

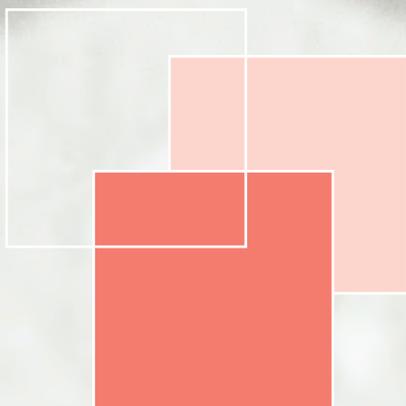


International
Labour
Organization

Mainstreaming child labour concerns in education sector plans and programmes



International
Programme on
the Elimination
of Child Labour
(IPEC)





**Mainstreaming child labour
concerns in education sector
plans and programmes**

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Introduction to the Manual

The international effort to achieve education for all and the progressive elimination of child labour are inextricably linked. On the one hand, quality education is a key element in preventing child labour and contributes to building a protective environment for all children. On the other hand, child labour is one of the main obstacles to full-time school attendance and, in the case of some part-time work, may prevent children from fully benefiting from their time at school.

In order to establish this link in policy-making, mainstreaming child labour concerns in the education sector is essential. It means ensuring that efforts to target children in child labour becomes an integral part of education sector policies, strategies and actions.

Whilst the focus of this manual is on children in child labour it is safe to assume that many of the measures considered in this Manual would also benefit other hard-to-reach children presently excluded from education.

This Manual is designed to guide the planning and implementation of a national or local workshop on child labour and education. Such workshops on child labour and education provide an opportunity to bring together stakeholders in order to analyse the links between child labour and education and decide on steps to improve the mainstreaming of child labour in education planning. Expected outcomes will depend on the national situation. They could range from revising the national education sector plan so as to better address the needs of child labourers, to setting up an inter-sectoral working group on child labour and education.

Workshop participants will also reflect the national situation but might include key personnel from the Ministries of Education, Labour, Youth, and other government departments; representatives of employers' and workers' organizations (including teachers' organisations), other UN agencies and civil society.

How to use this resource: Notes for the facilitator

This publication has been designed as a simple-to-use resource to support a workshop on education and child labour. A model programme for a three-day national workshop is provided in Annex 1.

An accompanying CD with draft Microsoft PowerPoint presentations, which condense the content of the sessions, is provided along with this Manual. Use of the manual should take proper account of the national context. Accordingly, facilitators may wish to introduce additional activities or material based on the local context.

The Manual can be used in connection with other resources, some of which are referred to in the Annex 2. Audiovisual material on child labour produced nationally or regionally can be particularly helpful in capturing the participants' interest and in putting themselves "in a child labourer's shoes".

The workshop should not be seen as merely an opportunity for the facilitators to impart knowledge. A major resource is the expertise and experience of the course participants. Training will, therefore, be greatly enriched by creating opportunities for participants to share their expertise and experiences. Here the role of the facilitator is to provide a framework within which productive sharing can take place. During the workshop, ample time should be allotted for group work. In addition, one or several of the participants should be asked to facilitate and/or chair individual sessions, in order to foster ownership.

The sessions

Most of the sessions can be prepared with little preparation time, and the information provided in this Manual along with the accompanying slides should be sufficient inputs for the facilitator. The exceptions to this are Sessions 2, 8 and 9, which require some adaptation to the national context, along the following lines:

Session 2 (The national context): The generic slides provided for this session are divided into "The national child labour context" (2a) and "The national education context" (2b). They provide little detail, so preparation regarding the information on national legislation and data are necessary. However, this Session could possibly be covered by slightly adapting existing national overviews, which may have already been prepared by experts from the Ministries of Labour and Education and/or international organisations.

Session 8 (The education sector plan and child labour): This session depends very much on the current context, in particular the timing of the workshop. The ideal scenario would be that the existing education sector plan (or another relevant national policy document) is currently

under revision, and the government is open to sharing it with all stakeholders for input. In such a case, one whole day should be reserved for Session 8, to give participants time to study either the entire document or selected parts of it and formulate their inputs very specifically, using the checklist provided in the Manual. In turn, Session 9 could be skipped.

In all other scenarios, participants should formulate their recommendations regarding concrete policy steps in a short 1-2 page document and agree on a country-specific mechanism for following these up in the future. Here, half a day allocated for Session 8 would be sufficient.

Session 9 (Working together): This session should be given special attention in a setting where so far there has not been much meaningful cooperation – or even conflict – among the involved line ministries or other stakeholders. Where this does not apply, or where the emphasis is placed more on analysing and working on an existing document during Session 8, this presentation can be given back-to-back with Session 8 or even omitted, depending on the expected output from the workshop.

MODULE I: CHILD LABOUR AND EDUCATION – THE LINKAGES

Session 1: International policy frameworks on education and child labour

Introduction

Child labour and children's right to education are directly or indirectly connected to many international standards and initiatives. Key elements of the international framework include: the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, ILO Conventions (particularly C138 and C182), the Education for All (EFA) Dakar Framework and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). This session:

- provides an overview of international frameworks on education and child labour;
- provides a picture of the global extent of child labour.

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948

On December 10, 1948 the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted and proclaimed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Following this historic act, the Assembly called upon all Member countries to publicize the text of the Declaration and “to cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions, without distinction based on the political status of countries or territories”.

The right to education features prominently within the Declaration: “Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.” (Article 26 (1))

Child labour and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989

There is near universal ratification of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). Article 32 of CRC states that children have the right to be protected from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

Article 28 states that primary education should be compulsory and available free to all. It also encourages the development of different forms of secondary education, including general and vocational education, available and accessible to every child.

The ILO minimum age Convention, 1973 (No. 138)

The main purpose of the ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No 138) is to set standards for the minimum age for admission to employment or work. The Convention requires States to specify in law a minimum age for admission to employment not less than the age of finishing compulsory education, and which in any case, should not be less than 15 years. However, a Member country whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed may under certain conditions initially specify a minimum age of 14 years.

ILO minimum age standards do not forbid all work below the minimum age of employment. National laws or regulations may permit the employment of 13-15 year olds in light work which is neither prejudicial to school attendance, nor harmful to a child's health or development. The ages 12-14 can apply for light work in countries that specify a minimum age of 14.

The ILO worst forms of child labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)

ILO Convention No.182 applies to everyone under the age of 18. The Convention calls for "immediate and effective measures to secure the prohibition of the worst forms of child labour as a matter of urgency". The worst forms are defined as:

- All forms of slavery, or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, as well as forced labour, including forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict.
- The use, procurement or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances.
- The use, procurement or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in relevant international treaties.
- Work which, by its nature or circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children, such harmful work to be determined by national authorities.

Effective, time-bound preventative action is demanded of ratifying states, including the identification of children at special risk, taking account of the special situation of girls. Children in the worst forms of child labour must:

- be removed and rehabilitated;
- have access to free basic education or vocational training.

Minimum age criteria

The following table summarizes the criteria for setting minimum ages for different types of work, stemming from Conventions Nos. 138 and 182.

TABLE 1.1: Criteria for setting minimum ages

	General	Possible for countries whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed
General minimum age The minimum age for admission to employment or work should not be below the age for finishing compulsory schooling	15 years or more	14 years
Light work Children between the ages of 13 and 15 years old may do light work, as long as it does not threaten their health and safety, or hinder their education or vocational orientation and training	13 years	12 years
Hazardous work Any work which is likely to jeopardize children's physical, mental or moral health, safety or morals should not be undertaken by anyone under the age of 18	18 years (16 years under certain strict conditions)	18 years (16 years under certain strict conditions)

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

In the September 2000 Millennium Declaration, 187 countries committed themselves to eight goals which aim to tackle poverty and promote development by 2015. The goals are accompanied by associated targets and indicators. There are links between child labour and many of the MDGs, particularly in relation to poverty reduction (MDG 1), universal primary education (MDG 2), gender equality in education (MDG 3), and youth employment (MDG 8).

Recent progress reports on the MDG 2 have observed that notwithstanding some positive trends, the goal of universal primary education by 2015 will be difficult to reach. On current trends, 56 million children will remain unenrolled in primary school in 2015.

Education for All (EFA)

The World Conference on Education for All held at Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 made a commitment to make basic education a high development priority. This was reaffirmed at the World Education Forum (Dakar, Senegal, April 2000). The Dakar Framework for Action lays out six goals, which together constitute the "Education for All" (EFA) agenda:

- expand early childhood and care;
- ensuring all children have access to free and compulsory primary education by 2015;
- promote the acquisition of life-skills by adolescents and youth;
- expand adult literacy by 50%;
- eliminate gender disparities by 2005 and achieve gender equality by 2015;
- enhance educational quality.

Since 2001, the EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR) has provided a picture of progress that countries and agencies are making towards the EFA goals. The GMR has consistently identified the problem of exclusion from education and the role child labour plays in this. The 2007 GMR stated that EFA requires an inclusive approach and called for policies aimed at “reaching the unreached”, including policies to overcome the need for child labour.

