Time-Bound Programme

Manual for Action Planning

TBP
MAP

GuideBook

II

Time-Bound
Programmes for
Eliminating the
Worst Forms of
Child Labour - An Introduction

TBP MAP
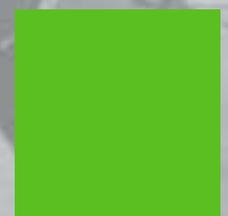
Guide Book II:
Time-Bound Programmes for Eliminating the Worst Forms of Child Labour - An Introduction

International Labour Organization

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1   Introduction

On 17 June 1999, the International Labour Conference unanimously adopted the *Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (No. 182)* and *Recommendation No. 190*, urging immediate and effective measures to secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour (WFCL). This Convention has had the fastest pace of ratification in the history of the International Labour Organization (ILO). Over four-fifths of the ILO's 175 member States have ratified it. The overwhelming willingness of countries to be held accountable for their record in eliminating the WFCL provides evidence of a global consensus that certain forms of child labour cannot be tolerated, regardless of a country's level of economic and social development.

All governments that ratify Convention No. 182 also make a commitment to act. They pledge to take immediate and effective time-bound measures to eliminate the WFCL in their countries.

AfDB	African Development Bank
CBO	Community Based Organization
CLM	Child Labour Monitoring
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CLMS	Child Labour Monitoring Systems
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
MDT	Multi Disciplinary Team

PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SEED	ILO InFocus Programme on Boosting Employment through Small Enterprise Development
SIMPOC	Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
SPIF	Strategic Programme Impact Framework
TBP	Time-Bound Programme
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
US DOL	United States Department of Labor
WFCL	worst forms of child labour

They commit themselves to work with employers' and workers' organizations, concerned civil society groups and other governments to ensure that progress is both rapid and sustainable. Practically speaking, they have to create and implement a national plan to eradicate the WFCL within a specific time frame. They are also responsible for identifying the necessary financial and human resources to execute the plan and for monitoring its progress.

Some ILO member States, particularly those with multiple WFCL, have chosen to develop and implement a Time-Bound Programme (TBP) to manage the implementation process and fulfil their obligations under Convention No. 182. TBPs are designed to provide governments with a comprehensive framework they can use to chart a course of action with well-defined targets.

1.1 The child labour problem and global awareness of the need to address it

According to the latest ILO global estimates released in 2002,[1] there are some 352 million economically active children aged 5-17 years, of whom around 246 million are engaged in activities classified as *child labour*. Of these, 179 million are thought to be in *the worst forms* (mostly hazardous work, but with significant numbers in slavery and bonded labour, prostitution, illicit activities or as trafficked children). Even in the 5-14 age group, the figures are staggering – 211 million economically active children, including 186 million child labourers. These figures, which are based on a growing body of data from comprehensive surveys on child labour, many of them undertaken with assistance from ILO/IPEC's Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour
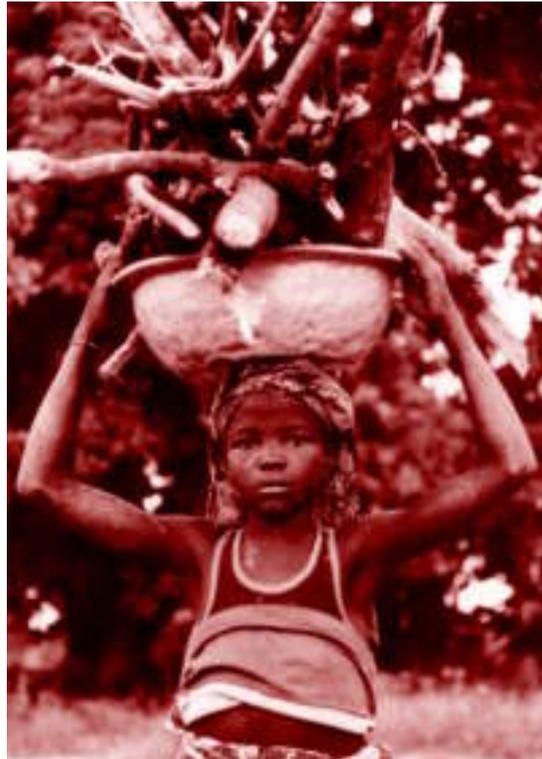
Photo: ILO/F. Moleres

(SIMPOC), underscore the sheer scale of the child labour problem and reinforce the need to give priority to the urgent elimination of its worst forms.

While the child labour problem remains enormous, it is also reassuring that concern about it and knowledge and understanding of how to eradicate it have spread globally in recent years. The growing awareness of the pernicious effects of child labour on children and society has fostered support for large-scale action by the ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) and others. It also reflects the much larger process towards the protection of children's rights in general in recent years. The United Nation's Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), adopted in 1989, gained nearly universal ratification within seven years of its adoption. It provides for a child's right to be protected from economic exploitation and hazardous work, or any work interfering with, among other things, his or her education.

[1] See SIMPOC: *Every Child Counts: New Global Estimates on Child Labour* (ILO, Geneva, 2002).

For the ILO, the fight against child labour has a long history, dating from the First Session of the International Labour Conference in 1919 when it adopted two child labour instruments specifying the minimum age for work in industry and restrictions on night work for young persons.[2] The Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138) consolidated the early ILO instruments on child labour and reinforced the principle that the minimum age for employment should coincide with the end of compulsory schooling. Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 are thus complementary to the CRC and provide detailed standards and guidance for realizing children's rights in the world of work.

Furthermore, the *ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work*[3] puts the effective abolition of child labour in the context of the global economy. Children who go to work instead of school are more likely to be unemployed or underemployed as adults, and will eventually lose out on opportunities to benefit from the economic growth created by an integrating world economy. In this sense, TBPs contribute both directly and indirectly to ILO's central goal of promoting decent work for women

The Millennium Development Goals comprise eight targets to be met by 2015. These include: halve extreme poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; empower women and promote equality between men and women; reduce under-five mortality by two-thirds; reduce maternal mortality by three-quarters; reverse the spread of diseases, especially HIV/AIDS and malaria; ensure environmental sustainability; and create a global partnership for development, with targets for aid, trade and debt relief.

and men, as well as to the *Millennium Development Goals*, which include among other targets a halving of extreme poverty and universal free education by 2015.[4]

1.2 The evolution of IPEC's approach to eliminating child labour

Since it began operations in 1992, IPEC has been supporting activities aimed at the progressive elimination of child labour. It has worked with a wide range of partners, including government agencies, employers' and workers' organizations, NGOs, the media, religious institutions, community leaders, schools, international agencies and donors to facilitate policy reform, change social attitudes and implement direct action programmes targeting the sustainable prevention and abolition of child labour. In its early years, IPEC supported its partner organizations in participating countries to develop and pilot activities such as assessment of

[2] The Minimum Age (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No. 5), and the Night Work of Young Persons (Industry) Convention, 1919 (No. 6).

[3] The ILO adopted the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work and its Follow-up at its annual Conference in 1998. More information on the Declaration is available at: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/decl/index.htm

[4] The Millennium Development Goals were adopted by world leaders at the Millennium Summit in September 2000.

The ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work is a promotional instrument aimed at taking up the challenges of globalization that had been the focus of debate in the ILO since 1994. The Declaration calls on ILO Member States to safeguard and promote respect for basic workers' rights, requesting States party to the ILO's Fundamental Conventions of freedom of association, the right to collectively bargain, forced and child labour, and equality, to fully implement them and other States to take into account the principles embodied in them.

the extent and nature of the child labour problem, formulation of protective legislation, capacity building and the establishment of mechanisms for enhancing programme coordination and national ownership. Other activities supported included awareness raising in communities and workplaces and the provision of formal and non-formal education for children withdrawn from child labour. This strategy of working with partner organizations in mostly small-scale projects covering different facets of the work against child labour characterized the IPEC "country programme" approach, which was instrumental in mobilizing broad support against child labour and enhancing national capacity to tackle it.

