect values from demographic surveys in 12 developing countries was 1.4 (Verma, V. 1991).

Based on the methodology and table outlined above ILO/SIMPOC will publish estimates of proportions or levels that are based on fewer than 25 cases in the denominator with the following warning.²

“Figures should be interpreted with caution as estimates are based on a small sample size.”

Analyst should be wary of any table where most of the estimates include this warning, and it is advised that the table be re-examined for its usefulness. In such cases, the analyst should decide if the table can be collapsed into fewer categories. For example, we present in table E.2 the percentage of children working and not attending school by single year age groups and sex:

² While the above methodology, and therefore the criteria established for publishing estimates of proportions, is based on the standard error formula for proportions, the same criteria is applied to publishing estimates of levels. It is likely that the criteria based on estimates of levels, and therefore the magnitude of the standard errors of levels, would not differ greatly from the criteria established above.

Table E.2. Example: Per cent of children working and not attending school by single year age groups and sex

Age	Male	Female	Total
6	*3.2	*2.0	2.6
7	*1.2	*0.5	*0.9
8	*0.4	*0.5	*0.4
9	*0.9	*0.6	*0.8
10	*1.0	*0.7	*0.9
11	*1.1	*0.8	0.9
12	3.4	*1.1	2.2
13	4.3	*0.8	2.6
14	4.1	*2.4	3.3
15	6.9	*1.8	4.3
16	5.8	3.6	4.8
17	11.8	5.4	8.3
Total	3.4	1.6	2.5

* Figures should be interpreted with caution as estimates are based on a small sample size.

In table 2, many of the figures presented are based on sample sizes of less than 25 cases thus heeding the warning to interpret the estimates with caution. In this cases it is more appropriate and useful to present the data into collapsed age categories (at least for the younger age groups) as in table 3, where no warnings are necessary.

Table E.3. Example: Per cent of children working and not attending school by age and sex

Age	Male	Female	Total
6-9	1.5	0.9	1.2
10-14	2.7	1.2	1.9
15-17	7.9	3.6	5.7
Total	3.4	1.6	2.5

Finally, the sample size of a survey should be determined in part by selective target groups and indicators for which reliable estimates are desirable. Obviously, however, not every indicator or target group can be taken into consideration when estimating the appropriate sample size. Compliance with the above guidelines allow data users to be more vigilant in recognizing unusual patterns in the data and more responsible when publishing estimates based on SIMPOC Child Labour Survey data. However, it does not guarantee the reliability of any one particular estimate. In South Africa, for example, the estimate of the number of children aged 5 to 17 residing in the Eastern Cape province and engaged in economic activities for three hours a week or more and who were injured in the last 12 months is 64,185 (n=39, SE=19,213). The 95 per cent CI for this estimate suggest that the “true” population value lies somewhere between 25,758 and 102,611, suggesting that even for an estimate based on a sample size of 39 the “true” population value could be almost four times as high as the lower-limit estimate. Given this wide range the estimate may not prove to be a very illustrative indicator of work related injuries of children in the Eastern Cape Province.

Table E.4. Descriptive information on the number of children aged 5 to 17 residing in the Eastern Cape Province and engaged in economic activity for 3 hours a week or more and who were injured in the last 12 months, South Africa

Estimate	Sample size of the estimate	Standard error of the estimate	95 per cent confidence interval	
			Lower limit	Upper limit
64 185	39	19 213	25 758	102 611

Source: Prof. David Stoker. June 2001. "Technical note on the estimation and the use of standard errors", *Statistics South Africa*, table B.6.

Data users should be extremely familiar with the purpose and methodologies underlining the surveys they are using and always contemplate and consider the face validity of any calculated estimate.

Appendix F

Dummy tables

The following set of dummy tables is based on SIMPOC's sample questionnaire, and should be modified according to the questionnaire used in each country. This suggests that some of the dummy tables presented might not be applicable, while others that would be very interesting if data are available do not appear here. Similarly, analysts should modify the background variables and the variable categories presented in the tables to fit the particular case of their countries, including the categories for age groups, hours of work, etc.

Table 1. Total population by sex, by age group

Age	Total		Males			Females		
	Number	Per cent of total population	Number	Per cent of total males	Per cent of total population in age group	Number	Per cent of total females	Per cent of total population in age group
Total		100.0		100.0			100.0	
0-4								
5-9								
10-14								
15-19								
20-24								
25-29								
30-34								
35-39								
40-44								
45-49								
50-54								
55-59								
60-64								
65-69								
70-74								
75-79								
80-84								
85-89								
90+								
Not specified								
Notes:								
Source:								

Table 2. Population by urban/rural residency and sex, by age group

Age	Urban						Rural					
	Total		Males		Females		Total		Males		Females	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Total		100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0
0-4												
5-9												
10-14												
15-19												
20-24												
25-29												
30-34												
35-39												
40-44												
45-49												
50-54												
55-59												
60-64												
65-69												
70-74												
75-79												
80-84												
85-89												
90+												
Not specified												
Notes:												
Source:												

Table 3. Population of children 0 to 17 years by sex, by single years of age

Age	Total		Males		Females	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Total		100.0		100.0		100.0
0						
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						
13						
14						
15						
16						
17						

Notes:

Source:

Table 4. Population by urban/rural residency and sex, by province/region, and sex ratios^{a/} by urban/rural residency, by province/region

Region	Total				Urban				Rural			
	Total	Males	Females	Sex ratio	Total	Males	Females	Sex ratio	Total	Males	Females	Sex ratio
Total												
Province/region												
Province 1												
Province 2												
Province 3												
Province 4												
-												
-												
-												
Province n												

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} Sex ratios are calculated by dividing the number of males by the number of females and multiplying by 100, and are interpreted as the number of males for every 100 females. A sex ratio of 100 would indicate a perfectly sex-balanced population, whereas sex ratios greater than 100 would suggest a numerical dominance of men and sex ratios less than 100 would indicate a numerical dominance of women.

Table 5. Number and per cent of households by income^{a/} quintile^{b/}, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	Total households	Quintile 1		Quintile 2		Quintile 3		Quintile 4		Quintile 5		Not specified	
		Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households								

Total

Province/region

Province 1

Province 2

Province 3

Province 4

-

-

-

Province n

Residence

Urban

Rural

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} If a wealth index is computed, this table should present the distribution of households in quintiles according to the wealth index.