Within the broad EFA agenda, particular focus has been placed on efforts to achieve universal primary education. In order to provide a mechanism for planning and the appropriate disbursement of funds, the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI) was launched in 2002 as a global compact between donors and developing countries. Since 2011 the FTI became known as the Global Partnership for Education. Countries that are, or seek to become partners are required to develop a comprehensive education sector plan, which is subject to appraisal by civil society and donors supporting the plan.

The global extent of child labour

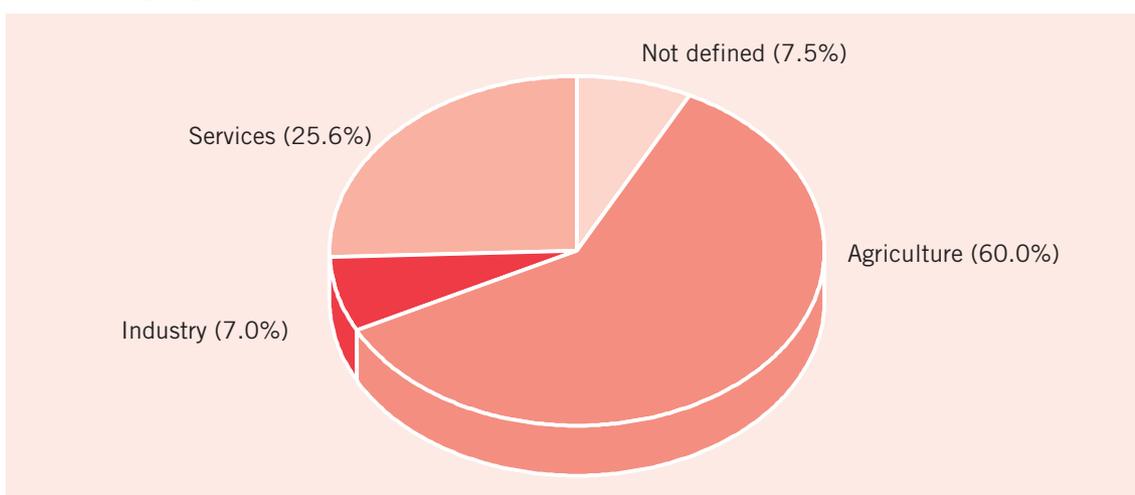
The global fight against child labour remains a daunting challenge. All over the world, children are being forced to undertake work that deprives them of education and can often damage them physically or psychologically.

In 2010, the ILO published its third Global Report on Child Labour, “*Accelerating action against child labour*”. The child labour trends for the period 2004 to 2008 reveal the following:

- Globally, child labour continues to decline, albeit to a lesser extent than before. There are still 215 million children caught in child labour.
- The number of children in hazardous work, often used as a proxy for measuring the extent of the worst forms of child labour, is declining, particularly among those below 15 years of age. The overall rate of reduction, however, has slowed. There are still 115 million children in hazardous work.
- Children’s work is declining in the Asia-Pacific region and in Latin America and the Caribbean, but it is increasing in sub-Saharan Africa.
- Most child labourers continue to work in agriculture. Only one in five working children is in paid employment. The overwhelming majority are unpaid family workers.

TABLE 1.2: Regional estimates of children’s economic activity, 2004 and 2008 (5-14 age group)

Region	Child population (thousands)		Children in employment (thousands)		Activity rate (%)	
	2004	2008	2004	2008	2004	2008
Asia and the Pacific	650,000	651,815	122,300	96,397	18.8	14.8
Latin America and the Caribbean	111,000	110,566	11,047	10,002	10.0	9.0
Sub-Saharan Africa	186,800	205,319	49,300	58,212	26.4	28.4
Other regions	258,800	249,154	13,400	10,700	5.2	4.3
World	1,206,500	1,216,854	196,047	176,452	16.2	14.5

FIGURE 1.1: Child labour, distribution by economic activity (5-17 age group)


Causes of child labour

Child labour can stem from one or more causes in any given country, including:

- poverty and the need for all family members to contribute economically;
- limited access to education institutions or programmes;
- direct or indirect costs of education preventing children from accessing school;
- poor quality education leading to households placing more value on work than schooling;
- discriminatory practices in society and in education, for example, against girls or certain population groups, such as indigenous peoples;

- cultural and/or traditional practices in certain geographical locations or among certain peoples, for example, migrant workers, indigenous populations and lower castes;
- employment practices where small businesses may prefer to employ children because they can pay them less than adults;
- the death of parents or guardians from AIDS, creating a new generation of child-headed households; many children are withdrawn from school to help in the home or to begin to work;
- crisis or conflict.

Child labour as an obstacle to education

Many of the out-of-school population are child labourers. This is the group of children – the bottom 10% to 20% - that are the real challenge to achieving Education for All. Only by first examining, and then surmounting, the barriers to education encountered by child labourers, can a meaningful increase in education participation among this group be attained.

In general, children work and do not go to school because of a combination of factors. Incentives favour work where schools are not available or are of poor quality; where the direct and indirect costs of schooling are high; where parents consider that to have a child work is more valuable than for the child to go to school; and where cultural factors discourage education, particularly at the secondary level – a situation that commonly affects girls.

Some of these factors are particularly pronounced in rural communities, which account for 82% of all out-of-school children and almost 70% of working children.

The Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education for All (GTF)

At the fifth EFA High-Level meeting in Beijing in 2005, the creation of a Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education for All (GTF) was endorsed and launched. The core members of the GTF are the ILO, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, the World Bank, Education International (EI) and the Global March Against Child Labour. A number of donor countries and developing countries with a particular interest in efforts to tackle child labour and promote education are also participating in the work of the GTF.

The overall objective of the GTF is to contribute to the achievement of the EFA goals through the elimination of child labour. Its main strategy is to mobilize political will and momentum towards mainstreaming the issue of child labour in national and international policy frameworks contributing to EFA objectives. The strategy can be pursued through:

- strengthening the knowledge base on child labour and education linkages;
- advocacy and social mobilization;
- programme support;
- promoting policy coherence;
- developing partnerships.



Activity 1.1: Potential benefits of eliminating child labour (work in pairs and plenary discussion)

Note for facilitator

While tackling child labour is, above all, a human rights issue, it is also good for economic and social development, as various studies have shown.

This activity provides an opportunity for participants to consider the ways in which child labour may be holding back development and is intended to help participants begin to frame policy arguments in terms of social and economic benefits (40-60 minutes total).

Distribute the worksheet “Potential benefits of eliminating child labour” (below). Participants get together in pairs or small groups and use the sheet to record their answers (20-30 minutes). Discussion should focus on the potential benefits that the elimination of child labour may bring to children, society and the economy. Ask participants to identify potential benefits of the elimination of child labour in their context for: a. Children b. Society c. The economy.

Key points of this discussion should be recorded on a computer using the template below, or on flipchart sheets.

In the subsequent plenary discussion (20-30 minutes), notice which column has the most points. If there is an imbalance, you may want to comment on the fact that the three realms are closely interlinked and emphasize that especially in the long run, benefits in any of the realms will reinforce the benefits in the other two realms.

Alternative: If the available time is limited, the entire activity can be carried out in the plenary (10-15 minutes total). In this case, the facilitator takes down the participants’ contributions on three separate sheets on a flipchart (5 minutes). Subsequently, the sheets are attached to the wall side by side, and the facilitator encourages the participants to discuss the results briefly (5 minutes).

Worksheet for activity 1.1: Potential benefits of the elimination of child labour in your country		
For children	For society	For the economy

Session 2: The national context

Introduction

The international standards described in Session 1 provide a platform and reference point for national action.

National Governments have an obligation under international law to facilitate and safeguard the right of all children to free and compulsory elementary education and the freedom from child labour.

Countries that ratify ILO Conventions are required to implement the Conventions through national law. To facilitate the task of eliminating child labour, a review and possibly a reform of national legislation may be required. A sound knowledge base on the extent and the causes of child labour at the national level is required, as a necessary starting point for action against child labour.

Likewise, it is important to have a broad picture of the national education system, especially at the primary and lower secondary levels. In this way, the geographic areas in which the coverage is still weak and ought to be extended as well as the population groups who are currently underserved can be ascertained.

Hence, in this section we look at the legislative national framework, the evidence concerning child labour and the possible data sources that can provide this information.

The legislative framework

Appropriate legislation is a key aspect in the fight against child labour. Its review and reform should be informed by International Labour Standards, including the Conventions on child labour presented in Session 1.

In reviewing national laws some of the key issues for consideration are:

- ensuring that legislation is in accordance with ILO Convention No. 138 and ILO Convention No. 182;
- the harmonization of legal ages for compulsory schooling and employment;
- expanding coverage of the law;
- the types of work that are likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (as required by ILO Convention No. 182 Article 4).

Evidence of child labour

Having empirical evidence of the extent of child labour and a good estimate of the prevalence of the worst forms of child labour is a primary requirement for putting child labour on the national policy agenda.

Ensuring that there is adequate data on the extent and nature of child labour is thus a prerequisite for any work linking the issue to education and other sectors.

To really understand child labour and to develop sustainable preventative strategies, the situation of child labourers and their families must be carefully documented. Gradually building evidence-based support is important for mainstreaming child labour as a concern.