Since 1997 IPEC has gradually enlarged the scope of its projects, taking successful interventions to scale by covering large geographical areas and even entire economic sectors. At the same time, new approaches have been developed combining workplace monitoring, social protection, non-formal education and training schemes in integrated programmes. These programmes have helped to withdraw hundreds of thousands of children from hazardous work, keep many workplaces child-labour-free, and provide former child labourers with education and their families with income generation alternatives.

Other large-scale initiatives include regional projects addressing cross-boarder issues such as trafficking in children for sexual and labour exploitation, child soldiers, mining and commercial agriculture. Complementary to this direct action throughout has been substantial in-depth statistical and qualitative research, policy and legal analysis, programme evaluation, and child labour monitoring (CLM), which have permitted the accumulation of a vast knowledge base of statistical data and methodologies, thematic studies, good practices, guidelines and training materials. New types of interventions have also included efforts to improve education systems through curriculum development and teacher mobilization and training with a view to reducing dropout rates and rehabilitating former child labourers.

Photo: ILO/M. Crozet

Although the Programme has expanded rapidly over the past several years[5] with activities in over 80 countries today,[6] it is clear that IPEC's available technical cooperation resources can only provide direct relief to a very small proportion of the children in need of help. Thus, IPEC's overall strategy has been undergoing a shift in emphasis with the aim of more efficiently utilizing its broad experience, knowledge base, and financial resources to extend the fight against child labour as far and as wide as possible. In the future, IPEC will further reduce its role in the direct execution of individual programmes and focus greater resources on large-scale, integrated projects of national or regional scope and policy and technical advice to ILO member States related to the implementation of Conventions Nos. 138 and 182.

[5] Programme expenditures rose to US$ 41 million in 2002, compared with US$ 33 million in 2001 and US$ 22 million in 2000.

[6] For a list of participating and associated countries please refer to: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/about/countries/t_country.htm

1.3 TBPs: An integral part of IPEC's strategy to eliminate the WFCL

The adoption of the TBP approach is an integral part of this evolution in strategy. Focusing heavily on the rapid elimination of the WFCL, it represents a logical progression of IPEC's work to date while drawing on the experience that has been accumulated since the programme's inception. TBPs pull together many of the successful approaches piloted by IPEC, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and others in the past into a comprehensive and scaled-up programme combining upstream policy-oriented interventions covering awareness raising, legislation and enforcement, education, employment and social protection with downstream interventions covering among others withdrawal and rehabilitation services, community mobilization and awareness raising, and economic empowerment of vulnerable families.

Box 1: TBP country experiences

El Salvador, Nepal, and the United Republic of Tanzania are the first three countries to implement TBPs. Labour ministers from these countries expressed their commitment to, and requested assistance for, the development of comprehensive national programmes of action targeting particularly the WFCL at an international conference jointly organized by the US Department of Labor (US DOL) and the ILO in Washington, D.C. in May 2000, under the theme "Advancing the global campaign against child labour: Progress made and future actions". With US Department of Labor funding and IPEC technical support, the authorities in these countries undertook a yearlong programme preparation exercise. This involved the collection and analysis of data on the incidence and nature of many forms of child labour and key contextual factors, widespread stakeholder consultations and reviews of the experiences of government, NGO and international agencies involved in interventions against child labour in these countries, notably the experiences of IPEC and its major partners.

Three other countries, the Dominican Republic, Costa Rica, and the Philippines, have since completed design of their TBPs and are now at the implementation stage. Eight additional countries have begun the process as well, namely: Bangladesh, Brazil, Ecuador, Indonesia, Pakistan, Senegal, South Africa and Turkey.

TBPs are "country owned" and final responsibility for them lies with the government. To become a success TBPs require commitments by social partners, community and civil society at large. A TBP is a flexible approach that can be adapted to specific national situations. Several Boxes throughout the paper have been inserted to illustrate TBP country experiences. Box 1 illustrates actions taken by the first TBP countries.

1.4 Content of this Guide Book

As a general introduction to the TBP, this Guide Book is divided into two Parts. The first aims to provide background information on the WFCL, including their causes and consequences. The second gives an overview of the policy and programme interventions that comprise a TBP to eliminate them. It also describes the various aspects of the TBP development process from research to programme formulation, implementation to monitoring and evaluation.

Part I begins with Section 2 and a discussion of ILO child labour Conventions Nos. 138 and 182, what comprises child labour in the view of the ILO, and what are the distinguishing characteristics of its worst forms. It also reviews the magnitude of the problem worldwide according to the latest ILO estimates and the development of the global movement to combat it. Readers already familiar with these issues and those in Section 3 may choose to go directly to Part II of the Guide Book.

Section 3 reviews the causes and consequences of child labour. While household poverty is the single most significant factor pushing children into child labour, there are numerous other factors that influence the supply and demand for child labour. These should be addressed if child labour is to be eliminated in a sustainable way. Economic growth, while making the reduction of poverty easier, does not mean that child labour will automatically disappear on its own. Long periods of poor economic performance, however, clearly make eliminating child labour more difficult. The Section finishes with a review of the causes and consequences of the WFCL outlined in Convention No. 182 that TBPs are specifically meant to eliminate. Those covered here are the use of children in armed conflict, commercial sexual exploitation of children, debt bondage, trafficking, and hazardous work.
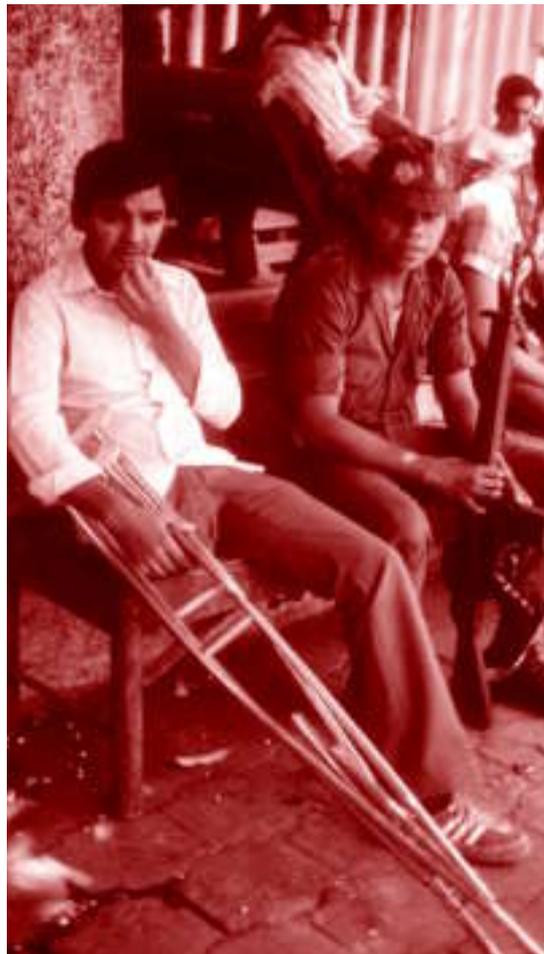
Photo: ITCILO/G. Palazzo

Part II begins with Section 4 enumerating six principal characteristics of the TBP, namely:

(1) that it is nationally "owned" in terms of planning, implementation and resource mobilization;

(2) that its goals are integrated into national development plans;

(3) that it involves the participation of many stakeholders;

(4) that it needs to be flexible enough to adapt to the specific circumstances of the country in question;

(5) that it is underpinned by extensive data collection and analysis;[7] and

(6) that the implementation of its components is monitored and evaluated during the course of the programme.