^{b/} Quintiles should be calculated on the entire sample of households first, and are the income values that divide the households into 5 equal categories. Therefore 20 per cent of the total number of households would be in quintile 1.20 per cent in quintile 2, and so on. Most statistical programs will calculate quintiles automatically. For example, in STATA the command is *xtile*.

Table 6. Number and per cent of female-headed households^{a/} by income^{b/} quintile, province/region and urban/rural residency

	Total number of households	Female-headed households	
		Number	Per cent of total households
Total			
Quintile			
Quintile 1			
Quintile 2			
Quintile 3			
Quintile 4			
Quintile 5			
Province/region			
Province 1			
Province 2			
Province 3			
Province 4			
-			
-			
-			
Province n			
Residence			
Urban			
Rural			
Notes:			
Source:			
^{a/} Female-headed households are those where the person recognized as the head by household members is female.			
^{b/} If a wealth index is computed, this table should use wealth index quintiles instead of income quintiles.			

Table 7.* Number and per cent of households by main activity from which households derive income, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	Total Households	Regular wage employment		Self-employment (agriculture)		Self-employment (non-agricultural)		Agricultural labour		Other casual labour		Other sources ^{al}		Not Specified	
		Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households

Total

Province/region

Province 1

Province 2

Province 3

Province 4

-

-

-

Province n

Residence

Urban

Rural

Notes:

Source:

^{al} Here, "other sources" include income from pensions, dividends, interest, etc., and the response category "other". If there are other response categories with few respondents, these could also be combined in the "other sources" category.

* If a wealth index is computed and used in Table 5, this table may be omitted.

Table 8.* Percent of households by asset ownership, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	None	Televisions	Refrigerators	Cars	Motorbikes	Bicycles	Radios	Radios	Telephones	Not specified
Total										
Province/region										
Province 1										
Province 2										
Province 3										
Province 4										
-										
-										
-										
Province n										
Residence										
Urban										
Rural										
Notes:										
Source:										
* If a wealth index is computed and used in Table 5, this table may be omitted.										

Table 9.* Average number of assets and per cent of households by cumulative number of assets, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	Average number of assets ^{a/}	Number of assets ^{a/}				
		None	1-4	5-8	9-12	13 or more
Total						
Province/region						
Province 1						
Province 2						
Province 3						
Province 4						
-						
-						
-						
Province n						
Residence						
Urban						
Rural						

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} Assets include televisions, refrigerators, cars, motor-bikes, bicycles, radios, and telephones. The breakdowns may be different, dependent upon the country-specific distribution.

* If a wealth index is computed and used in Table 5, this table may be omitted.

Table 10. Average number of assets and percent of households with children with cumulative number of assets, by region and urban/rural residency

Region	Average number of assets ^{a/}	Number of assets ^{a/}					Not specified
		None	1-4	5-8	9-12	13 or more	
Total							
Province/region							
Province 1							
Province 2							
Province 3							
Province 4							
-							
-							
-							
Province n							
Residence							
Urban							
Rural							

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} Assets include televisions, refrigerators, cars, motor-bikes, bicycles, radios, and telephones. The breakdowns may be different, dependent upon the country-specific distribution.

* If a wealth index is computed and used in Table 5, this table may be omitted.

Table 11.* Number and per cent of households by type of housing tenure, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	Total households	Owned		Provided free by employer or owner		Rented, private owner		Rented, govt/public owner		Subsidised by employer		Other ^{a/}		Not specified	
		Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households	Number	Per cent of total households
Total															
Province/region															
Province 1															
Province 2															
Province 3															
Province 4															
-															
-															
-															
Province n															
Residence															
Urban															
Rural															
Notes:															
Source:															
^{a/} If there are response categories with few respondents, these could also be combined with the other category.															
* If a wealth index is computed and used in Table 5, this table may be omitted.															

Table 12. Average household size and percent of households by size, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	Average household size	Household size (number of members)					
		1	2 - 3	4 - 5	6 - 7	8 - 9	10 or more
Total							
Province/region							
Province 1							
Province 2							
Province 3							
Province 4							
-							
-							
-							
Province n							
Residence							
Urban							
Rural							
Notes:							
Source:							
The percentages are row percentages.							

Table 13. Per cent distribution of households by number of children, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Region	Number of children						
	None	1 - 2	3 - 4	5 - 6	7 - 8	9 or more	Not specified
Total							
Province/region							
Province 1							
Province 2							
Province 3							
Province 4							
-							
-							
-							
Province n							
Residence							
Urban							
Rural							
Notes:							
Source:							
The percentages are row percentages.							

Table 14. Population 5 years of age^{a/} and more, by highest level of school completed, by age group and sex

Age	Total	Highest grade completed													
		None		Some primary		Primary		Some secondary		Secondary		Tertiary		Not specified	
		Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group
Total															
5-9 ^{a/}															
10-14															
15-19															
20-24															
25-29															
30-34															
35-39															
40-44															
45-49															
50-54															
55-59															
60-64															
65 or more															
Males															
5-9 ^{a/}															
10-14															
15-19															
20-24															
25-29															
30-34															
35-39															

Age	Total	Highest grade completed													
		None		Some primary		Primary		Some secondary		Secondary		Tertiary		Not specified	
		Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group	Number	Per cent of total in age group
40-44															
45-49															
50-54															
55-59															
60-64															
65 or more															
Females															
5-9 ^{a/}															
10-14															
15-19															
20-24															
25-29															
30-34															
35-39															
40-44															
45-49															
50-54															
55-59															
60-64															
65 or more															
Notes:															
Source:															
^{a/} If the age for starting primary schooling according to the country's legislation is 6 or 7 years or other, the population of analysis could be those aged 6 or 7 and more, and the age group for tabulations could be modified to 6-9 or 7-9.															