Data gathered on child labour can show us in which geographical areas and in which economic sectors it is concentrated, as well as point out the main causes of child labour. In this way, it can support programming in education as well as in other sectors (e.g. health).

Cost/benefit analyses on the impact on child labour in particular sectors are very useful, especially where the longer-term negative effects of child labour can be highlighted.

Data sources on child labour

Many countries have undertaken specific **child labour surveys**. The main data sources on child labour and children's work are the IPEC's Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC), the World Bank's Living Standards Measurement Study (LSMS) and UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS).

Data may also be available through **household surveys** or **other socio-economic surveys** undertaken by the government.

In addition to such surveys, work supported by IPEC and other agencies may have produced **baseline studies** or **rapid assessments** of child labour in particular geographical areas or industries.

There may also be other research studies on child labour which have been undertaken, including those produced through the Understanding Children's Work (UCW) programme.

Disaggregated education data with a focus on marginalized groups

Disaggregated data is critical in fostering access to education for all children. It should be seen as an integral part of strategies aimed at identifying social groups and regions that are being left behind, thereby raising their visibility.

Disaggregated data are also a requirement for assessing progress towards equity-based targets. Too often, national education data fail to adequately capture the circumstances and conditions of those being left behind, including children who drop out of school due to child labour.¹

Education data should inform policymakers about enrolment, retention, and completion, disaggregated by region, gender and, where appropriate, other categories such as language or ethnicity.

For example, the age or grade at which school dropout increasingly occurs can point to particular weaknesses in the system, such as a difficult transition from primary to lower secondary education. Other

¹ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: Reaching the Marginalized*. Paris, 2010, p. 272.

useful statistical information include pupil/teacher ratios, textbook provision, and learning outcomes.

In this way, barriers to education and disadvantaged children can be identified at the national and regional/district level.

Activity 2.1: Available data on child labour (group work)



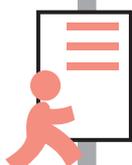
Note for facilitator

Distribute participants into groups and have each group answer the same set of questions:

1. What are the main sources of information on child labour in your country of which you are aware?
2. If recent child labour surveys have been conducted, have their conclusions been summarised?
3. Can the information on the geographical concentration of child labour, or occupational focus, be used to support education programming?

Allow participants to consult any electronic or paper resource that can be accessed, as far as space and time during the workshop allow.

Activity 2.2: Causes of child labour in the country (group work and plenary discussion)



Note for facilitator

Divide participants into groups and hand each group a sheet with the list of potential causes of child labour, presented on pages 5. Ask each group to rank the causes in order of importance in the national context, starting with the most important. Allow 20 to 40 minutes for this activity.

Next, collect the ranking lists from each group and put them next to each other. Highlight common features and comment on differences between groups.

Finally, ask participants to discuss the differences in the plenary.

Alternatively, if time allows, ask each group to prepare an explanation for a cause that they ranked particularly high (10 to 15 minutes), and then ask a speaker from each group to give a short speech (2 to 5 minutes) advocating for increasing the attention given to this particular cause of child labour. Make sure that each group has selected a different issue.

Session 3: Exclusion: Barriers facing child labourers

Introduction

All children have a right to education. However, many barriers can be placed in the way of exercising that right that can have a discouraging effect on poor parents who want to send their children to school.

Some groups of children are at particular risk of exclusion for a variety of reasons, such as socio-economic background, gender, geographical location, ethnicity, and religion. The result is that even in countries that are making progress, some children are more likely than others to be excluded from education.

The at-risk groups include:

- children living in rural areas;
- children living in urban slums;
- minority populations, such as lower castes, indigenous and tribal peoples, pastoral communities and others, who often face significant discrimination in terms of services and programmes;
- girls;
- children affected or infected by HIV and AIDS, particularly AIDS orphans who often find themselves taking on the early responsibility of head of household following the death of parents and other family members;
- children of migrant families who are highly mobile in their search for work;
- street children;
- children who are trafficked for purposes of labour or commercial sexual exploitation;
- children in conflict affected countries.

Barriers to education

The barriers to education that generate exclusion can be grouped under the following categories: accessibility, affordability, quality and relevance. Some examples are listed below:

1. Accessibility

- physical remoteness – the distance to school;
- social barriers (e.g. girls' restricted freedom of movement);
- discrimination (e.g. based on gender, race, ethnicity, disability, religion, caste, class, or HIV status);
- early marriage causing children to drop out;
- lack of birth registration, which may prevent children enrolling;
- inflexible scheduling;
- fear of violence at, or on the way to, school.

2. Affordability

- direct costs (e.g. school fees, other compulsory fees);
- indirect costs (e.g. uniforms, textbooks, transportation, meals);
- opportunity cost (i.e. income/wage lost to family from child being in school rather than work).

3. Quality

- inadequate physical infrastructure or facilities (such as separate water and sanitation facilities for girls);
- lack of materials and support systems for children;
- lack of adequate training, aids and materials for teachers;
- inadequate conditions of work for teachers (short-term contracts, heavy workloads, low pay, etc.);
- lack of female teachers, especially at secondary level.

4. Relevance

- curriculum detached from local language, needs, values and aspirations of children;
- curriculum inadequate to prepare older children for the world of work.

Specific barriers for child labourers

Child labourers may face any of the above barriers to their education. In addition, they may lack the time to participate in school due to their work. If the child works in agriculture this may be particularly the case during harvest time. If the child has domestic duties to perform in addition to her or his child labour this can also limit the possibility of participating in school.

Even if working children do manage to attend the classes, they may still lack time to do their homework properly, and thus perform poorly. During class instruction, they may be tired, hungry or even sick as a result of their work, and thus unable to concentrate. This increases their risk of dropping out.

Some of the worst forms of child labour, such as bonded labour may effectively prevent the child from attending school.

Child labourers may be the target of discrimination by their peers or teachers, and they may even be expelled from school (in particular if the sector or activity they are engaged in is socially not accepted).

Working children's appearance or behaviour may be affected as a result of their work, which may facilitate ridicule by their peers.

Girls' education

Educational exclusion has its greatest impact on girls. Many girls face double jeopardy: because of their sex and because of their poverty. The majority of children not enrolled in school are girls – 54%.² An internationally agreed target of establishing gender parity in education by 2005 has been missed by at least 94 countries principally in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia. At present rates, 86 countries are at risk of not achieving this target even by 2015.

The consequences of excluding girls are significant. There is growing global consensus that girls' education is one of the best investments a country can make. Among the long-term benefits of educating girls are:

- Enhanced economic development. Regions that have invested over the long-term in basic education including girls' education, have tended to show higher levels of development.
- Important social returns. If educated girls become mothers, they are much more likely to send their children to school. Additionally, education of girls has a wider positive social impact in terms of lower birth rates, improvements in maternal and child health, and knowledge of how to guard against HIV and sexual and labour exploitation.

It is therefore evident that more effort needs to be concentrated on addressing the special concerns of girls in terms of education and child labour. Their work, for example, household chores, domestic servitude, agricultural work and home-based work, is largely hidden and unvalued. Often, when faced with limited resources and many financial demands, parents prefer to invest in the education of their sons, and not lose their daughters' vital contribution to the household economy.

Other factors that constrain girls' educational opportunities range from distance to schools, which places their security at risk, to the provision of relevant curricula sensitive to their needs and aspirations. In certain cultures, a girl's chance of going to school might depend on the availability of separate school facilities for girls or the presence of female teachers.

² UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*, p. 1.



Case study: Promoting girls' education in Bangladesh³

At the start of the 1990s, boys in Bangladesh were three times more likely to get to secondary school than girls. By the end of the decade, that immense gap had been closed.

Programmes aimed at creating incentives for girls' education have been particularly important. In the mid-1990s, rural girls entering secondary school were exempted from tuition fees and given a small stipend or scholarship. Successive reforms strengthened the programme. To keep receiving the benefits, girls must demonstrate attendance rates of 75% or above, pass twice-yearly exams and remain unmarried. Funding for schools is also conditional upon the participation of girls in the stipend programme. Thus the incentives extend from the home to the school.

The impact of crises and conflict

Crises, whether of natural or human origin, are an increasing feature of the global context within which child labour abolition efforts have to take place. In particular, conflict and economic crises can lead to a growing incidence of some of the worst forms of child labour.

In rural areas, the loss of livestock due to shocks such as droughts or floods may disrupt entire families' livelihoods, placing their survival at risk. This may lead households to take desperate measures, including withdrawing children from school and sending them out to earn money in any way possible.

Wars and natural disasters can lead to schools being destroyed or children being withdrawn from school, due to security or economic concerns. It has been estimated that some 35% of out-of-school children are living in conflict-affected states.⁴ Millions more may be in situations affected by natural disasters. However, it is difficult to assess the full scope of the problem, as data for countries affected by conflict is often lacking.

HIV/AIDS, child labour and education

The AIDS epidemic has forced many children to enter the labour market prematurely. UNAIDS has estimated that about 12 million children under 18 years of age have lost one or both parents as a result of AIDS in sub-Saharan Africa.⁵

Often, when an adult family member falls ill or dies, one or more children are sent to stay with members of the extended family to ensure that they are cared for. Demands on the child's time may make

³ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009: Overcoming Inequality: Why Governance Matters*. Paris, 2009, p. 103.