In Section 5, the various policy choices and programme interventions that may be incorporated in the TBP framework are reviewed. The Section is divided into three parts:

■ First, upstream policy measures that contribute to the creation of an "enabling environment" for the elimination of the WFCL are described. These include measures in the areas of labour legislation and social policy, education policy, social mobilization, employment and poverty reduction strategies and capacity building.

■ Second, direct interventions aimed at specific target groups are reviewed. These are the prevention, withdrawal, rehabilitation and protection measures that directly benefit the victims of WFCL, their families and their communities.

■ Finally, the important and necessary link between the TBP and other social and economic development programmes is considered and good practices in TBPs are described.[8]

The TBP development process is overviewed in Section 6. This Section covers the entire TBP cycle from initial planning and research to the evaluation of the programme's impact. It describes the various stages and modalities of design, planning and resource mobilization, showing how the six principal TBP characteristics presented in Section 4 fit into the framework. The Guide Book concludes with some of the principal lessons learned so far from the TBPs now underway.

[7] For a more in-depth coverage of the general and important issue of building the knowledge base, which includes data collection, please refer to Guide Book III: *Creating the Knowledge Base for Time-Bound Programmes,* available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

[8] For an elaboration on the specific points, please refer to Guide Book IV: *Policy Choices and Programme Interventions for Time-Bound Programmes*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

Part 1:
Child labour
and its worst forms

2   Child labour
   and its worst forms

2.1 What does the ILO consider to be "child labour"?

The term "child labour" does not encompass all economic activity of children under the age of 18. *Child labour* simply refers to employment or work carried out by children that does not conform to the standards enshrined in the ILO child labour Conventions No. 138 on the minimum age for employment and No. 182 on the WFCL.[9] In effect, these Conventions establish the boundaries of the work by children that is targeted for effective abolition.

[9] The complete text of these and all ILO Conventions is available on the ILO web site at www.ilo.org/ilolex/english/index.htm

[10] That is, employers' and workers' organizations.

[11] Age 12 or 13, depending on whether the overall minimum age for employment has been fixed at 14 or 15 years.

The ILO Conventions on Child Labour allow national authorities some discretion in setting out boundaries for children's work. In consultation with the social partners,[10] governments determine whether or not certain activities are appropriate for a child, taking into consideration his or her age, level of maturity and the national or local socio-economic development context. In particular, depending on their age, children may be allowed to carry out *light work.* Convention No. 138 defines light work as work by children above a specified age[11] that is:

"(a) not likely to be harmful to their health or development; and

(b) not such as to prejudice their attendance at school, their participation in vocational orientation or training programmes approved by the competent authority or their capacity to benefit from the instruction received." (Article 7)

Work in schools, while in principle subject to minimum age regulation, is also not prohibited provided it is part of a programme of education, training or vocational guidance designed and supervised by a public authority in consultation with the social partners. Similarly, Convention No. 182 requires that national authorities determine which occupations and processes are hazardous for children and must be eliminated without delay.

Photo: ILO/E. Gianotti

Figure 1: Basic distinctions in ILO child labour standards

| Age in years | Work excluded from minimum age legislation *** | Light work | Non-hazardous work | Hazardous work | Unconditional worst forms of child labour |

Shaded area = child labour for abolition
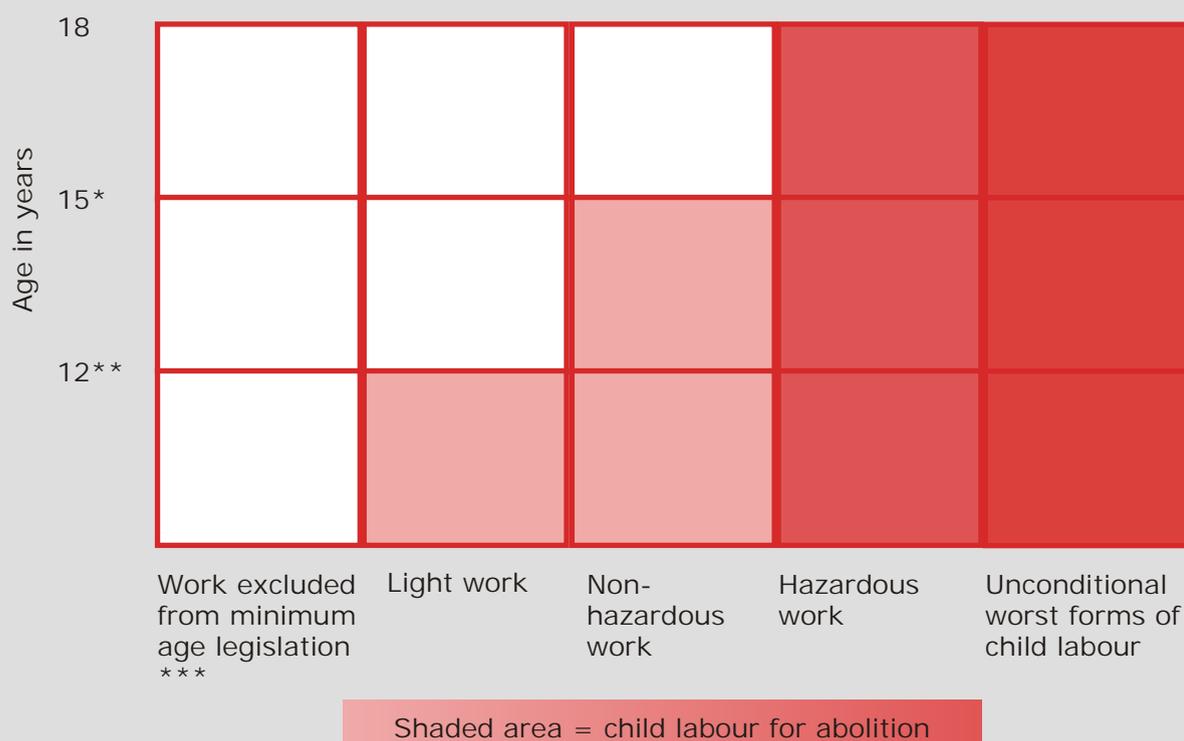
*   The minimum age for admission to employment or work is determined by national legislation and can be set at 14, 15 or 16 years.

**   The minimum age at which light work is permissible can be set at 12 or 13 years.

***   For example, household chores, work in family undertakings and work undertaken as part of education.

Source: ILO, A Future Without Child Labour: Global Report under the Follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, 2002. International Labour Conference, 90 Session 2002

Child labour slated for abolition falls into three categories:

■ labour that is performed by a child who is under the *minimum age* for that kind of work (as defined by national legislation, in accordance with accepted international standards), and that is thus likely to impede the child's education and full development (covered by Convention No. 138);

■ labour that jeopardizes the physical, mental or moral well-being of a child, either because of its nature or because of the conditions in which it is carried out, known as *hazardous* work (covered by Convention No. 182); and

■ the *unconditional WFCL*, which are internationally defined as slavery, trafficking, debt bondage and other forms of forced labour, forced recruitment of children for use in armed conflict, prostitution and pornography, and illicit activities (covered by Convention No. 182).

Figure 1 illustrates the basic distinctions embodied in Conventions Nos. 138 and 182. It shows that it is the interaction between the type of work and the age of the child involved that defines the boundaries of child labour for abolition.