Table 15. Average number of years of school completed of population 10 years and more, by urban/rural residency and sex, by age group

Age	Average number of years of school completed									
	Total			Urban			Rural			Not specified
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	
Total										
10-14										
15-19										
20-24										
25-29										
30-34										
35-39										
40-44										
45-49										
50-54										
55-59										
60-64										
65 or more										
Notes:										
Source:										

Table 16. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17^{a/} years currently attending school by sex, by age

Age	Total children	Total attending		Total males	Males attending		Total females	Females attending	
		Number	Per cent of total		Number	Per cent of total males		Number	Per cent of total females
Total									
5 ^{a/}									
6									
7									
8									
9									
10									
11									
12									
13									
14									
15									
16									
17									

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

Table 17. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years that worked in the last 12 months and the last 7 days by sex and age

Characteristic	Total children	Working children			
		Last 12 months		Last 7 days	
		Number	Per cent of total children	Number	Per cent of total children
Both sexes					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Boys					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Girls					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Notes:					
Source:					

Table 18. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years that worked in the last 12 months and the last 7 days by urban/rural residency and province/region

Characteristic	Total children	Working children			
		Last 12 months		Last seven days	
		Number	Per cent of total children	Number	Per cent of total children
Total					
Province/region					
Province 1					
Province 2					
Province 3					
Province 4					
-					
-					
-					
Province n					
Residence					
Urban					
Rural					
Notes:					
Source:					

Table 19. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week, by sex and age group

Characteristic	Children involved in housekeeping activities														
	Total	Hours devoted ^{a/}													
		1 to 7		8 to 14		15 to 21		22 to 28		29 to 35		36 to 42		More than 42	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	
Both sexes															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Boys															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Girls															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Notes:															
Source:															
^{a/} The different hours of work categories are not standardized. The distribution presented here (1-7, 8-14, 15-24, 22-28, 29-35, 36-42, and more than 42) provides an easy average per-day interpretation (i.e. one hour or less per day on average, between one and two hours per day on average, and so on). Analysts should feel free to use other hours of work categories, providing a justification for the categories chosen.															

Table 20. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Children involved in housekeeping activities														
	Total	Hours devoted ^{a/}													
		1 to 7		8 to 14		15 to 21		22 to 28		29 to 35		36 to 42		More than 42	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	
Total															
Province/region															
Province 1															
Province 2															
Province 3															
Province 4															
-															
-															
-															
Province n															
Residence															
Urban															
Rural															
Notes:															
Source:															

^{a/} The different hours of work categories are not standardized. The distribution presented here (1-7, 8-14, 15-24, 22-28, 29-35, 36-42, and more than 42) provides an easy average per day interpretation (i.e. one hour or less per day on average, between one and two hours per day on average, and so on). Analysts should feel free to use other hours of work categories, providing an explanation for the categories chosen.

Table 21. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17 years involved in housekeeping activities by number of hours devoted per week by urban/rural residency, and by sex and age

Characteristic	Children involved in housekeeping activities														
	Total	Hours devoted ^{a/}													
		1 to 7		8 to 14		15 to 21		22 to 28		29 to 35		36 to 42		More than 42	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	
Urban															
Both sexes															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Boys															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Girls															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															

Characteristic	Children involved in housekeeping activities														
	Total	Hours devoted ^{a/}													
		1 to 7		8 to 14		15 to 21		22 to 28		29 to 35		36 to 42		More than 42	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	

Rural**Both sexes**

Total

5-9

10-14

15-17

Boys

Total

5-9

10-14

15-17

Girls

Total

5-9

10-14

15-17

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} The different hours of work categories are not standardized. The distribution presented here (1-7, 8-14, 15-24, 22-28, 29-35, 36-42, and more than 42) provides an easy average per day interpretation (i.e. one hour or less per day on average, between one and two hours per day on average, and so on). Analysts should feel free to use other hours of work categories, providing an explanation for the categories chosen.

Table 22. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17^{a/} years by school attendance and involvement in housekeeping activities, by sex and age group

Characteristic	Working children											
	Attending school						Not attending school					
	Total working children attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}		Total working children not attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}	
	Number	Per cent of total working children	Number	Per cent of total working children attending school	Number	Per cent of total working children attending school	Number	Per cent of total working children	Number	Per cent of total working children not attending school	Number	Per cent of total working children not attending school
Both sexes												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Boys												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Girls												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												

Characteristic	Working children											
	Attending school						Not attending school					
	Total working children attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}		Total working children not attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}	
Number	Per cent of total working children	Number	Per cent of total working children attending school	Number	Per cent of total working children attending school	Number	Per cent of total working children	Number	Per cent of total working children not attending school	Number	Per cent of total working children not attending school	
Province/region												
Province 1												
Province 2												
Province 3												
Province 4												
-												
-												
-												
Province n												
Residence												
Urban												
Rural												
Notes:												
Source:												
^{a/} If the age for starting primary schooling according to the country's legislation is 6 or 7 years or other, the population of analysis could be those aged 6 or 7 or other and more, and the age group for tabulations could be modified to 6-9 or 7-9 or accordingly.												
^{b/} If an hour threshold is used to analyse the group of children involved in housekeeping activities, this group would include only those children that perform housekeeping activities above that threshold.												
^{c/} If an hour threshold is used to analyse the group of children involved in housekeeping activities, this group would include all those children that do not perform housekeeping activities and those that perform them below the threshold.												

Table 23. Number and per cent of children 5 to 17^{a/} years not working, by school attendance and involvement in housekeeping activities, by sex and age group

Characteristic	Children not working											
	Attending school						Not attending school					
	Total children not working and attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}		Total children not working and not attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}	
	Number	Per cent of total children not working	Number	Per cent of total children not working and attending school	Number	Per cent of total children not working and attending school	Number	Per cent of total children not working	Number	Per cent of total children not working and not attending school	Number	Per cent of total children not working and not attending school
Both Sexes												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Boys												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Girls												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												

Characteristic	Children not working											
	Attending school						Not attending school					
	Total children not working and attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}		Total children not working and not attending school		Housekeeping activities ^{b/}		No housekeeping activities ^{c/}	
	Number	Per cent of total children not working	Number	Per cent of total children not working and attending school	Number	Per cent of total children not working and attending school	Number	Per cent of total children not working	Number	Per cent of total children not working and not attending school	Number	Per cent of total children not working and not attending school
Province/region												
Province 1												
Province 2												
Province 3												
Province 4												
-												
-												
-												
Province n												
Residence												
Urban												
Rural												
Notes:												
Source:												
^{a/}	If the age for starting primary schooling according to the country's legislation is 6 or 7 years or other, the population of analysis could be those aged 6 or 7 or other and more, and the age group for tabulations could be modified to 6-9 or 7-9 or accordingly.											
^{b/}	If an hour threshold is used to analyse the group of children involved in housekeeping activities, this group would include only those children that perform housekeeping activities above that threshold.											
^{c/}	If an hour threshold is used to analyse the group of children involved in housekeeping activities, this group would include all those children that do not perform housekeeping activities and those that perform them below the threshold.											