⁴ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*, p. 56.

⁵ UNAIDS. *2008 Report on the Global AIDS Epidemic*. Geneva, 2008.

school attendance sporadic or impossible, particularly if schools are unsympathetic or unaware of their plight. Children affected by HIV and AIDS may be discriminated against in school, kept separate from other children or even excluded because of social stigma. Hence, the loss of one or both parents has a strong link to school dropout. School life may also be disrupted by the absence of teachers due to HIV and AIDS.

As the number of orphans grows and the number of potential care-givers shrinks, traditional coping mechanisms are stretched to breaking point. If children remain at home, then the oldest is often obliged to act as head of the household. In some countries in Africa, up to 10% of all children orphaned by AIDS are heads of households and caring for siblings. Child-headed households exist because there are no relatives left to care for the children, or else those that are still alive are too over-burdened or sick themselves to care adequately for the children they have “inherited”. Many children who become household heads have little option but to seek work to support themselves and their siblings.

Girls are generally at greater risk of being sexually abused and of becoming HIV-positive than are boys. Some girls who are orphaned and poor are sometimes forced into commercial sex for survival, and this of course significantly increases risk.



Activity 3.1: Identifying barriers to education (group work)

Note for facilitator

Divide participants into groups. You may want to divide them according to different geographic locations, if you want to highlight regional differences.

Ask each group (a) to identify the top six to ten barriers to education in your country, and (b) to rank them in order of importance. The group results should be specific, for example “school fees”, “distance to school in rural areas”, “early marriage”, or “ethnic discrimination”, identifying also the geographical locations and/or marginalized groups of children. (“Poverty” would be too broad and unspecific.)

Advise participants not to get into a discussion of strategies and interventions yet, as this will be the focus of subsequent exercises.

Allow at least 30 minutes for discussion in the groups.

Afterwards, ask each group to present their findings in the plenary (5-10 minutes per group). As a facilitator, you may wish to comment on commonalities and/or differences in the group results (5 minutes).



Activity 3.2: Mapping girls' and boys' roads to decent work (group work and exhibition)

Note for facilitator

The purpose of this exercise is to analyse the different educational experiences of girls and boys as they move along the educational road to decent work. To do so, divide the participants into groups and ask each group to draw two “road maps” that show the different milestones in the lifecycle of the child as he/she moves from infancy to childhood, into adolescence and onto adulthood. One map illustrates this journey for boys and another map illustrates this journey for girls. Emphasize that their journeys may be different.

Each milestone should be indicated with a symbol. For example, entry into primary school can be illustrated with a drawing of a school; obtaining the first job can be illustrated with a pay check or an illustration of bills and coins, etc.

For each of the milestones chosen, the groups should identify the different constraints that girls/boys face at that particular moment in their lifecycle which may prevent them from pursuing their journey to decent work, cause them to alter their route or bring their journey to a complete stop.

Each group should underline the constraints which are related to gender.

You can organize the presentation of the findings as an exhibition (20-45 minutes): Participants walk around the room and look at the drawings of the road maps. Each group mandates one person to stay with their road map, ready to respond to questions or comments by the members of the other groups as they look at the group's respective drawing. (For a large group, the exhibition method can save a lot of time as well as get the participants moving.)

MODULE II: THE EDUCATION RESPONSE TO CHILD LABOUR

Session 4: Tackling the barriers: Formal education

Introduction

The most effective way to tackle child labour is to ensure that all children have access to good quality basic education, at least to the minimum age of employment. Provision of such education can attract and retain children and ensures that children freed from child labour are successfully integrated into schools.

Increasing children's knowledge and skills in a child-friendly environment can provide children, as well as their parents, with a sense of spending time in a sensible manner, and give them hope for a future as productive and independent adults. Regular school attendance provides a protective environment, a healthy discipline and reduces the time available for child labour.

As discussed in Session 3, certain obstacles may prevent children from going to school. To overcome such exclusion, education needs to be "inclusive". Inclusive education aims to ensure that all children have access to an appropriate, relevant, affordable and effective education within their community. It is concerned with the participation of all learners vulnerable to exclusion.

In this session, we will look at some measures that have the potential to make education more inclusive: abolishing school fees, cash transfers, school feeding programmes, improving the quality of education, and utilising the education system to help monitor child labour and other forms of exclusion.

Abolishing school fees

Introduction of free schooling can dramatically transform school enrolment and accelerate the attainment of the EFA goals. Experience in many countries shows that the household costs of schooling are a major barrier that prevents children from accessing and completing quality basic education. The private costs of education are especially burdensome in countries in which poverty and vulnerability impose tough choices on families and households about how many and which children to send to school and for how long.

Countries that have taken the bold step to eliminate fees and other costs to parents have seen dramatic and sudden surges in enrolment. In Kenya, primary school enrolments increased from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.6 million in 2005. In Uganda, primary school enrolment grew from 3.1 million in 1996 to 5.3 million in 1997.

To increase educational access, however, school fee abolition needs to be real. Of 93 countries surveyed by the World Bank in 2005, most of which had official provisions for free primary education, only 16 charged no fees at all. In addition, the unofficial return of fees is a growing phenomenon in countries that have officially and legally abolished fees.

The indirect costs of education can be quite substantial, including uniforms, books, fees for parent/teacher associations, transport, electricity and many others. A World Bank survey carried out in Uganda found that more than half of the parents who withdrew their children from school had done so primarily because of the costs to the household – even though official school fees have been abolished.⁶

School fee abolition can bring with it a range of challenges and costs. It increases the need for trained teachers, classroom facilities, textbooks and other resources. The School Fee Abolition Initiative (SFAI) was launched by UNICEF and the World Bank in 2005 as part of an overall EFA strategy. The Initiative aims to assess the impact of school fee abolition and find out how countries cope with the fallout in terms of increased pressure on schools particularly on secondary schools once universal primary education has been achieved, and to use this knowledge as the basis for providing guidance and support to selected countries.

Cash transfers

Cash transfer programmes have proved to be an effective means of encouraging school attendance in many countries. These programmes involve governments making cash payments to persons who meet certain criteria, and they may contain conditions, including regular attendance of children at school or regular visits of family members to health centres.

Numerous evaluations have attested to the promising results of cash transfer programmes on poverty reduction, school attendance and tackling gender disparities. For example, the *Bono de Desarrollo Humano* in Ecuador, in which households identified as extremely poor receive a cash transfer of US\$15 a month, the programme had a large positive impact on school enrolment (by about 10%) and a large negative impact on child labour (a reduction of around 17%).⁷

Most such programmes have been operating in Latin America and the Caribbean, a region where child labour is less extensive than in Africa and Asia, and resource problems and supply constraints are less severe. Nonetheless, the approach has a wider relevance and is now being taken up in other regions.

⁶ World Bank. Avenstrup, R. et al.: *Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi and Uganda: Universal Primary Education and Poverty Reduction*. Washington, D.C., 2004.

⁷ World Bank. Schady, N. and Araujo, M.C. *Cash Transfers, Conditions, School Enrollment and Child Work: Evidence from a Randomized Experiment in Ecuador*. Washington, D.C., 2006.

From the standpoint of child labour, the main strength of the cash transfer approach is that it tends to address the roots of the problem: chronic poverty, vulnerability to economic shocks, and difficulties of access to education.

Cash transfer programmes sometimes include a special focus on girls' education.



Case study: The Progresa programme in Mexico

Progresa is a major programme in Mexico aimed at reducing poverty and developing the human capital of poor households. The programme provides monetary transfers to families that are contingent upon their children's regular attendance at school between the third grade of primary and the third grade of secondary school. Children must not miss more than a threshold number of school days in a single month.

The programme effectively subsidises education, health care, and nutrition for poor rural households, aiming to break the cycle of intergenerational poverty. Benefit levels are intended to offset the opportunity costs of not sending children to school, and increase by grade level in school, recognising that the opportunity cost of children's time increases as they grow older. To ensure the gender lags in secondary enrolments are reversed, it offers higher transfers for girls than boys attending secondary school.

Evaluation of the programme indicates that it has significantly increased enrolment, particularly at the secondary level, with an increase of enrolment of more than 20% for girls, and 10% for boys.

School feeding programmes

School feeding programmes have proven to be very successful in attracting children to school, as well as providing nutrition and health support. School feeding can also foster children's ability to concentrate during class instruction, thereby improving learning outcomes, which in turn may provide an additional incentive for parents to keep their children in school. The value of such programmes has been widely recognised. For example, India and Brazil have both developed large-scale school feeding programmes.

The UN World Food Programme (WFP) assists many countries (77 in 2009) with programmes in which children are given at least one hot meal per day at school. The WFP found that in the poorest parts of the world, the results of school feeding programmes may go as far as doubling primary school enrolment in one year.

School feeding can be combined with take-home meals for vulnerable students, which is an additional measure to improve the situation for children at risk of dropping out, such as girls or orphans.

School feeding programmes must be properly planned and costed. For example, care should be taken to apply the programme in all schools

of a given area simultaneously, in order not to provide an incentive for children to drop out of one school without school feeding to attend another one with school feeding, which is nearby.