2.2 The WFCL according to Convention No. 182

All boys and girls who have not reached 18 years of age have a fundamental right to pursue their physical and mental development free from work categorized as WFCL. Convention No. 182 (Article 3) defines these WFCL to include:

1. *all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery*, such as the sale and trafficking of children; debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;

2. the use, procurement or offering of a child for *prostitution*, production of *pornography* or pornographic performances;

3. the use, procurement or offering of a child for *illicit activities*, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties; and

4. work which by its nature or by the circumstances under which it is carried out, is likely to *harm the health, safety and morals of children*.

The first three (1 through 3) are the unconditional WFCL referred to above. Because serious harm is inherent in the nature of the work, children must under no condition be admitted to them, and must be withdrawn from them if their involvement is established. In most countries, these are generally recognized as common crimes.[12] The fourth category is that which is referred to as "*hazardous work*". This is a relative term in that it may be sufficient to remove the hazard for a child to be allowed to continue to carry out the work, provided, of course, the minimum ages established in accordance with ILO Convention No. 138 are observed.[13] Protecting a child's reproductive health, for example, does not make commercial sexual exploitation any more acceptable; replacing toxic glue with a harmless substance for the production of footwear may, however, turn a worst form of child labour into a lawful occupation.

Hazardous work is defined in the Convention not so much by its nature, but by the effect the circumstances under which it is carried out may have on children, i.e. harm to their health, their safety or morals. The types or conditions of work that are likely to have this effect must be identified at the national level in close consultation with employers' and workers' organizations.[14] To put this consultation process on the right track from the outset, Recommendation No. 190, which accompanies Convention No. 182 provides a list of broad categories of hazardous work, which can be used as a basis for tripartite consultation. In determining the types of work referred to under Article 3(d) of the Convention, and in identifying where they exist, consideration should be given, inter alia, to:

■ work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse;

■ work underground, under water, at dangerous heights or in confined spaces;

■ work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads;

[12] For additional information on legal issues concerning the worst forms of child labour, see Paper IV-3: *Eliminating the Worst Forms of Child Labour under Time-Bound Programmes: Guidelines for Strengthening Legislation, Enforcement and Overall Legal Framework*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

[13] Ibid.

[14] For additional information on the process of determining hazardous child labour, see Paper IV-4: *Eliminating hazardous child labour step by step*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

Photo: ILO/J. M. Derrien

■ work in an unhealthy environment which may, for example, expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health; and

■ work under particularly difficult conditions such as work for long hours or during the night or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer.

These guidelines are sufficiently general to allow the inclusion of any form of work considered to be hazardous. Some examples of hazardous work and their associated risks can be found in Box 2.

Ratification of Convention No. 182 also obligates governments to undertake the following actions to eliminate the WFCL:

■ design, implement and monitor programmes of action;

■ designate national mechanisms to monitor the Convention's implementation;

■ enforce the Convention's provisions, including penal or other sanctions;

■ take effective and time-bound measures to prevent engagement of children in the WFCL to provide direct assistance for the removal of children from the WFCL and for their rehabilitation and social integration, to ensure access to free basic education and appropriate vocational training for all children removed from the WFCL, to identify and reach out to at-risk children, and to take account of the special needs of girls; and

■ assist one another in giving effect to the Convention, including support for social and economic development, poverty eradication programmes and universal education.

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Box 2: Some examples of the hazards faced by children in the WFCL

Unconditional WFCL

Group	Specific Risks faced
Commercial sexual exploitation of children	Abuse; sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS; pregnancy; social exclusion; psycho-social disorders; family rejection; and death.
Trafficked children	As above, but with the added trauma of being isolated and unable to communicate, and of being enslaved.
Slavery and forced labour	Physical, mental and sexual abuse; loss of self-esteem and self-confidence; and long and arduous working hours.
Children in armed conflict	Death, mutilation or injury in fighting; psychological trauma; drug addiction; sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS; pregnancy; social exclusion; and psycho-social disorders.

Hazardous working situations

Group	Specific Risks faced
Agricultural workers	Use of machinery and vehicles designed for adults and requiring training; and exposure to toxic agro-chemical and biological agents, especially pesticides.
Mines	Injury from falling objects; cave-ins; harmful dusts; gases and fumes; humidity; extreme temperatures; and mercury poisoning (gold-mining).
Ceramics and glass factory work	Exposure to high temperatures leading to heat stress, cataracts, burns and lacerations, broken glass; hearing impairment from noise; eye strains; and exposure to silica dust, lead, carbon monoxide and sulphur dioxide.
Children in other factories or building sites	Exposure to dangerous machinery, chemicals, falling objects; arduous working hours; and abusive employers.
Deep-sea fishing	Drowning; ruptured eardrums; and decompression illness.
Child domestic workers (working and sometimes living in the household of the employer)	Long working hours; physical, mental and sexual abuse; isolation; and lack of opportunities for recreation and socialization. Often child domestic workers are subjected to the slavery-like conditions described under the unconditional worst forms above.
Children working in the streets (urban informal economy)	Exposure to unsanitary conditions; risks of illness and food poisoning; and sexual abuse. Also, most vulnerable to other WFCL (like commercial sexual exploitation or use of children in drug dealing) on account of proximity to such activities.

Recommendation No. 190 also elaborates further possible measures. These include, among others:

■ collecting detailed information and statistical data on child labour;

■ cooperating with international efforts to exchange information and to detect and prosecute persons involved in the sale and trafficking of children;

■ mobilizing public opinion and involving employers' and workers' organizations and civic organizations;

■ monitoring and publicizing best practices on the elimination of child labour; and

■ creating jobs and providing skills training for parents and adult family members of concerned children.

Photo: ILO/J. M. Derrien

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3 The causes and consequences of child labour

Preferences and constraints affecting child labour can be modified over time as the result of social mobilization, economic growth, developments in markets and institutions and changes in the technology and organization of production. Policy interventions can be designed to directly address child labour in a top-down legislative approach, e.g. a ban on child labour. However, interventions may also target the preferences and constraints of parents and employers, aiming to produce outcomes that lower the prevalence of especially harmful forms of child labour. An advantage of the latter approach is that it addresses the causes rather than the symptoms of the problem. The legislative approach is likely to contribute to a reduction in the WFCL, but it is bound to be more effective if supported by direct action programmes, monitoring and social mobilization. Both approaches require a good understanding of the causes and consequences of child labour.

The following Sections 3.1-3.2 discuss the determinants of supply and demand for child labour and overview how anti-child labour policies affect them. They review how market and institutional developments — especially in credit and labour markets — can modify the relative strengths of different underlying determinants. Macroeconomic or aggregate forces are then considered in Section 3.3 including how they shape the environment in which these decisions are made. A final section 3.4 outlines the causes and the individual and society-wide consequences of the WFCL.

[15] For an extensive review of the role of decent work in poverty reduction, see *Working out of Poverty: Report of the Director General, International Labour Conference, 91st Session 2003* (ILO, Geneva, 2003), available at www.ilo.org/ public/english/ standards/relm/ilc/ ilc91/pdf/rep-i-a.pdf

3.1 The supply of child labour

Poverty is by far the single most important reason why children become child labourers. It forces them to work in order to meet the subsistence expenses of their households, to attenuate the risk of debts, bad harvests, illness or loss of work of the adult members. The elimination of child labour should therefore be linked to efforts to reduce poverty. It requires a three-pronged strategy aimed at reducing family poverty through:

- the creation of *decent work* opportunities for adult family members; [15]

- enlarged access to and improved quality of education of children — especially girls — of poor families; and

- introducing and applying labour market regulations.