Table 24. Median number of hours worked per week for working children 5 to 17^{a/} years attending and not attending school by sex, age group, and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Working children		
	Total	Attending school	Not attending school
	Median number of hours	Median number of hours	Median number of hours
Both sexes			
Total	x.x		
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Boys			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Girls			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Residence			
Urban			
Rural			
Notes:			
Source:			
<p>^{a/} If the age for starting primary schooling according to the country's legislation is 6 or 7 years or other, the population of analysis could be those aged 6 or 7 or other and more, and the age group for tabulations could be modified to 6-9 or 7-9 or accordingly.</p> <p>The <i>median</i> is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words, it is the midpoint of the distribution. The <i>mean</i> is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.</p>			

Table 25. Median number of hours per week devoted to housekeeping activities for children 5 to 17^{a/} years attending and not attending school by sex, age group and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Housekeeping activities		
	Total	Attending school	Not attending school
	Median number of hours	Median number of hours	Median number of hours
Both sexes			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Boys			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Girls			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Residence			
Urban			
Rural			
Notes:			
Source:			

^{a/} If the age for starting primary schooling according to the country's legislation is 6 or 7 years or other, the population of analysis could be those aged 6 or 7 or other and more, and the age group for tabulations could be modified to 6-9 or 7-9 or accordingly.

The median is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observation lie on each side of it, in other words it is the midpoint of the distribution. The mean is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should be replace the median in the table.

Table 26. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex and age group

Characteristic	Total Working children													
	Industry													
	Farming, fishing, forestry		Mining and quarrying		Manufacturing		Construction		Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering		Transportation, storage and communication		Other industry	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Both sexes														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Boys														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Girls														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														

Notes:

Source:

^aThese categories are based on the most recent International Standard Industry Classification (currently ISIC Rev. 3), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above industry categories may need to be modified. Also, if few observations fall into certain categories, these can be grouped into the "other industry" category, provided a clear explanation is given of what is included in that category.

Table 27. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by industry, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Total Working children													
	Industry													
	Farming, fishing, forestry		Mining and quarrying		Manufacturing		Construction		Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering		Transportation, storage and communication		Other industry	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Total														
Residence														
Urban														
Rural														
Province/region														
Province 1														
Province 2														
Province 3														
Province 4														
-														
-														
-														
Province n														
Notes:														
Source:														
^a These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Industry Classification (currently ISIC Rev.3), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above industry categories may need to be modified. Also, if few observations fall into certain categories, these can be grouped into the "other industry" category, provided a clear explanation is given of what is included in that category.														

Table 28. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by occupation, by sex and age group

Characteristic	Working children													
	Total Major group of occupation ^{a/}													
	Service workers and shop and market sales workers		Skilled agricultural and fishery workers		Craft and related trades workers		Plant and machine operators and assemblers		Elementary occupations		Armed forces		Other	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Both sexes														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Boys														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Girls														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Classification of Occupation (currently ISCO-88), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends to. However, if countries use another classification system, the above occupational categories may need to be modified. The categories of "legislators, senior officials and managers", "professionals", "technicians and associate professionals", and "clerks" have been omitted due to the unlikelihood of finding children in these occupations. The analyst should consider adding any observations found in these categories to the "other" category, since they might reflect incorrect information. Categories with few observations can also be grouped into the "other" category, providing clear descriptions of what is included in that category. On the other hand, in cases where a large percentage of observations fall into one category or major group, it may prove interesting to show some two-digit submajor categories or three-digit minor groups, thus presenting A1a more detailed distribution of the observations.

Table 29. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by occupation, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Total Working children													
	Major group of occupation ^{a/}													
	Service workers and shop and market sales workers		Skilled agricultural and fishery workers		Craft and related trades workers		Plant and machine operators and assemblers		Elementary occupations		Armed forces		Other	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Total														
Province/region														
Province 1														
Province 2														
Province 3														
Province 4														
-														
-														
-														
Province n														
Residence														
Urban														
Rural														

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Classification of Occupation (currently ISCO-88) and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends to use. However, if countries use another classification system the above occupational categories may need to be modified. The categories of "legislators, senior officials and managers", "professionals", "technicians and associate professionals" and "clerks" have been omitted due to the unlikelihood of finding children in these occupations. The analyst should consider adding any observations found in these categories to the "other" category, as they might reflect incorrect information. Categories with few observations can also be grouped into the "other" category, providing clear descriptions of what is included in that category. On the other hand, in the case where a large percentage of observations fall into one category or major group, it may prove interesting to show some two-digit submajor categories or three-digit minor groups, and thus show a more detailed distribution of the observations.

Table 30. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by sex and age

Characteristic	Working children										
	Total	Status in employment									
		Unpaid family worker		Domestic paid worker		Regular employee		Own account worker		Employer	
		Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Both sexes											
Total											
5-9											
10-14											
15-17											
Boys											
Total											
5-9											
10-14											
15-17											
Girls											
Total											
5-9											
10-14											
15-17											
Notes:											
Source:											

Table 31. Number and per cent of working children 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Working children										
	Total	Status in employment									
		Unpaid family worker		Domestic paid worker		Regular employee		Own account worker		Employer	
		Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Total											
Province/region											
Province 1											
Province 2											
Province 3											
Province 4											
-											
-											
-											
Province n											
Residence											
Urban											
Rural											
Notes:											
Source:											

Table 32. Number and per cent of all working children 5 to 17 years working at home or away from home by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Total number of working children	Location of work ^{a/}			
		At home		Away from home	
		Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Both sexes					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Boys					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Girls					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Residence					
Urban					
Rural					
Notes:					
Source:					

^{a/} Refers to physical place where work is undertaken. Depending on the question asked, more detailed information might be available for the category "away from home", including "employer's house", "formal office", "industry/factory", "plantation/farm/garden", "construction/quarrying sites", "shop/market/kiosk", "different places (mobile)", and "on the street". In such cases, it might be desirable to tabulate the more detailed information.

Table 33. Median number of hours, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by sex and age

Characteristic	Median number of hours	Working children														
		Total Hours worked ^{a/}														
		1 to 7		8 to 14		15 to 21		22 to 28		29 to 35		36 to 42		more than 42		
		Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	
Both sexes																
	Total															
	5-9															
	10-14															
	15-17															
Boys																
	Total															
	5-9															
	10-14															
	15-17															
Girls																
	Total															
	5-9															
	10-14															
	15-17															

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} The different hours of work categories are not standardized. This particular distribution (1-7, 8-14, 15-24, 22-28, 29-35, 36-42, and more than 42) provides an easy average per-day interpretation (i.e. 1 hour or less per day on average, between 1 and 2 hours per day on average, and so on). Another option is to use the half-time and full-time categories for adults. Analysts should feel free to use other hours of work categories, providing a justification for the categories chosen.