Education quality

For too many children, once enrolled, unfortunately their experience is one of failure leading to drop out, entry into the labour market and perhaps exploitation. Often children fail to complete one phase of education and make the transition to the next. According to a 2006 survey, in about one-third of countries providing data, more than one-third of children enrolled in primary education fail to reach the last grade of primary schooling.

A fundamental challenge for schools is to make themselves more attractive and friendly to all children. Such “child-friendly schools” will be sensitive and responsive to the needs and interests of children in the actual circumstances of their lives. This means that all children are treated with dignity, free from corporal punishment and other forms of humiliation. It also includes providing shelter from the elements, adequate space, desks and benches or chairs, and reading and writing material.

Good curricula are essential for delivering quality education. They must be coherent, paced and properly sequenced. They should not only stress subject learning but also cognitive and psycho-social development and applied learning, including reasoning, problem solving, assessing information and making choices. In many countries, the content and approaches need to be made more relevant, incorporating information about local value and culture in the curriculum, as well as “life skills” information.

In order to improve the quality of education, modern teaching methodologies increasingly focus on the need for a participatory and active learning environment. Practices such as the emphasis on passive rote-learning, memorization through repetition, excessive top-down approaches and reliance on punishments are increasingly being replaced with active, learner-centred approaches.

The way time is organized on a daily, weekly and yearly basis is also important. Teaching schedules need to take into account whether children can actually participate in classes – at what time they need to leave their homes if schools are located far away, how much time is needed to produce optimum teaching and learning conditions in school, how much work, including household chores, is expected of children and whether this is seasonal, and finally how much additional study time is needed to be able to meet school requirements outside of school hours. The length of the school day should be sufficient to facilitate substantial learning progress, but not be excessive, in order to allow for recreational time.

Most countries in the world are bilingual or multilingual. Hence, the selection of language to be taught in school and used as the medium

for instruction is important for the quality of teaching and learning. Research has shown that initial literacy is acquired more easily in the mother tongue. This also supports the acquisition of communication and literacy skills in a second language.

Quality teachers for quality education

The challenge of improving quality highlights the key role of teachers in the education process.

In 1966, the ILO and UNESCO adopted the Recommendation concerning the Status of Teachers to ensure the goal of a high status teaching profession and good quality of education. The Recommendation's provisions include the following:

- **Professionalism:** Teaching should be regarded as a profession. "It is a form of public service which requires of teachers expert knowledge and specialised skills."
- **Cooperation and policy issues:** "There should be close cooperation between the competent authorities, organisations of teachers, of employers and workers, and of parents as well as cultural organisations (...) for the purpose of defining educational policy."
- **Teacher training:** The staff of teacher preparation institutions "should be qualified to teach in their own discipline at a level equivalent to that of higher education."
- **Rights:** Both salaries and working conditions for teachers "should be determined through a process of negotiation between teachers' organisations and the employers of teachers."
- **Salaries:** "Teachers salaries should (...) reflect the importance to society of the teaching function."

The Joint ILO/UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations concerning Teaching Personnel (CEART) regularly evaluates progress in meeting these goals.

Teacher shortages in many developing countries threaten the EFA agenda. It has been estimated that 1.9 million new teaching posts must be created if the goal of universal primary education by 2015 is to be met.⁸ However because of the numbers of teachers who leave the profession or are for some reason unable to continue teaching, the actual number of new teachers required may be higher than this.

Many developing countries faced with this situation have turned to short cuts: reducing critically important initial training and hiring "contract teachers" with virtually no training, lacking the necessary skills or professional support, paid at substantially lower rates than regular teachers. In 2006, CEART examined the trend towards the use of "Contract teachers" as an exceptional measure to meet the

⁸ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*, p. 1.

pressure to increase enrolments particularly from under-served populations.

The CEART 2006 report concluded that, institutionalizing the practice of contract teachers has serious implications for the status of teachers and the quality of education – it creates, for example, the potential of a sub-standard quality response for poorer children – and needs to be replaced by a long-term plan to integrate all teachers into a single, regular teaching force of a desirable and consistent quality.



Case study: Getting large numbers of out-of-school children into school in Tanzania⁹

In 2001, the Government of Tanzania abolished primary school fees and launched a programme to simultaneously improve access and quality at the primary level. The main components of the programme were:

- Increased spending on education, with a focus on primary education. Public education spending rose from 3% of GDP in 2000 to 4.5% in 2005.
- School construction and rehabilitation. Between 2002 and 2004, some 30,000 new classrooms were built.
- Introduction of double shifts, to accommodate the large, rapid enrolment increases after fee abolition.
- Recruitment of teachers and upgrading of current staff. An additional 32,000 primary school teachers were recruited between 2002 and 2004.
- Introduction of school capitation grants. At school level, grants have paid for teaching and learning materials, including textbooks, to help defray school operating expenses and to support teachers' professional development.

Between 1999 and 2006, the number of out-of-school children of primary school age decreased dramatically, from over 3 million to under 150,000. School enrolment increased rapidly, as well as completion, partly due to improved teacher training and increased availability of teaching and learning materials. Abolishing school fees has also helped reduce child labour in Tanzania.

Education – Helping as a monitoring mechanism for child labour

At the national level education systems are monitored to help with policy development and resource allocation decisions. Most Ministries of Education have Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) at national and provincial levels. Information is provided by schools and teachers, and sometimes by school inspectors. Data typically includes: enrolment, attendance, retention, and academic achievement.

⁹ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009*, p. 63.

Whilst this data tells us about the children in school, it does not tell us about those who are out of school. Within the global discussions of Education for All, increasing attention is being given to the importance of education planners identifying who are the children that do not attend school, and the primary reason for their exclusion.

This can happen in various ways. At the national level household data on child labour and other indicators of exclusion can be brought together to build up a picture of the excluded groups; who they are, where they are, and why they do not participate in education.

At the school level, teachers may be able to help identify children who are at risk of dropping out of school and help set up an “early warning” system. It is often the case that when teachers see signs that children are regularly missing school, they contact the guardians or parents, explaining to them the long-term importance of education and of the children staying in school. School-based monitoring can be complemented by peer-to-peer monitoring. In some cases teachers may be able to talk to the friends of a boy or girl who has stopped attending school, and ask them to convince the missing child to return.

To the extent possible, education management systems need to include information not only on those in school, but also provide a detailed picture of those who are out of school.



Activity 4.1: Improving formal education (group work)

Note for facilitator

Divide participants into groups and distribute the following set of questions. Select one or two questions per group to answer (an overlap between groups is possible).

1. What costs to the family are associated with schooling in our country? Note not only official fees, but also unofficial fees to be covered the parents, such as costs of uniforms, electricity, festivities, etc.. Which could be eliminated?
2. Is there a programme of cash transfers in our country? If yes, does it respond to the needs of working children? If not, could it be installed and how?
3. Is there any national experience with school feeding? If yes, what are the results? If not, could a school feeding programme be installed? With which partners, in which geographical locations?
4. What are the factors hampering education quality in our country (e.g. school infrastructure, supply of textbooks, teacher training, class size etc.)? How could the situation be improved?
5. How can the education system be used as monitoring mechanism to assist the collection of data on child labour and other categories of exclusion?

Allow 30-40 minutes for the groups to answer two questions.

Ask the groups to share their findings in the plenary.

Session 5: Tackling the barriers: Non-formal transitional education

Introduction

UNESCO has described non-formal education as learning activities typically organised outside the formal education system. In different contexts non-formal education may cover educational activities aimed at imparting literacy, basic education for out of school children and youth, life skills, work skills and general culture. Such activities usually have clear learning objectives, but vary by duration, and in organisational structure.¹⁰

Non-formal education can complement formal education in overcoming exclusion and reaching children and youth who are unreached by the formal system. It can sometimes provide flexibility in terms of the curriculum, as well as the language, time and place of instruction, all of which may facilitate participation. Thus, it may be relevant to children's needs in some contexts.

When working well, non-formal education can also help bring children into formal education. It may provide a good opportunity to involve parents, the community and civil society in the planning and implementation of learning.

Non-formal transitional education and working children

Many initiatives have been undertaken to help education reach working children, by providing quality non-formal, "transitional" education outside of the formal school system in order to create a bridge between work and school. It is often not possible to put (former) working children directly into formal school.

The role of transitional education is to provide children with a "second chance". Transitional education can help children who have been in child labour to "catch up" with their peers who began their schooling at the appropriate age. Many of the working children who enter non-formal schools are over-age and illiterate but by no means "unknowing". Such students must be allowed to learn at their own pace and in ways that build upon the experience they have acquired.

There should remain a strong link between the formal school system and non-formal rehabilitation programmes because basic education is key to sustaining the success of educational interventions over the long term.

Often, working children or former working children have a keen interest in pursuing their education. They may want to take an equivalency test to acquire a primary school or a secondary school certificate or diploma. Older children who have completed primary

¹⁰ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007: Strong Foundations – Early Childhood Care and Education*. Paris, p. 351.

schooling can often be best supported through a secondary-level programme offering both vocational training and academic subjects.

It should be noted that non-formal education will not always be transitional, as there may be geographical areas where no formal schooling is available. In such a context, non-formal education may be a “stand-alone” learning opportunity for children who would otherwise be excluded from education.