Box 3: Why children work and why they should not

Why children work

Children work for predominantly economic and social reasons. Children work because their families are poor, mostly as a result of inadequate access to productive assets — be it skills, jobs, credit or land. They work because they or their parents perceive that the rewards received from labour are greater than those from education and/or because the quality of education is inadequate. Sometimes the effective choice is between work and starvation. Parents are even known to sell their children. Children also work because of employer preferences. Employers may prefer children to adult workers, not because they are more productive, but because they are easier to exploit. Some children, who may not necessarily be poor, are lured into working at an early age by the desire for consumer goods.

Why they should not

Children should not work because child labour jeopardizes their education, health, safety or morals and generally violates their right to childhood. It hampers economic growth by hindering the development of a qualified and skilled adult labour force. Investing in education, on the other hand, can significantly reduce child labour by improving the quality of schools, reducing the direct and indirect costs to families, and thereby encouraging students to return to school. In the longer term, such investment can also contribute to economic development and poverty reduction, bringing further desirable effects on child labour.

Why children work in the WFCL

Children often work in hazardous occupations because of ignorance on the part of children, parents, employers and influential persons in the community, such as teachers, religious and community leaders, about the risks to health and development of children. In some cases, the problems are social, political or cultural as much as economic. Children from communities on the margins of society are easy prey for organized crime bent on trafficking human beings or exploiting them by way of prostitution. Children involved in war are mostly the victims of ethnic or political rivalry or the fight for control over natural resources. And children in bonded labour often continue an age-old tradition of slavery. A programme targeted at the worst forms will therefore need to be fine-tuned to respond to the activities that predominate in particular contexts and account for the underlying social, cultural and political mechanisms that draw certain children into them.

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

[16] For more information on qualitative research for providing information on the causes and consequences of child labour, please refer to Guide Book III, op. cit., or Paper III-1: *Building the Knowledge Base for the Development of Time-Bound Programmes*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

While poverty produces child labour, the reverse is also true. A childhood lost to labour, without the children being given the opportunity to develop their potentials, mortgages their future and condemns them to poverty in adult life. This perpetuates the vicious cycle whereby poverty is transmitted from one generation to the next, as well as the social injustice done to those children. One could say that a decent childhood, without abuse and exploitation at work, is a precondition for a decent adult working life. This also makes economic sense, as, in the long term, no society can achieve sustainable economic development on the backs of its children.

In Sections 3.1.1-3.1.6 below the factors underlying child labour supply are elaborated. While the history and geography of child labour offers support for the poverty explanation of child labour supply, there is evidence from field studies and from household survey data that the incidence of child labour in households above the poverty line is not insignificant. Overall, evidence indicates some role for each of the factors discussed below. Thus, case-by-case data analysis is needed in order to select appropriate policies in any region. Qualitative research approaches provide further in-depth information essential for understanding the causes of child labour in particular sectors or regions, which are crucial when planning interventions.[16]

3.1.1 Household poverty

When households are so poor that the earnings of the child are necessary to meet subsistence expenses, the only viable policy action is to address that poverty. For such households, investing in school quality alone, for example, will not necessarily draw children out of work because the household simply cannot afford to lose the child's income. The acute immediate need to ensure income security makes it nearly

impossible for extremely poor households to invest in their children's future.

Appropriate policy choices hinge on an assessment of the nature of poverty, to see whether poverty primarily is:

■ transient (e.g. cyclical or seasonal),

■ chronic or structural, or

■ event-related (e.g. armed conflicts, floods or famines).

Such an assessment will help determine whether policies to be adopted should include such things as credit to assist households to make it through periods of transient poverty, tying credit to school attendance, and long-run policies designed to invest in reducing chronic poverty, or the introduction of social safety nets, such as school feeding programmes or stipends for very poor families with school-age children.

It is important to emphasize that poverty is defined not only by lack of access to private goods or land, but also by access to common goods. Households in villages where state-provided infrastructure includes potable water, electricity and roads are economically far better off than households with the same income but without these amenities. An example of this situation occurs in rural economies when children, as well as adult women, are heavily engaged in getting water from faraway sources.

Poverty impacts children in various ways. Children may work to directly increase family income for subsistence, but they may also be part of a risk diversification strategy. Families on the threshold of poverty are especially vulnerable to income fluctuations caused by bad harvests, illness, or loss of work, for example. Sending out more family members to work will diversify income sources, and thus provide a kind of insurance against such shocks. This is particularly the case for families who have no savings or ability to borrow, especially single-parent households.

Children may also be forced into work because of parental debt. In most extreme situations, a number of children are born to families that are already living in debt bondage under an employer's exploitative treatment. Such indebtedness also robs the parents of their decision-making power for their children's upbringing, rendering them unable to counter an employer's hold over their children.[17] Poor households also find it hard to acquire credit, because they have few assets to offer as collateral and because they engage in riskier activities. Poverty in this case influences families to sell children into bonded labour in return for either a lump sum of money or debt repayment.

Fertility, poverty and child labour are interlinked. Large families are often poorer. Younger children from large families are both more likely to work and less likely to attend school. The vicious cycle of poverty is fed further by teenage pregnancy. Young, poor teens who work tend to have children at a young age. They subsequently send their own children out to work due to low household income. Thus, the vicious cycle perpetuates itself.

Child labour can aggravate poverty by increasing unemployment or under-employment of adults, while putting downward pressure on wages. At the opposite extreme, however, child labour may facilitate adult employment. For example, many adults, especially women, are able to enter the job market because their children take on essential home tasks. Children working

[17] Such situations were common in Nepal under the Kamaiya system, which was abolished in July 2000.

on their own account in the informal sector may have little effect on adult employment, filling niches that are not attractive to adults.

3.1.2 Perceptions about the value of work versus school

Some children work not because of absolute poverty but because they and their families perceive the benefits, both immediate and future, to be greater than the benefits of education. This may be the result of poor quality of education, education perceived as being irrelevant, or other factors that make work more attractive than school. For example, in the case of household-owned farms or small enterprises, the benefits of work experience may be perceived to be higher than schooling if children inherit these assets and remain in the same occupation once they are adults. For such households, introducing reforms that increase the relevance of curricula content for the local economy would, among other things, improve the expected benefits schooling implies. In rural areas, for example, education needs to be seen as bringing about perceptible productivity increases in both farming and non-farm activities. Also relevant for large sections of this group is the issue of adapting the school calendar, to the extent possible, to suit the needs of the local economy. A role for policy here is to increase information about, and provide access to a diversity of jobs inside and outside of the community, and to encourage inter-generational occupational mobility.

Imperfect labour markets strengthen the incentives for parents who own land or other assets to eventually send children to work on the farm. In particular, the more assets, like land or livestock, a household owns, the higher the marginal productivity of family labour (other things being equal — such as household size).

Photo: ILO

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In the absence of a well-functioning labour market, it may be difficult to substitute hired labour for family labour. This creates an incentive for parents to employ their own children.

Many cultures also nurture a belief that work is good for children's growth and development, for their upbringing and socialisation. Poor quality education in many developing countries reinforces this. In Nepal, for example, it is widely believed that poor village children are better off cleaning the houses of strangers in Kathmandu than living in their own communities, attending the local school. While societies should determine, within international parameters, what types of work are acceptable, clearly the WFCL should not feature among them. Moreover, policy action needs to focus on investments in the real and perceived returns of education.

It must also be noted that some of the WFCL may be well-paid in the eyes of children (particularly teenagers) and allow them access to consumer goods they would not otherwise have. The perceived potential for quick gains leads them to rationalize away the grave risks involved. This attitude is most frequently associated with drug trafficking, prostitution, soldiering and mining.[18] Extricating children from these activities may therefore involve creating alternative livelihoods, such as employment of adults in the household and an educational guarantee for the children, with possible subsidies for poor households. For illicit activities, such measures will almost certainly need to be accompanied by effective enforcement of the relevant laws as well.