The *median* is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words, it is the midpoint of the distribution. The *mean* is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.

Table 34. Median number of hours worked, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by province/region and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Median number of hours	Working children													
		Total Hours worked ^{a/}													
		1 to 7		8 to 14		15 to 21		22 to 28		29 to 35		36 to 42		more than 42	
		Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children	Number	Per cent of working children
Total															
Province/region															
Province 1															
Province 2															
Province 3															
Province 4															
-															
-															
-															
Province n															
Residence															
Urban															
Rural															

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} The different hours of work categories are not standardized. This particular distribution (1-7, 8-14, 15-24, 22-28, 29-35, 36-42, and more than 42) provides an easy average per-day interpretation (i.e. 1 hour or less per day on average, between 1 and 2 hours per day on average, and so on). Another option is to use the half-time and full-time categories for adults. Analysts should feel free to use other hours of work categories, providing an explanation for the categories chosen.

The median is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words, it is the midpoint of the distribution. The mean is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.

Table 35. Median number of hours worked, and number and per cent of working children by number of hours worked per week, by industry

Characteristic	Median number of hours	Working children									
		Total	Hours worked ^{a/}								
			1 to 7	8 to 14	15 to 21	22 to 28	29 to 35	36 to 42	more than 42		
		Number	Per cent of	Number	Per cent of	Number	Per cent of	Number	Per cent of	Number	Per cent of
		working children	working children	working children	working children	working children	working children	working children	working children	working children	working children
Total											
Industry											
Farming, fishing, forestry											
Mining and quarrying											
Manufacturing											
Construction											
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering											
Transportation and communication											
Other industry											

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} The different hours of work categories are not standardized. This particular distribution (1-7, 8-14, 15-24, 22-28, 29-35, 36-42, and more than 42) provides an easy average per-day interpretation (i.e. 1 hour or less per day on average, between 1 and 2 hours per day on average, and so on). Another option is to use the half-time and full-time categories for adults. Analysts should feel free to use other hours of work categories, providing an explanation for the categories chosen.

The median is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words, it is the midpoint of the distribution. The mean is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.

Table 36. Number and per cent of all children and all working children 5 to 17 years of age who are child labourers by sex and age group

Characteristic	Total children	Total working children	Child labourers		
			Number	Per cent of total children	Per cent of child workers
Both sexes					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Boys					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Girls					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Notes:					
Source:					

Table 37. Number and per cent of all children and all working children 5 to 17 years who are child labourers by urban/rural residency and province/region

Characteristic	Total children	Total child workers	Child labourers		
			Number	Per cent of total children	Per cent of child workers
Total					
Residence					
Urban					
Rural					
Province/region					
Province 1					
Province 2					
Province 3					
Province 4					
-					
-					
-					
Province n					
Notes:					
Source:					

Table 38. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex, age group, province/region and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Child labourers														
	Total	Farming, fishing, forestry		Mining and quarrying		Manufacturing		Construction		Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering		Transportation, storage and communication		Other industry	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	
Both sexes															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Boys															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Girls															
Total															
5-9															
10-14															
15-17															
Residence															
Urban															
Rural															

Characteristic	Child labourers														
	Total	Farming, fishing, forestry		Mining and quarrying		Manufacturing		Construction		Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering		Transportation, storage and communication		Other industry	
	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	

Province/region

Province 1

-

-

-

Province n

Notes:

Source:

^{a/}These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Industry Classification (currently ISIC Rev. 3), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above industry categories may need to be modified. In addition, if few observations fall into certain categories, these can be grouped into the "other industry" category, provided a clear explanation is given of what is included in that category.

Table 39. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by occupation, by sex and age

Characteristic	Child labourers													
	Total	Major group of occupation ^{a/}												
		Service workers and shop and market sales workers		Skilled agricultural and fishery workers		Craft and related trades workers		Plant and machine operators and assemblers		Elementary occupations		Armed forces		Other
Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	
Both sexes														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Boys														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Girls														
Total														
5-9														
10-14														
15-17														
Notes:														
Source:														

^{a/} These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Classification of Occupation (currently ISCO-88), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above occupational A1 categories may need to be modified. The categories of "legislators, senior officials and managers", "professionals", "technicians and associate professionals", and "clerks" have been omitted due to the unlikelihood of finding children in these occupations. The analyst should consider adding any observations found in these categories to the "other" category, since they might reflect incorrect information. Categories with few observations can also be grouped into the "other" category, providing clear descriptions of what is included in that category. On the other hand, in cases where a large percentage of observations fall into one category or major group, it may prove interesting to show some two-digit submajor categories or three-digit minor groups, thus presenting a more detailed distribution of the observations.

Table 40. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by status in employment, by sex, age and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Status in employment									
	Unpaid family worker		Domestic paid worker		Regular employee		Own account worker		Employer	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Both sexes										
Total										
5-9										
10-14										
15-17										
Boys										
Total										
5-9										
10-14										
15-17										
Girls										
Total										
5-9										
10-14										
15-17										
Residence										
Urban										
Rural										
Notes:										
Source:										

Table 41. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years working at home or away from home by age, sex, and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Location of work ^{a/}					
	At home			Away from home		
	Number	Per cent (row)	Per cent (column)	Number	Per cent (row)	Per cent (column)
Both sexes						
Total						
5-9						
10-14						
15-17						
Boys						
Total						
5-9						
10-14						
15-17						
Girls						
Total						
5-9						
10-14						
15-17						
Residence						
Urban						
Rural						
Notes:						
Source:						
<p>^{a/} Refers to physical place where work is undertaken. Depending on the question asked, more detailed information might be available for the category "away from home", including "employer's house", "formal office", "industry/factory", "plantation/farm/garden", "construction/quarrying sites", "shop/market/kiosk", "different places (mobile)", and "on the street". In such cases, it might be desirable to tabulate the more detailed information.</p>						

Table 42. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by time of day of work, by sex, age group and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Child labourers				
	Total	Time of day of work ^{a/}		Per cent of child labourers	
		Day			Night
		Number	Per cent of child labourers		Number
Both sexes					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Boys					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Girls					
Total					
5-9					
10-14					
15-17					
Residence					
Urban					
Rural					
Notes:					
Source:					

^{a/} Children could work during the day and during the night, in which case they would appear in both categories. Depending on the question asked, more detailed information might be available on the time of day the work is performed (e.g. morning, afternoon, evening, night, dawn, and combinations of these). In these cases, these categories could be tabulated as well.