Case study: Complementary education provision in northern Ghana¹¹

An innovative programme run by non-government organizations is attempting to provide out-of-school children in northern Ghana with a second chance. School for Life offers an intensive nine-month literacy course for children aged 8 to 14, with the aim of preparing them to re-enter primary school. Teaching schedules are designed to accommodate seasonal demands on children’s time. Students are given free books, and uniforms are not required, reducing the cost of attendance.

The School for Life curriculum is designed to make education meaningful to rural families who feel that formal schools fail to respect the dignity and strengthen the self-esteem of their children. Students are taught in local languages by locally recruited facilitators, many of them volunteers, who receive in-service training.

School for Life has achieved impressive results. Between 1996 and 2007, it reached around 85,000 children in eight districts, with no discernible gender gap. An evaluation in 2007 found that over 90% of students completed the course, 81% met third-grade literacy and numeracy standards and 65% entered the formal education system. Government data indicate that School for Life graduates entering formal school perform above the average in mathematics and English.

¹¹ UNESCO. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*, p. 195.



Case study: Mamidipudi Venkatarangaiya Foundation in India

The Mamidipudi Venkatarangaiya Foundation (MVF) aims to eliminate child labour through the extension of quality education. The effort began by organizing evening classes for working children but soon developed an innovative strategy for removing children from work and enrolling them into formal schools.

During the first phase, literate youth from the area carry out surveys to identify the numbers of children at work and out of school and to motivate the parents to enrol their children into non-formal education activities. During the second phase, summer camps are organized for the children for three months in schools during the regular formal school summer holidays. The children start to learn reading, writing and arithmetic in a creative learning environment. They also form committees and become responsible for running several camp activities. The third phase involves the transition from the camp to a hostel and full-time formal education, utilizing the existing government facilities for children from disadvantaged and poor classes. MVF teachers and volunteers are attached to the hostels to guide the children in the transition to formal schools.

Since its inception in 1981, MVF has mobilized communities to withdraw hundreds of thousands of children from work and enrolled them into schools covering over 6,000 villages in eleven districts of the State of Andhra Pradesh.



Case Study: Supporting Childrens Rights through Education, Arts and the Media (SCREAM)

By empowering young people, giving them responsibility and recognizing the value of their contribution, we can harness the wealth of creativity and commitment that they can bring to the campaign to eliminate child labour. To this end, IPEC created the SCREAM (Supporting Children's Rights through Education, the Arts and the Media) programme. SCREAM is an education and social mobilization initiative to help educators, in formal and non-formal education settings to cultivate young people's understanding of the causes and consequences of child labour.

The programme places heavy emphasis on the use of the visual, literary and performing arts and provides young people with powerful tools of self-expression while supporting their personal and social development. Activities are often endorsed and supported by local and national governments, in particular Ministries of Education, include links with teacher training programmes and involve local artistic groups.

Since its launch in 2002, SCREAM initiatives have been carried out in over 65 countries, both industrialised and developing, and the SCREAM Education Pack is available in 19 languages. Through SCREAM, thousands of young people around the world have become engaged in initiatives to raise awareness against child labour as individuals or in groups.

Challenges and concerns

Some concerns should be kept in mind in discussions to design or expand non-formal education.

1. Non-formal education should not be turned into a “second class” system, which will create or cement the inequality of educational opportunities for certain groups of children. At the same time, the resources allocated to non-formal education should not be concentrated in such a way that its quality far exceeds the formal system, as this would risk pulling children out of the formal system.
2. Planning for formal and non-formal education should go hand in hand, and education planners should also consider issues of cost efficiency and sustainability. It may be that money spent on non-formal education could be better spent on formal education, if more children can benefit.
3. Quality standards are often lacking in non-formal education. In many countries there are few measures of outcomes and virtually no inspection. An overemphasis on flexibility may lead to neglecting certification and accreditation, which may diminish the value attached by learners.
4. Last but not least, providing quality education for all children remains the responsibility of the State. Therefore, the involvement of a variety of actors besides the Ministry of Education must not lead to Government relinquishing its responsibilities.



Activity 5.1: Improving non-formal education (plenary discussion)

Note for facilitator

Ask the participants to discuss the following questions in the plenary, and write down some of the answers on a flipchart:

1. What is our country’s non-formal education strategy and experience?
2. What is the coverage (geographical and numbers of children reached)? Is the coverage sufficient?
3. How can we improve the quality of non-formal education and the linkage with formal education?

The activity should be kept short (20-30 minutes). Note that Session 6 will provide more opportunities to reflect on ways to improve the education system as a whole, with a focus on child labour.

Session 6: Review of national experience: Strengthening formal and non-formal initiatives

Introduction

The content of the previous two sessions on formal and non-formal education could be regarded as the core content of this training. Therefore, the participants should be given ample time to reflect on the issues and jointly develop ideas for national action.

Since it is highly unlikely that any developing country can simultaneously implement, for example, a new school feeding programme **and** a conditional cash transfer programme **and** a school fee abolition programme **and** a far-reaching non-formal education initiative, priorities need to be set, based on an analysis of the national context.



Activity 6.1: Improving education to tackle child labour (group work)

Note for facilitator

Divide the participants into groups and have them discuss the following questions at length (60-80 minutes).

1. How can the provision of (a) formal and (b) non-formal education be improved in order to respond to the needs of children engaged in or at risk of child labour? Rank your recommendations in order of importance.
2. Who could be the actors involved? (Please be realistic.)

Encourage the groups to make use of the results of the previous sessions. Ask them to use the worksheet below and save their findings on a laptop computer.

Afterwards, each group should present their findings in the plenary (5-10 minutes per group).

Later, if you consider it appropriate, you can mandate two or three participants to consolidate the group results outside of workshop time or during one of the subsequent sessions. In this way, the results of the working groups can be used as workshop outcomes to be shared with other national stakeholders.

The following worksheet table should be handed to the working groups in electronic format, to facilitate their work. The two initial examples in the table are provided merely for the purpose of illustration; they can be deleted.

Worksheet for Activity 6.1: Improving education to tackle child labour				
Priority	Area	Subsector (FE/NFE)	Recommendation	Actor(s)
1	Teacher training	FE	Revise teacher training curriculum to include child labour and HIV/AIDS; produce materials	MoE, MoL, National Institute of Education, teachers trade union
2	Accelerated learning	NFE	Set up a programme of accelerated learning for out-of-school youth	MoE, civil society
3				
4				
5				
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				

FE = formal education; NFE = non-formal education.

Session 7: The school-to-work transition

Introduction

It is an ironic fact that child labour and youth unemployment coexist in many countries – while there is a demand for certain types of labour that is met by children who should not be working, there is also a supply of labour from young people of legal working age that goes unused or under-utilized.

Unemployment rates among young people of the 15-24 year age range are typically two or three times higher than adult unemployment rates.

Child labour tends to exacerbate the problem of youth unemployment in so far as it prevents children from acquiring the needed education and skills to compete in the labour market as they become older. One of the major ways of improving working children's life chances is to help put them on the right track to future employment – to decent work.

Pre-vocational and vocational training as well as apprenticeship programmes can facilitate the transition from education to the labour market for older children and youth. In the following sections we consider the links between child labour and youth employment and look at various elements of skills training and their relevance both in standard education and skills settings, and in programmes to tackle child labour.

Links between child labour and youth employment

The links between child labour and youth employment go both ways: On the one hand, child labour prevents children from acquiring the human capital necessary for gainful employment as young people. On the other hand, in the face of poor youth employment prospects, parents may have little incentive to invest in their children's schooling, and instead send their children to work prematurely.

The difficulties young persons face in accessing decent work often originate in child labour and compromised education:

- workers who are less educated are much more likely to be in informal sector work and less likely to be in wage employment;
- exposure to child labour also appears to lead to greater job insecurity, to lower productivity and to lower wages as adults;
- former child labourers as adults are more likely to have to depend on their children's work as a household survival strategy, thereby perpetuating the poverty-child labour cycle.

The links between child labour and youth employment also illustrate the importance of a life-cycle approach – identifying the important stages of life when children are vulnerable. It is vital to ensure that educational disadvantage and discrimination faced at one stage are not perpetuated at later stages, and that girls and boys are supported from an early age to make smooth transitions into the labour market.

Pre-vocational training

Pre-vocational training refers to the training arranged primarily to acquaint children with materials, tools and standards relating to a range of occupations that could possibly assist children in choosing a future career path. In formal schools, this might typically consist of basic skills in woodwork, cooking and sewing, etc. Pre-vocational training is also sometimes seen as increasing the relevance and interest of the curriculum to older children, which in turn might reduce the chance of them dropping out.

This kind of training is sometimes also provided through non-formal education programmes, in combination with or after functional literacy training, but with more of a focus on potential for livelihoods development when the child is old enough to work. Courses are typically short and provide specific skills, such as silk screen printing, handicraft production, or vegetable growing.

Pre-vocational training may also include job and education counselling which outline options in regard to personal and professional development including career advice, where to access technical and vocational trainings and whether to proceed to academic or vocational education.