Among other factors, children may follow in their parents' footsteps, often for reasons of geographical proximity, as is the case when a factory or mine is a town's main employer. In other cases, social marginalization or exclusion can deny children the possibility to get an education and hence choose their own careers. This is sometimes seen with the children of sex workers who are more likely to enter this line of work, as is the case of the children of leather tanners who help out with work from an early age.[19]

In addition to the fact that educational interventions are central for the prevention and reduction of the WFCL, numerous benefits of education are worth summarising:

- for a child born into a household with limited economic assets, publicly funded education offers an escape from the poverty trap – a route to economic and social mobility;

- education increases the probability of finding wage employment and also attracts a higher wage rate, once in employment;

- educated parents are found to produce better outcomes for their children, even after adjusting for the level of household income;[20] and

- the social returns to education are also significant (social returns to basic education in fact exceed the private returns), including lower fertility and more effective political participation. As in the case of other activities generating positive results, there is a clear efficiency-based case for government intervention in subsidizing education.

[18] Numerous examples of this from many different countries can be found in IPEC-SIMPOC, *Rapid Assessment Surveys on the worst forms of child labour*. The RAs are available at: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/simpoc/ra/index.htm

[19] ILO: *Targeting the Intolerable* (Geneva, 1997).

[20] For instance, a fairly systematic finding in recent literature on micro-econometric analysis of data from developing country household surveys found that children of educated mothers: come from smaller families; are more likely to survive beyond the age of five; are generally healthier; and are more likely to be enrolled in school.

3.1.3 Barriers to education — increasing the supply of child labourers

Survey data suggest that many children are not enrolled in school due to long distances. This is especially true for rural areas. Not only physical but also social distance might prevent a child from going to school. Villages in India, for example, are often divided into separate hamlets. Children from one hamlet may be reluctant or unable to go to school in another hamlet due to caste or other tensions. Girls' restricted freedom of movement exacerbates this problem of social distance.

While primary education in principle is "free" in many countries, there are often indirect costs to parents such as uniforms, textbooks, tutoring and even unofficial payments to teachers. Impoverished parents who choose to send their children to school instead of work incur not only these indirect

Box 4: The importance of making education accessible, relevant and an affordable alternative to work

The accessibility of universal quality education holds a particularly important role in the eradication of child labour. Many specific reasons play a role in the failure of formal education systems to cater for the needs of children engaged in child labour or those at risk:[21]

■ inadequate linkages between education programmes and programmes relating to social protection, including child labour issues;

■ social or cultural norms and attitudes towards education within the target group itself;

■ lack of relevance of curricula to local labour market opportunities;

■ curricula and educational practices insensitive to the needs and aspirations of girls;

■ low quality of education, particularly in poor and/or rural areas;

■ inadequate support for teachers in the form of infrastructure, training and teaching aids;

■ attitudes of teachers and decision makers in the education system; and

■ absence of a mechanism for offsetting the opportunity cost for destitute families.

The last point is particularly important. In IPEC's experience, it is very difficult to enrol ex-child workers in the educational system without some substitution for the lost income from the child's work. This can be done in different ways: by picking up the indirect costs of education (books, uniforms, shoes, etc.), giving free school meals, or "food for education", stipends, or even more indirectly by supporting income generation opportunities for adult members of the family. This kind of simultaneous targeting of the child and its family is particularly difficult in the absence of effective links between the delivery mechanisms for education and social protection.

[21] Additional information on this topic can be found in Paper IV-2: *Conceptual framework for child labour interventions in the education sector* (Geneva, ILO, 2003), available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

costs, but lose the child's income as well. There may also be administrative hurdles that prevent children from getting enrolled, for example, lack of required documents, such as proof of citizenship or residency.

In many countries, where schools are available, the quality of education can be poor and curricula perceived as irrelevant. Teachers and educators who are primarily responsible for providing education to children from poor families, in both rural and urban areas, are faced with innumerable problems such as lack of the most basic facilities, materials and support systems. Often, their working conditions are poor and they assume demanding workloads without adequate compensation and recognition for their efforts. Those structural problems having a substantial impact on the successful elimination of WFCL — ranging from poor quality schooling to difficult working conditions for teachers — should be identified and implemented on an urgent basis.

3.1.4 Parental attitudes and knowledge

Parental attitudes play a major role in sending a child to work. In some cases, parents have stated that they did not know the kind of work or the consequences of the work that their children were sent to. For example, there have been cases in West Africa where parents thought that their children were going to a good job in another region but were, in fact, working as domestic labourers or in prostitution. Unfortunately, the traditional placement of children within the extended family for educational purposes has increasingly been used to exploit their labour.[22] Parents accustomed to their children living with a family member elsewhere may also find it easier to send them away with intermediaries whom they do not know.

Given that both childbirth and child survival involve uncertainty, it is likely that public health investments that reduce child mortality, combined with wide-coverage pension schemes, will contribute to the reduction of child labour. In circumstances where parents do not hold out any expectation of acquiring returns from investing in their children, it is conceivable that they will value their own current consumption above the future consumption of their children.

3.1.5 Gender roles

As mentioned in Box 5 and discussed more fully in Guide Book IV, gender norms can restrict the opportunities available for girls, and thus the likelihood of them attending school. Many societies believe that it is good for girls to be trained as housekeepers, therefore rendering it acceptable to send girls out to work as domestics. In societies where girls suffer particularly severe discrimination, boys are given education while girls are sent to work. Boys are often sent to work outside the home where they are more visible than girls — for example to factory work instead of domestic labour — thus, boys may benefit disproportionately from interventions to increase school attendance. Other extremely vulnerable groups, such as ethnic minorities and social groups with limited rights, are among the most economically and socially excluded and have limited opportunity.

Ingrained local notions of when childhood ends and adulthood begins — often with gender-specific implications — are sometimes well below the international standards set by the CRC and the ILO Child Labour Conventions. In cultures where girls are considered adults at puberty, for example, it often means early marriage, motherhood

[22] IPEC: *Combating trafficking for labour exploitation in West and Central Africa: Synthesis report based on studies of Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Gabon, Ghana, Mali, Nigeria and Togo* (Geneva, ILO, 2001), p. 5.

and/or work — teenage mothers as young as 12 years old may be expected to work and perform physically demanding household chores.

3.1.6 Consumerism and other factors of social change

Rapid social change and desire for material goods can be a strong push factor into child labour. Societies facing rapid social change find that images of material wealth through mass media travel much faster to poor areas than does development itself. Bombarded with these images, children themselves sometimes

decide to seek employment in urban areas to fulfil dreams of new clothes, make-up, and other consumer goods. Sometimes these children may not even be poor, but middle class.

3.2 The demand for child labour

3.2.1 Who are the employers of children?

On the demand side, employers make the decision to hire children, choosing against the alternatives of hiring men and women or using machines to do equivalent work. The employer is a parent for the majority of working children in developing countries. One usually assumes that the parent-employer is sensitive to the safety and welfare of the child-employee. This is often the case. However, exploitation by parents is not uncommon. Sometimes they are simply ignorant about the risks their children face; other times obvious risks are ignored. Moreover, the class of employers also includes abusive and exploitative individuals, including criminals involved in illegal trade or trafficking. Usually the WFCL occur outside the home.