Table 43. Median number of hours worked per week for child labourers 5 to 17 years by industry, by sex, age and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Total	Industry ^{a/}						
		Farming, fishing, forestry	Mining and quarrying	Manufacturing	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering	Transportation, storage and communication	Other industry
	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours
Both sexes								
Total	x.x							
5-9								
10-14								
15-17								
Boys								
Total								
5-9								
10-14								
15-17								
Girls								
Total								
5-9								
10-14								
15-17								
Residence								
Urban								
Rural								
Notes:								
Source:								

^{a/}These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Industry Classification (currently ISIC Rev. 3), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above industry categories may need to be modified. In addition, if few observations fall into certain categories, these can be grouped into the "other industry" category, provided a clear explanation is given of what is included in that category.

The median is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words, it is the midpoint of the distribution. The mean is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.

Table 44. Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers who are currently attending school, by sex, age group,^{a/} urban/rural residency and region

Characteristic	Child labourers		Not child labourers			
	Number	Attending school		Number	Attending school	
		Number	Per cent of child labourers		Number	Per cent of not child labourers
Both sexes						
Total						
5-9						
10-14						
15-17						
Boys						
Total						
5-9						
10-14						
15-17						
Girls						
Total						
5-9						
10-14						
15-17						
Residence						
Urban						
Rural						
Province/region						
Province 1						
-						
-						
-						
Province n						

Notes:

Source:

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country. It would also be interesting to look at attendance by single years of age.

Table 45. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years^{a/} attending and not attending school by industry

Characteristic	Child labourers			
	Attending school		Not attending school	
	Number	Per cent of child labourers	Number	Per cent of child labourers
Industry^{b/}				
Farming, fishing, forestry				
Mining and quarrying				
Manufacturing				
Construction				
Wholesale and retail trade, restaurants and catering				
Transportation, storage and communication				
Other industry				

Notes:

Source:

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

^{b/}These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Industry Classification (currently ISIC Rev. 3), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above industry categories may need to be modified. In addition, if few observations fall into certain categories, these can be grouped into the "other industry" category, provided a clear explanation is given of what is included in that category.

Table 46. Median number of hours worked per week for child labourers 5 to 17^{a/} years attending and not attending school by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Child labourers		
	Total	Attending school	Not attending school
	Median hours	Median hours	Median hours
Both sexes			
Total	x.x		
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Boys			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Girls			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			

Residence

Urban

Rural

Notes:

Source:

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

The median is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words it is the midpoint of the distribution. The mean is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.

Table 47. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17^{a/} years who are currently attending school and report that work affects their regular attendance or studies by sex and age

Characteristic	Child labourers currently attending school			
	School attendance affected by work		School attendance not affected by work	
	Number	Per cent of total	Number	Per cent of total
Both sexes				
Total				
5-9				
10-14				
15-17				
Boys				
Total				
5-9				
10-14				
15-17				
Girls				
Total				
5-9				
10-14				
15-17				
Notes:				
Source:				
^{a/} Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.				

Table 48. Per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years^{a/} by reported reason for non-attendance, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Reason for non-attendance (categories according to question)										
	Too young	Disabled/ illness	School is too far	Cannot afford schooling	Family does not allow schooling	Poor in studies/not interested in school	School not considered valuable	School not safe	To work for pay or family business or farm	Help at home with household chores	Other
Sex											
Total											
Boys											
Girls											
Age											
5 to 9											
10 to 14											
15 to 17											
Residence											
Urban											
Rural											
Notes:											
Source:											

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

Percentages are in rows. If the different categories do not hold many observations, these may be aggregated into a lesser number of greater categories. For example, in the case of Nicaragua, the several categories were aggregated into "lack of motivation, failure or fear of school", "economic reasons", "incompatibility between school and work", and "other". Another option would be to aggregate categories according to whether the reasons relate to the education system ("school too far", "poor in studies/not interested in school", "school not considered valuable", and "school not safe"), to the child's economic situation or involvement in economic or non-economic activities ("cannot afford schooling", "to work for pay or family business or farm", "to help at home with household chores"), or other ("too young", "illness/disabled", "family does not allow schooling", and "other").

Table 49. Grade-age distortions for child labourers 5^{a/} to 17 years and not child labourers attending school by age

Age	Child labourers attending school				Not child labourers attending school			
	In corresponding grade for age		Behind corresponding grade for age		In corresponding grade for age		Behind corresponding grade for age	
	Number	Per cent of group	Number	Per cent of group	Number	Per cent of group	Number	Per cent of group
Total								
5 ^{a/}								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								
11								
12								
13								
14								
15								
16								
17								

Notes:

Source:

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

Table 50. Number and per cent of all child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years^{a/} who are repeaters^{b/}, by sex and age group^{c/}

Characteristic	Child labourers who are repeaters		Not child labourers who are repeaters	
	Number	Per cent of child labourers	Number	Per cent of not child labourers
Both sexes				
Total				
5-9 ^{b/}				
10-14				
15-17				
Boys				
Total				
5-9 ^{b/}				
10-14				
15-17				
Girls				
Total				
5-9 ^{b/}				
10-14				
5-17				
Notes:				
Source:				

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

^{b/} Repeaters are those pupils who are currently enrolled in the same grade as the previous year. This information can be obtained by comparing the level or grade of attendance reported for the previous year with that of the current year

^{c/}If sample size allows, it would be interesting to disaggregate by single years of age

Table 51. Number and per cent of all child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years^{a/} who dropped out of school^{b/}, by sex and age group^{c/}

Characteristic	Child labourers who dropped out		Not child labourers who dropped out	
	Number	Per cent of child labourers	Number	Per cent of not child labourers
Both sexes				
Total				
5-9 ^{b/}				
10-14				
15-17				
Boys				
Total				
5-9 ^{b/}				
10-14				
15-17				
Girls				
Total				
5-9 ^{b/}				
10-14				
15-17				

Notes:

Source:

^{a/}Starting age for age group should be adjusted according to schooling ages in the country.

^{b/} Those children who dropped out are those that reported attending to school the previous year but not the current year. This information can be obtained by comparing the attendance at any level for the current and previous years.

^{c/}If sample size allows, it would be interesting to disaggregate by single years of age.