Vocational education and skills training

Vocational and skills training programmes can provide practical skills for older children (14-17 years) who are at or above the legal minimum age of employment. Skills/livelihood training can be an important mechanism in overcoming social exclusion faced by marginalized children, as it can offer the possibility of greater choice concerning future work opportunities and therefore the hope of a better future. The provision of vocational and skills training is also an important means to withdraw children at or above the minimum age of employment from hazardous labour, by providing them with marketable skills that will enable them to find decent work opportunities.

Because of the gender segregation in the labour market in many countries, the options for girls to enter different trades or occupations can be limited. To ensure that educational opportunities do not inadvertently reinforce existing gender inequalities, special attention needs to be given to facilitate the access of girls to vocational training.

Vocational education and skills training should seek to ensure that the training programme leads to an employment opportunity. A Labour Market Analysis or Community Employment Assessment can assist in this process, ensuring that training is linked to market needs. Training should also integrate components to alert young people to issues of rights at work, and occupational safety and health.

If skills training is to lead to employment in an economy in which self employment constitutes the major element, post training support

linking trainees with financial institutions and government projects to access soft loans, grants and subsidies, market linkages, and other business development services may also be important.

Apprenticeship programmes

In order to prepare older children for entry into gainful employment, it is important that the vocational education and skills training component of programmes are matched to the current needs of local labour markets. In this respect, linking up to apprenticeships with local businesses and artisans has in some contexts proved to be a successful strategy. In some countries formal apprenticeships which link a young person with an employer to learn a trade are quite popular. There is also increasing interest in the idea of “informal apprenticeships”, less formal arrangements which apply in certain countries but with the same idea - allowing a young person to learn a trade by working alongside a tradesperson.

Recruiting local small businesses as training providers is an innovative way to link children up to the world of work and a way to provide a wide variety of skills for children to choose from. A perceived strength of such apprenticeship programmes is that the learning takes place in a real commercial setting and includes a lot of skills practice for the children involved. As well as vocational skills, the children can observe and learn other entrepreneurial skills, such as negotiating prices, meeting prospective clients, and so on.

However there are also concerns about standards in this kind of training. Some of the issues to consider if supporting such apprenticeship programmes are:

- minimum age laws must be respected;
- apprenticeships should be based on a written contract which provides protection for the child and makes clear the obligations of the master craftsperson;
- regular monitoring arrangements should be in place to ensure that the apprenticeship proceeds in a proper way. Local employers and workers organizations could be involved in the monitoring process;
- workshops in which apprenticeships are to be implemented should be carefully chosen and placement of a large number of trainees in one workshop should be avoided;
- there should be some simple training for the workshop owners in training skills, occupational safety and health, and terms of the contract.

The Youth Employment Network (YEN)

The UN Secretary-General established a Youth Employment Network (YEN) in 2002 with the United Nations, the ILO and the World Bank as core partners. One of the main objectives of YEN is to assist

countries in developing national action plans on youth employment, as urged by two General Assembly resolutions.

The national action plans provide a good opportunity for integrating child labour concerns in a policy framework that is not only most relevant, but also enjoys significant political support in many countries, as well as internationally.



Activity 7.1: National experience in linking child labour and youth employment (group work)

Note for facilitator

Divide participants into groups and have each group answer the same set of questions (40-60 minutes).

1. What are the main issues and trends in your country or geographical area concerning:
 - youth unemployment;
 - youth underemployment;
 - youth working in poor working conditions.
2. What is the linkage between child labour and the problems facing youth in your country (e.g. in a specific sector or geographic location)? How come child labour and youth unemployment co-exist in these settings?
3. What education and training policies could help to improve the situation; for example, skills training programmes for youth, promoting safe work for youth, re-orientating labour demand away from children and towards youth?
4. Do you have examples of good practice on skills training and efforts to promote youth employment?

MODULE III: THE WAY FORWARD

Session 8: The education sector plan and child labour

Introduction

National policy processes present an opportunity to put the issue of child labour into the mainstream agenda. Sector programmes provide an overview of a given sector, including an analysis of the conditions that must be addressed. Education Sector Plans have a pivotal role for the planning and implementation of education activities in the country.

Sector programmes

A sector programme encompasses an overall strategic framework for a sector (such as education, health, or rural development), a sectoral medium-term expenditure framework and an annual budget. Sector programmes with action plans should link to the national poverty reduction strategy or the National Development Plan.

A sector programme is based on an analysis of the underlying structural conditions – political, legislative, economic and social – that must be addressed in that sector. The sector programme offers certain advantages from the perspective of child labour mainstreaming, because the analysis goes beyond the scope of individual projects. It includes a review of patterns of public expenditure and taxation, which may have an effect on the supply of and demand for child labour.

To ensure the sector programme promotes a pro-active approach to child labour in the sector, rather than responding to child labour impacts as they unfold, the underlying causes and consequences of child labour must be included at the sector analysis stage. If the causes and consequences of child labour have been included in the sector analysis, a response that aims to make expenditure for the sector more “child friendly” can be developed.

Education sector plans

Child labour is often neglected in education sector plans. In a 2009 survey of 48 such plans, only eight identified child labourers as a marginalized group, and of these just four mentioned specific strategies to reach them.¹²

A single, country-led education sector plan is increasingly seen as the main delivery vehicle for the global compact on education. In general, a credible and sustainable education sector plan should address key

¹² UNESCO, IIEP. *Educational marginalization in national education plans*. Background paper for EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010. Paris, 2009.

constraints to accelerating education in the areas of policy, data, capacity, and financing and align primary education priorities with those for pre-school, secondary, tertiary, and non-formal education.

These plans have been given greater impetus through the Global Partnership for Education. Countries that are or seek to become partner countries are required to develop a comprehensive education sector plan, which is subject to appraisal by civil society and donors supporting the plan.

According to its guidelines, an education sector plan should, in particular:

- provide a costed strategy for accelerated progress towards education for all;
- identify appropriate policy actions designed to improve education quality, equity, efficiency and fiscal sustainability;
- provide an appropriate strategy for addressing HIV and AIDS, gender equality and other key issues;
- identify implementation capacity constraints and strategies to address them;
- review the total of domestic and external resources available to implement the sector plan and estimate the additional resource requirements in light of short to medium-term implementation capacity;
- indicate how the country intends to carry out monitoring and evaluation; and identify annual targets for measuring progress on key policies and outcomes.

Other mechanisms, such as Sector-Wide Approaches (SWAPS), also have consultative processes at the country level that can provide an opportunity for civil society engagement to integrate child labour and education concerns into national education sector and poverty reduction plans.

Child labour in education sector plans

There are two main reasons why it is important for national authorities to address child labour in education sector plans. First, national authorities need to recognize that specific population groups face particular barriers in accessing education. Children in such groups may not necessarily be reached by general programmes to expand access, unless the barriers they face are properly addressed.

Second, the sector plans ought to identify the steps to be taken to tackle barriers and to effectively reach the excluded groups. In this way, the inextricable link between education and child labour is not merely acknowledged; but rather, all efforts to provide education for all children and to eliminate child labour are undertaken with a common vision and can thus mutually reinforce each other.

Education sector plans need to properly take into account the problem of child labour in several central areas. The checklist at the end of this session provides an overview of these areas.

Equity and inclusion guidelines

Whilst child labour represents a major source of exclusion from education, there are also other factors that are significant causes of exclusion. Issues of gender, disability, and HIV/AIDS are all factors that can be sources of exclusion, and often may be linked with the challenge facing child labourers. A government ministry may not have the capacity to address each of these issues separately and a coordinated response to exclusion will often be valuable.

With this in mind, in 2007 the Global Task Force on Child Labour and Education for All (GTF) proposed that agencies working on various aspects of exclusion cooperate on the development of a common tool for tackling exclusion and promoting equity. Work was subsequently developed through the network of the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) and the EFA Fast Track Initiative, and guidelines have now been published.¹³

Poverty reduction strategies

Poverty reduction strategies are broad national development plans that propose how to reduce poverty nationwide. Poverty reduction strategies are results-oriented, containing targets and indicators. Most are set within a three- to five-year time frame. In a bid to generate investment in their country, poverty reduction strategies focus on economic growth and employment as a requirement for poverty reduction.

Poverty reduction strategies are developed under the leadership of national governments, sometimes with the coordinated support of the international financial institutions, bilateral donors and the UN. Often developing the poverty reduction strategy represents a process and not just a strategy document, with a range of implementation activities, workshops, reviews, and revisions. The process typically includes a national consultation element. Although ideally, a wide range of actors should be involved, in many countries the linkages and coordination between government, development partners, social partners and civil society can be weak.

Poverty reduction strategies offer an opportunity for governments to align initiatives that promote a pro-active approach to inclusive education and child labour concerns (and allocate resources to implement these initiatives).

¹³ UNGEI. *Equity and inclusion in education - A guide to support education sector plan preparation, revision, and appraisal*. Washington, D.C., 2010.

Financing of education

Countries that invest in education and training are more likely to succeed in today's global economy. A cost/benefit study published by the ILO found that the elimination of child labour and its replacement by universal education is likely to yield major economic benefits. Globally, the benefits are estimated to exceed the costs by a ratio of nearly 7 to 1.¹⁴

Notwithstanding this, universalizing basic education completion for girls and boys alike will require considerable resources – internal and external. Governments need to eliminate direct costs such as school fees that are particularly discouraging for the poor. It is also important to reduce indirect costs of education for poor families, as was discussed in Session 4.