3.2.2 Why do employers prefer children?

Generally, child labour is an imperfect substitute for unskilled adult labour in production. Most employers care only about the effective cost of work, or wages adjusted for how productive the worker is. They will prefer children if and only if they are effectively cheaper. Case studies of working children highlight their low wages and poor working conditions as evidence of the low effective cost of child labour. Working conditions for adults may not

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Box 5: The special needs of girls

Considering that 60 per cent of children out of school worldwide are girls, greater efforts need to be made to address the special concerns and issues of girls. Their work is largely hidden, uncounted and unvalued (e.g. household chores, domestic servitude, agricultural work, home-based work). Often, parents prefer to invest in educating their sons and not lose their daughters' critical contribution to the household economy, when faced with limited resources and many financial demands. Efforts to increase girls' education must go hand-in-hand with efforts to progressively eliminate child labour. Other factors that constrain girls' educational opportunities range from the distance to schools – which also places girls' security at risk – to the provision of relevant and gender-sensitive curricula. In certain cultures, a girl's chance to go to school might depend on the availability of separate school facilities for girls or the presence of a female teacher.

Photo: ILO/A. Khemka

necessarily be better, but it is important to remember that adults are making a decision for themselves, whereas children are vulnerable to adults taking that decision for them.

In principle, a well-functioning labour market should equalize effective wages. If children are not as productive as adults, lower wages reflect lower skill level. In areas where a minimum salary has been imposed by trade union pressure or state policy, employers are more likely to hire adults because adults are generally more productive. Just as women continue to be paid less than men for equal work, children may be paid disproportionately less than adults, even for the same productivity because they are easier to exploit. This may be why some employers are able to get away with paying children minimal piece rates for their labour.

In some cases, it is argued that children represent a superior substitute for adult labour, for example, in small spaces such as mines or chimneys. A number of studies have now refuted the "nimble

fingers" argument in the Indian carpet weaving industry and other similar fallacies. If child labour is not viewed as a necessity to the production process, there will be one less barrier to its elimination.

Employers are often also able to employ illegal child labour with impunity. Properly enforced legislation is thus all the more necessary to protect children against exploitation and preserve their human rights. It is clear that the better developed the legal and regulatory institutions, the better protection there is for children at work.

3.3 The impact of economic growth on child labour

3.3.1 Economic growth and inequality

Faith in economic growth has been modified in the last two decades by two important observations, for which there

Box 6: Interactions between economic growth and child labour

Economic growth....

.....can finance greater public spending

Economic growth in the formal sector tends to raise the taxable surplus, making funds available for governments to use for the development of social services such as health and education. A policy regime committed to eliminating the WFCL will direct funds toward this end.

.....is associated with technological change

Economic growth is typically associated with technological change, an increased total demand for labour, as well as an increase in the relative demand for skilled labour. Since children are usually unskilled, the relative demand for child labour tends to decrease. Thus, on average, child labour participation may be expected to decrease. But the net effect on child labour depends on the nature of economic growth, or on which sector is driving growth, e.g. export sectors, labour-intensive industries or rural regions.

.....alters the incentive to work

This premise can develop in different directions since it comprises of at least three different tendencies:

1. by virtue of increasing total labour demand, growth will tend to raise wage rates and thereby the opportunity cost of not working. In other words, growth will encourage work, including child work, by increasing the reward for working;[23]

2. with the rise in adult or parent wages, the compulsions driving children to work are relaxed; and

3. rising demand for skill and the rising information requirements imposed by technological change will tend to increase the return to schooling. If the latter two factors dominate, growth has the effect of reducing the incentives that send children to work.

......can influence attitudes

Social norms determining whether child labour is acceptable may change. More generally, an intolerance of inequality tends to emerge in the later stages of development. Change in social norms can contribute to the emergence of a stronger legal system with a wider reach. Social mobilization can accelerate these processes.

[23] This is a large part of the story of women's labour force participation having increased dramatically in this century. However the influences of parent wages and school returns that are subsequently discussed apply to children but not to women.

is fairly widespread theoretical and empirical support:

- *a bigger gross domestic product is not automatically pro-poor* — active policies are required to ensure that wealth is distributed and poverty reduction is addressed alongside growth; and

- *human capital is an important complement to physical capital in producing growth*, thus health and education are of both intrinsic and instrumental value. Since child labour clearly reduces human capital accumulation, it results in a loss of welfare to both the child and society, limiting the overall growth potential of the economy.

Economic growth can be an advantage to a country committed to reducing child labour, but concerted action is required to direct its effects towards increasing the well being of the poor. However, the effects of economic growth are often not linear, hence child labour may initially increase before it decreases,[24] or it might not decline *quickly* enough to be acceptable. The ways that economic growth can help to reduce child labour can be seen in Box 6.

To the extent that the cumulative effect of these growth-produced changes reduces child labour, a virtuous circle may be established because a more educated population tend to increase economic growth. In addition to each member of the population having a higher earning capacity once educated, there are acknowledged spill-over benefits to society as a whole that are greater than the sum of the benefits to each individual. Quality education, especially if evenly spread across gender and across regions in a country, promotes democracy and, thereby, a political mechanism for sustained social change.

3.3.2 Economic downturn and macro-economic instability

While economic growth can facilitate efforts aimed at eliminating the WFCL, the reverse is also true. Long periods of poor economic performance may make it difficult to overcome the problem. Other things being equal (e.g. absence of efficient income redistribution schemes), economic stagnation may limit poverty alleviation through weak or negative employment growth and greater constraints on the public provision of social services. Furthermore, periods of economic crisis are likely to coincide with significant increases in child labour, as witnessed in South-East Asia in the late 1990s, where huge job losses reversed past gains in poverty alleviation and contributed to huge reductions in purchasing power. At the same time, cuts in social spending further limited access to education and health care among poor families.

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

[24] This was found to be the case in an IPEC study on South East Asian industries. M. Falkus: *A Survey of Child Labour in South-East Asian Manufacturing Industries: Summary and reflections*, IPEC Asia Papers No. 2 (ILO, Geneva, 1996), available at www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/publ/field/index.htm

In general, policies or events that lead to macro-economic instability may impact negatively on employment or real wages and thus increase child labour. Thus, in most poor countries with child labour problems, there are linkages between outcomes of fiscal, monetary and trade policies on one hand, and child labour on the other. Moreover, policies aimed at addressing macro-economic instability and structural imbalances in the economy, such as structural adjustment programmes, may also contribute to the worsening of poverty and thus child labour, if care is not taken to avoid undesirable impacts on vulnerable groups, or unless they are accompanied by adequate social protection measures.

3.4 Causes and consequences of the WFCL

While the ultimate causes of the WFCL are likely to be similar to the causes of child labour in general as reviewed above, the proximate causes of the incidence of particular WFCL are usually quite specific. Societies that have high average levels of income, social support for the poor, universal access to well-functioning educational systems, social and labour legislation, and a monitoring mechanism, very seldom have children working in hazardous environments or engaged in the WFCL.

Children may be forced or drawn into multiple WFCL in sequence. For example, children in domestic labour may later end up in prostitution, or children scavenging in urban areas may be drawn into drug trafficking. They may also be subjected to unconditional worst forms and hazardous work simultaneously. Children are sometimes trafficked for work on plantations where they are not only faced with serious physical risks, but may also be subjected to slavery-like conditions. The

[25] For additional information on children in armed conflict in Africa, see IPEC: *Wounded Childhood: The use of Children in Armed Conflict in Central Africa* (Geneva, ILO, 2003), available at www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/publ/childsoldiers/woundedchild.htm

WFCL cover a wide range of abusive exploitation as the following overview of some of the most common forms shows.