Table 52. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who are not supervised at work by an adult by sex, age, urban/rural residency, province/region, and occupation

Characteristic	Total child labourers	Child labourers not supervised at work by an adult	
		Number	Per cent of child labourers
Both sexes			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Boys			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Girls			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Residence			
Urban			
Rural			
Province/region			
Province 1			
Province 2			
Province 3			
Province 4			
Occupation^{a/}			
Service workers and shop and market sales workers			
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers			
Craft and related trades workers			
Plant and machine operators and assemblers			
Elementary occupations			
Armed forces			
Other			

Characteristic	Total child labourers	Child labourers not supervised at work by an adult	
		Number	Per cent of child labourers

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} These categories are based on the most recent International Standard Classification of Occupation (currently ISCO-88), and it is this classification system that the ILO recommends. However, if countries use another classification system, the above occupational categories may need to be modified. The categories of "legislators, senior officials and managers", "professionals", "technicians and associate professionals" and "clerks", have been omitted due to the unlikelihood of finding children in these occupations. The analyst should consider adding any observations found in these categories to the "other" category, since they might reflect incorrect information. Categories with few observations can also be grouped into the "other" category, providing clear descriptions of what is included in that category. On the other hand, where a large percentage of observations fall into one category or major group, it may prove interesting to show some two-digit submajor categories or three-digit minor groups, thus presenting A16a more detailed distribution of the observations.

Table 53. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years who reported working in hazardous conditions^{a/} by sex, age group, and industry

Characteristic	Total child labourers	Child labourers that reported working in hazardous conditions	
		Number	Per cent of total child labourers
Both sexes			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Boys			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Girls			
Total			
5-9			
10-14			
15-17			
Industry^{b/}			
Agriculture, hunting, and forestry			
Fishing			
Mining and quarrying			
Manufacturing			
Electricity, gas and water supply			
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles, and personal and household goods			
Hotels and restaurants			
Transport, storage, and communications			
Financial intermediation			
Real estate, renting and business activities			
Public administration and defence			
Education			
Health and social work			
Other community, social, and personal service activities			

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} Hazardous conditions include work with dust, fumes, and gas; noisy environment; extreme temperature or humidity; dangerous tools; work underground; work at height; insufficient lighting; chemicals; and carrying heavy loads. These categories will vary according to the possible responses to the question asked.

^{b/} These industry categories are according to the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC), third revision. Analysts should modify these (aggregating and disaggregating) where seen appropriate in light of the particular data being analysed.

Table 54. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by reported effect on household if child stops working by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Characteristics	Total child labourers	Children whose household would be affected if stop working ^{a/}											
		Nothing will happen		S+E3he will lose skills being learned		Household living standard will fall		Household will not be able to afford to live		Household enterprise cannot operate fully since labour not affordable		S/he will be involved in undesirable activities	
		Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Both sexes													
Total													
5-9													
10-14													
15-17													
Boys													
Total													
5-9													
10-14													
15-17													
Girls													
Total													
5-9													
10-14													
15-17													
Residence													
Urban													
Rural													

Notes:

Source:

a/The reported effects on the household vary according to the answer categories of the question asked. More than one answer is allowed, so the sum of answers will be greater than the total of child labourers, and the sum of per cents will be greater than 100.

Table 55. Average family size, number of children, number of adults, and dependency ratio^{a/} for child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years, by age and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Child labourers	Not child labourers
Average family size		
Total	x,x	
Age		
5 to 9		
10 to 14		
15 to 17		
Residence		
Urban		
Rural		
Average number of children in household		
Total		
Age		
5 to 9		
10 to 14		
15 to 17		
Residence		
Urban		
Rural		
Average number of adults in household		
Total		
Age		
5 to 9		
10 to 14		
15 to 17		
Residence		
Urban		
Rural		
Average dependency ratio ^{a/}		
Total		
Age		
5 to 9		
10 to 14		
15 to 17		
Residence		
Urban		
Rural		
Notes:		
Source:		
^{a/} The Dependency Ratio (DR) is defined as the "ratio of the number of persons in a given 'dependent' age group of interest to the number in a different age group considered to contain those persons providing support to those dependent" (2002, Swanson and Siegle). The DR can be approximated using the following formula: DR = (number of children ages 0-15 + number of adults ages 65 or more)/(number of persons ages 16-64).		

Table 56. Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by sex, by household structure and parent survival

Characteristic	Total	Child labourers				Not child labourers			
		Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
		Number	Per cent (column)	Number	Per cent (column)	Number	Per cent (column)	Number	Per cent (column)
Total									
Household structure									
Children living in two-parent families									
Children living in single parent families									
Children living with neither parent									
Children living in a male-headed household									
Children living in a female-headed household									
Death of parents									
Children who have lost both parents									
Children who have lost one parent									
Notes:									
Source:									

Table 57. Median household income of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by household structure, parent survival, family size, urban/rural residency, and province/region

Characteristic	Median household income ^{a/}	
	Child labourers	Not child labourers
Total		
Household structure		
Children living in two-parent families		
Children living in single-parent families		
Children living with neither parent		
Children living in a male-headed household		
Children living in a female-headed household		
Death of parents		
Children who have lost both parents		
Children who have lost one parent		
Family size		
Two to four		
Five to seven		
Eight to ten		
Eleven or more		
Residence		
Urban		
Rural		
Province/region		
Province 1		
Province 2		
Province 3		
–		
–		
–		
Province n		
Notes:		
Source:		

^{a/}If a wealth index is computed, it can be used instead of the median income in this table to make the comparisons.

The median is the point in a distribution where 50 per cent of the observations lie on each side of it. In other words, it is the midpoint of the distribution. The mean is the sum of the values divided by the number of cases. Because the mean is sensitive to outliers or extreme cases, the median is presented here. Nevertheless, if analysts prefer to use the mean, it should replace the median in the table.

Table 58. Per cent of child labourers and not child labourers by income quintile ^{a/}

Characteristic	Total	Quintile 1	Quintile 2	Quintile 3	Quintile 4	Quintile 5
Total children	100%					
Child labourers	100%					
Not child labourers	100%					

Notes:

Source:

^{a/} If a wealth index was computed, it can be used instead of income to group households into quintiles in the tabulation.