UNESCO's EFA Global Action Plan now urges Governments to devote at least 6% of Gross National Income to education, with a bias to primary education but with a proper investment in secondary and higher education. In fact, the majority of sub-Saharan African countries and many under-achieving Asian countries spend less than 4% of GNP on education.

Apart from increasing public sector resources, other sources of funding may be possible, for example:

- **Budgetary transfers.** Countries could transfer funds from other budget items to education.
- **Debt relief.** One concern of creditors has been to link reductions in debt to increased domestic spending on items that will further the provision of basic needs to the poorest members of the world community, as well as promote economic growth. Investing in education for all addresses both of these concerns, and would provide an alternative that debtors and creditors alike might find attractive.
- **Development assistance.** Additional funding can be sought from international or bilateral donors.

¹⁴ IPEC. *Investing in every child - An economic study of the costs and benefits of eliminating child labour.* Geneva, ILO, 2004.



Checklist: Child labour aspects in the analysis of education sector plans

The following checklist highlights areas which could be considered as good practice in mainstreaming child labour concerns into national education sector plans.

Using knowledge and data on child labour

1. The education sector plan should recognize and incorporate a summary of any data on child labour and children's work produced through surveys such as ILO supported National Child labour surveys, the UNICEF MICS, or World Bank surveys.
2. The plan should assess the implications of that data for education strategy. For example, if there are particular geographical areas in which it is known that there are large concentrations of children working, does the education strategy address this?
3. If a government has established a national action plan to tackle child labour based on ILO Conventions, the education sector plan should show a link between education strategies and the national action plan on child labour.

Targeting of interventions

4. Are there possibilities for joint targeting of communities in which it is known that child labour is a significant issue? For example, if the government has a plan to tackle child labour in certain geographical areas, can this be reinforced by targeted education interventions in the same areas?

Education costs

5. Indirect costs of education can be a significant barrier to poor families. Are there plans to reduce indirect costs, in particular costs of books, uniforms and transport?

Rural areas

6. 60% of child labour is in agriculture. Is there a clear strategy for extending education access in rural areas? If there is evidence that children stop attending school at a certain time of the year to work in agriculture, does the education strategy respond to this?

Girls

7. Girls involvement in domestic work, either for long periods within the family household or in third party households, can represent a major barrier to education participation, yet is often ignored. Has consideration been given to this group and how to tackle their exclusion from education?

Access to school

8. Are there any school entrance restrictions that would create obstacles to out of school children returning to school (e.g. age restrictions which prevent a child above a certain age from entering school)?



Reintegration

9. Former child labourers and other excluded groups may need special transitional education as a bridge to entry or re-entry into the formal education system. Once back in the formal education system children who have been out of school for some time may need support to ensure that they remain in school and are able to learn effectively and progress within the system. Does the education plan consider this?
10. Is there a possibility to add a “transition” class to existing schools, designed to cater for children returning to school and to ease their transition back into formal schooling?

Non-formal education

11. Is there an effective linkage between non formal and formal systems? Can children easily make a transition from NFE to formal education?
12. If there is a system of non formal education, is this being adequately monitored to assess standards and effectiveness?

Monitoring

13. Do management systems provide clear and properly observed procedures for school attendance monitoring?
14. If a child stops attending school before completion of compulsory education is there a system for checking on where the child is and what the child is doing?

School to work transition

15. As countries make progress at the primary level and more focus also begins to be placed on secondary education, do national plans address issues of how to support the school to work transition?

Linkage of education sector plan with other sectors/plans/laws

16. If the Government has a national plan on child labour/child protection, is a linkage with this reflected in the Education Sector Plan?

Quality of education/inclusive education

17. To provide quality education it is important to provide enough properly trained teachers. Does the teacher training programme provide an opportunity to sensitise teachers to concepts of inclusive education, including special problems which may affect working children’s participation in education (irregular attendance, tiredness during school hours, etc.)?



Activity 8.1: Analyzing child labour aspects in national education plans (group work)

Note for facilitator

Divide participants into groups. Distribute copies of the national education sector plans, as well as the above checklist. Determine three to five questions for each group to answer; an overlap between groups is possible (60-90 minutes).

If time allows, ask each group to draft recommendations on how to improve the national education plan in the areas they identified as lacking.



Case study: Raising awareness of child labour in schools

In a number of countries Ministries of Education and teachers trade unions have been involved in efforts to develop curriculum resources that provide teachers with materials and information that they can use to discuss child labour with school students. In Mali a national teachers trade union has developed a “model lesson” on child labour and similar initiatives have been taken in other countries. In 2011 the Congress of Education International, the Global Union Federation of education trade unions, adopted a resolution which called for member organisations to support development of age appropriate curriculum materials concerning child labour.

Session 9: Working together to strengthen education and tackle child labour

Introduction

In many countries, political will has yet to be translated into effective mobilization within relevant ministries, departments and agencies at central and lower levels of government.

Much work remains to be done in sensitizing officials and community leaders concerning child labour issues, in identifying what needs to be done by each concerned department or agency, and in committing resources to address the problem.

Overstretched education and other departments will seldom have child labour at the top of their agenda, and may not have a strong incentive to collaborate. Ways need to be found to help them perceive and address the problem as part of their regular work.

Winning the war against child labour requires the effective functioning and coordination of different branches of Government. A sound understanding of the issues underlying child labour and education should lead to effective action by each concerned department within a coherent and collaborative framework – but incentives may need to be in place to make this happen.

Strengthening dialogue between Ministries

Various national Ministries will establish systems to disseminate information, technical assistance and financial resources. They will also establish systems to collect and analyse data. However, government departments are organized on a sector basis and tend to operate top-down from the centre. This can pose a major constraint to a coherent response to child labour that necessarily has to be multi-sectoral in nature – cross-cutting various line ministries.

Related information on education and child labour is often collected through quite separate structures and mechanisms. This means that few actors have a full appreciation of all the activity against child labour or data that could assist education planning. Conversely, relevant information collected through different mechanisms established by different ministries, may never be collated and, thereby, opportunities to help child labourers are missed.

For example, Ministries of Education will have information about school enrolment, attendance and dropout rates. The Ministry of Labour may have information about where child labourers work. Outreach to child labourers requires that information be shared. Equally, the effective enforcement of regulations relating to education and child labour requires effective communication across government departments, and a system of enforcement that involves a wide range of participants, including teachers.

In addition, Ministries of Finance, Health, Social Protection, Justice are all likely to be involved in issues related to child labour. In fact, given the significance of adequate financing for education, it could be argued that the involvement of Finance Ministries is particularly important.

At national level, there may already be a structure which brings together various Ministries concerned with child labour. This may be a National Steering Committee or National Action Committee established under a national action plan to tackle child labour. There is a need to regularly review if such structures are working effectively, and to ensure that key Ministries are represented appropriately.



Activity 9.1: Working together (group work or plenary discussion)

Note for facilitator

Have participants discuss the following questions, either in the plenary or in working groups (30-60 minutes):

1. Which line Ministries or Departments in your country deal with issues of child labour, education, exclusion or child protection? Are there mechanisms to exchange information so that the most vulnerable children are identified and subsequently protected from child labour, and provided with education that responds to their needs? How could dialogue among Ministries be improved?
2. Which specific structures dealing with child labour and education (for example, a National Steering Committee) exist in your country at national, district and local level? How well are they functioning? What could be done to enhance their impact?
3. What other stakeholders should be involved, and how?
4. What other recommendations that may not yet have been captured during the workshop are there for moving forward in strengthening education and tackling child labour?

In the plenary, summarize the findings on a flipchart or computer. If possible, decide jointly on major areas for action, identifying specific follow-up.

ANNEX 1: Proposed timetable for a national workshop

The following model programme can serve as a basis for planning a national workshop. For each of the sessions numbered in the programme, the CD that accompanies this publication contains a simple MS PowerPoint presentation which can be used by the facilitator to support the session, or can be adapted to the local context.

Day/Time	Day 1: Child labour and education: The linkages	Day 2: The education response to child labour	Day 3: The way forward
8.30 – 9.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Participants Registration ● Official Opening Remarks ● Introduction: Background information, workshop objectives, expected outputs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Group work reports 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● RECAP/Emerging Issues
9.00 – 10.30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 1: International policy frameworks on education and child labour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 4: Tackling the barriers: Formal education ● Group work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 7: The school-to-work transition ● Group work
10.30 – 11.00	Tea break	Tea break	Tea break
11.00 – 13.00	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 2: The national context: National legislation, latest data and knowledge ● Group work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Group work reports ● SESSION 5: Tackling the barriers: Non-formal transitional education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Group work reports ● SESSION 8: The education sector plan and child labour
13.00 – 14.00	Lunch break	Lunch break	Lunch break
14.00 – 15.30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 3: Exclusion: Barriers facing child labourers ● Group work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 6: Review of national experience: Strengthening formal and non-formal initiatives ● Group work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● SESSION 9: Working together to strengthen education and tackle child labour ● Group work
15.30 – 16.00	Tea break	Tea break	Tea break
16.00 – 17.30	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Group work (cont.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Group work reports 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Summary of recommendations based on group work

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