Table 59. Number and per cent of child labourers and not child labourers 5 to 17 years by highest level of schooling achieved by parent ^{a/}

Characteristic	Child labourers		Not child labourers	
	Number	Per cent (column)	Number	Per cent (column)
Total				
Highest level of schooling achieved by parent				
No school				
Primary school				
Secondary school				
Above secondary school				
Notes:				
Source:				

^{a/}If the child is living in a two-parent family, use the educational status of the parent with the highest educational level. If child is not living with either parent, use the educational level of the household head.

Table 60. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years by reported reason of parent or guardian for letting child work, by sex, age and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Child labourers													
	Total	Parent's or guardian's reported reason for letting child work ^{a/}												
		To supplement family income	To pay outstanding family debt	To help in household enterprise	Learn skills	Schooling is irrelevant	School too far	Cannot afford school fees	Child not interested in school	To replace adult who is working away from home	For socialization			
	No.	Per cent of child labourers	No.	Per cent of child labourers	No.	Per cent of child labourers	No.	Per cent of child labourers	No.	Per cent of child labourers	No.	Per cent of child labourers	No.	Per cent of child labourers

Both sexes

Total

5-9

10-14

15-17

Boys

Total

5-9

10-14

15-17

Girls

Total

5-9

10-14

15-17

Residence

Urban

Rural

Notes:

Source:

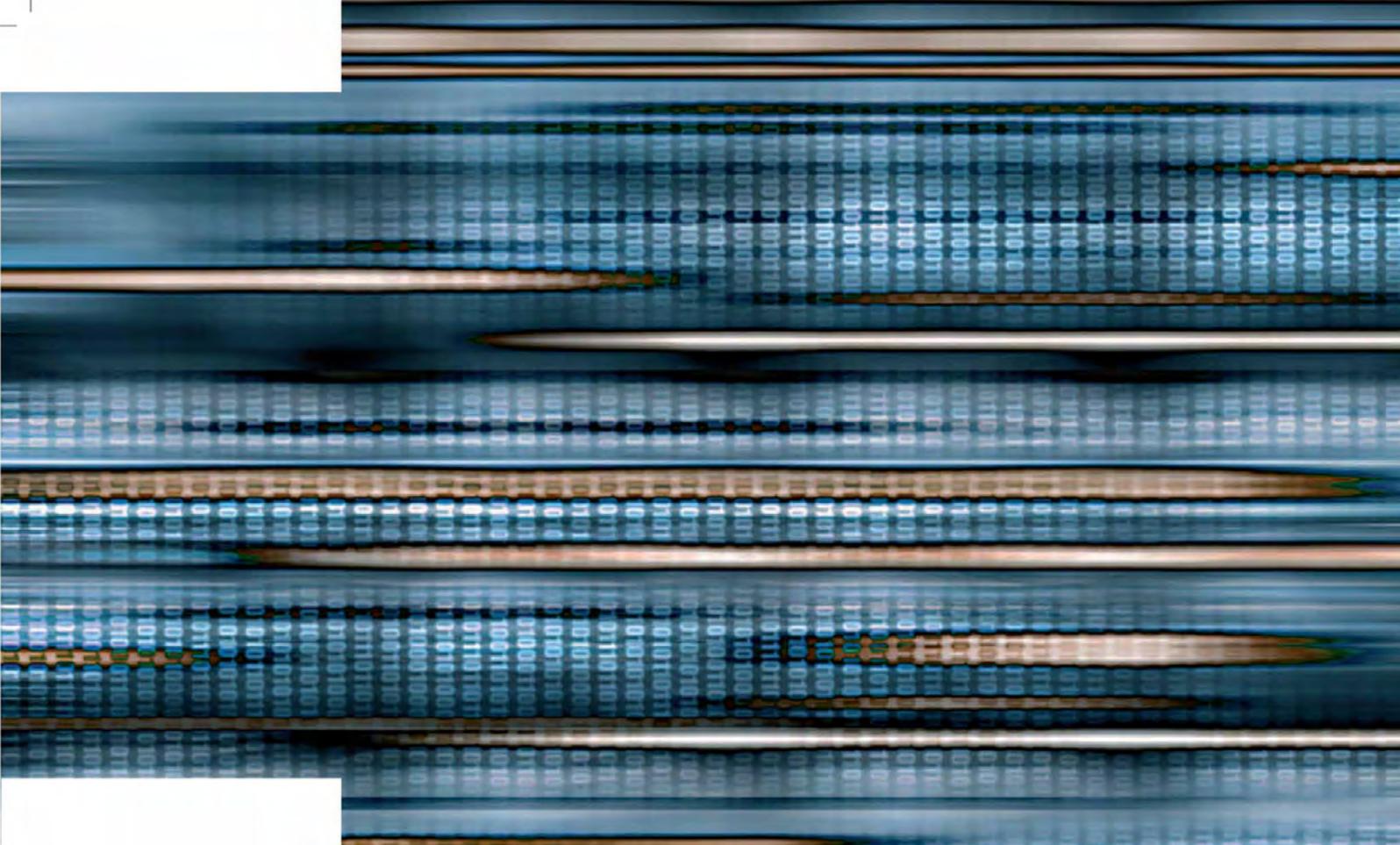
More than one answer is allowed, so the sum of answers will be greater than the total number of child labourers, and the sum of percents will be greater than 100. If not many observations fall into the different categories, these can be grouped into wider categories such as "economic reasons", "educational reasons", and "other", for example. Whenever categories are grouped, the analyst should provide a clear explanation of what is included in each of the new categories.

Table 61. Number and per cent of all child labourers 5 to 17 years that earn an income by contribution to household income, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Characteristics	Child labourers						
	Total	Child labourers that earn an income				Do not contribute income to household	
		Number	Per cent of child labourers	Contribute all or part of income to household		Number	Per cent of child labourers that earn an income
			Number	Per cent of child labourers that earn an income			
Both sexes							
Total							
5-9							
10-14							
15-17							
Boys							
Total							
5-9							
10-14							
15-17							
Girls							
Total							
5-9							
10-14							
15-17							
Residence							
Urban							
Rural							
Notes:							
Source							

Table 62. Number and per cent of child labourers 5 to 17 years that earn and income and save by reason for saving, by sex, age, and urban/rural residency

Characteristic	Child labourers that earn an income											
	Total	Child labourers that save										
		Number	Per cent of child labourers that earn an income	To start own business		To go to school		Learn a trade		Buy something better for self		Other
	Number			Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)	Number	Per cent (row)
Both sexes												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Boys												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Girls												
Total												
5-9												
10-14												
15-17												
Residence												
Urban												
Rural												
Notes:												
Source:												



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