3.4.1 Children in armed conflicts

Government and rebel armies around the world recruit tens of thousands of children for use in armed conflicts (Box 7). The problem is most critical in Africa and Asia, though children are also used in the Americas, Europe and the Middle East.[25] Children enter armed conflicts as part of the armed forces,

Box 7: Children in armed conflicts

A roughly estimated *300,000 children around the world are used in armed conflict.* With respect to the consequences, UNICEF data indicate that during the decade between 1986 and 1996, armed conflicts killed two million children, injured six million, traumatized over ten million and left more than a million orphaned. Of those who survive, many lose their families and possessions, only to gain in their stead an acceptance of violence as a legitimate way of achieving their aims. Moreover, children in armed forces are deprived of the normal opportunities for physical, emotional and intellectual development. Children are often treated brutally, and punishments for making mistakes or attempted escape are severe. They may also be injured or even killed during harsh training regimes.

United Nations: Report of the Secretary-General to the Security Council on the Implementation of Resolution 1261 (1999) on children and armed conflict (July 2000).

paramilitary forces or armed opposition groups via conscription, abduction or plain force. Many such children serve as porters, cooks, lookouts, messengers, combatants, or sex slaves. Most are adolescents, though child soldiers have been known to be 10 years of age or younger.

While the majority are boys, girls are also recruited. Girls are extremely vulnerable: they may be kidnapped for use as "wives". Girl soldiers who have been raped or sexually abused are often rejected by their families, and have few prospects of marriage. With so few alternatives, many girls eventually become victims of prostitution.

As with other WFCL, the poorest and most disenfranchised communities face the highest risk of exploitation.[26] In some countries without formal government conscription, children are picked up off the street, from schools and orphanages and forced to serve. Hunger and poverty may drive parents to offer their children for service in return for their wages. Some children join voluntarily, driven mostly by the desire for food, clothing and medical attention. Others are moved by ideological belief or a desire for revenge. Some children feel obliged to become soldiers for their own protection, feeling that they are safer with guns in their hands amid the chaos that defines their lives. Children orphaned by conflict are particularly vulnerable to this and other forms of child labour.

3.4.2 Commercial sexual exploitation of children

One million children in Asia are victims of the sex trade,[27] and the numbers are increasing in Africa, Latin America and Eastern Europe. Children are being trafficked across borders for sex markets worldwide.[28] While it is practically impossible to know the true extent of the

Photo: ILO/P. Deloche

problem, given its hidden and illegal nature, ILO global child labour figures for the year 2000 estimate that there are as many as 1.8 million girls and boys exploited in prostitution or pornography worldwide. Children aged 15 – 17 years are the most affected, though much younger children do fall victim to this form of exploitation.

Children who enter the sex trade often come from vulnerable communities that are either economically depressed or politically unstable. In Thailand, for example, most underage sex workers come from the poorer neighbouring countries of Burma, Cambodia and Laos. Parents may be lured by the modest sums offered by traffickers to pay for a girl's employment, and they consent with the impression that their job will be honest and well paid. Their initial vulnerability becomes even more marked upon arrival at their destination where they do not speak the language, have illegal status, are forced to work in the sex industry and are, therefore, at the mercy of pimps.

[26] See G. Michel: *Impact of Armed Conflict on Children*, Report of the expert of the Secretary-General, submitted pursuant to the General Assembly resolution 48/157 (United Nations, August 1996).

[27] United Nations: *1996 Report of the United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Sale of Children, Child Prostitution and Child Pornography* (Geneva 1997).

[28] P. Boonpala: *Strategy and Action Against the Commercial Sexual Exploitation of Children* (ILO, Geneva, 1996).

Photo: ILOP. Deloche/

[29] ILO, *Combating the most intolerable forms of child labour: a global challenge.* Background document prepared for the Amsterdam Child labour Conference, 26-27 February 1997 (Geneva, January 1997).

[30] Anti-Slavery International: *Debt Bondage: Slavery Around the World* (London, December 1998).

There are situations where the children themselves are drawn to life in the city as an escape from rural poverty. In their search for money, they turn to prostitution to survive. In some Sub-Saharan countries deeply affected by the AIDS epidemic, children are finding themselves orphaned at a young age. The eldest of the family, who may be only 10 or 12, then shoulders the responsibility for providing for younger siblings, and many turn to prostitution upon finding no economically viable alternatives.

While the supply of children to the sex trade may be born out of poverty and desperation, demand is created by lucrative markets lining the pockets of criminals, corrupt police personnel, pimps and even the children's relatives. Lax law enforcement and loose border patrols allow the industry to flourish. Clients often come from countries where such practices are strongly sanctioned.

Children who work as prostitutes suffer from the violence inflicted by their customers, early pregnancy, maternal mortality, sexually transmitted diseases including AIDS, psychological problems, and discrimination for the work they are engaged in.[29] Often, the discrimination is the most detrimental to a child's psychological well-being, sinking all feelings of self-worth into desperation.

3.4.3 Debt bondage – bonded labour

Debt bondage is caused by a mixture of extreme poverty, the willingness of individuals to exploit such desperation, and unenlightened tradition. Such bondage can be passed on from one generation to the next or it can be temporary. Debt payment through work almost invariably lasts much longer than the original set time. The poor and the disenfranchised are often the ones who are victimized. In India, for example, the vast majority of bonded labourers come from the lower castes and indigenous communities.[30] In Nepal, the Kamaiya bonded labourers come from the economically marginalized Tharu tribe.

The increasing need for cash in rural economies, population growth, rapid urbanization and increased poverty lead parents to seek ways to improve their own and their children's lives. Some

parents believe that their children will be better off with a more privileged family than their own and are willing to exchange their children's services for an assurance of their subsistence. Sometimes the children are sent away in exchange for money, some are even sent off for free, only to be abused and mistreated instead of being taken care of by their employers.

Bonded labour has been associated with abduction and family separation, the deprivation of schooling and sustenance, extremely long hours of arduous work and physical and emotional abuse. This often leads to grave physical and psychosocial consequences, including severe anxiety and depression, malnutrition, vitamin deficiency, anaemia, tuberculosis, skin and parasitic disease.

3.4.4 Trafficking

Traditionally, the term "trafficking of children" has referred to the displacement of children for sexual exploitation. The sex industry is not, however, the only reason that children are removed from their homes for pitiful sums to travel long distances. In western Africa, for example, children are also trafficked to work in commercial agriculture, domestic labour, and street cleaning.[31]

Trafficking is usually a combination or series of events rather than a discrete act. These events take place "in the child's home community, at transit points and at final destinations".[32] It occurs within countries, across national boarders or between regions, and usually involves several actors. Although trafficking patterns vary, frequently the children are taken from rural areas and sent for exploitation in urban centres, or from poor countries and trafficked to wealthier neighbouring countries and beyond.[33]

Children are trafficked because of existing poverty that makes children and their

families vulnerable to deceitful offers by agents in search of cheap and malleable child labour. Weak laws, lax enforcement, corrupt border police, and lack of information, facilitate trafficking and subsequent exploitation of children. In addition, the advantages of child labour, both real and perceived, maintain the demand, while developed trafficking routes are sustained by the economic benefits inherent in such morally outrageous trading.[34]

Depending on the jobs that the trafficked children participate in, differing harms ensue. Many children suffer the consequences mentioned in connection with commercial sexual exploitation of children and debt bondage – bonded labour (Sections 3.4.2 and 3.4.3), namely physical and psychological harm. Exploitation is also often progressive: a child trafficked into one form of labour might be then further abused in another. In Nepal, girls recruited to work in carpet factories, hotels and restaurants have been subsequently trafficked into the sex industry in India. Similarly, in the Philippines and many other countries, children who migrate or are recruited for the hotel and tourism industry to work in restaurants, bars, and cafés, for example, often end up in commercial sexual exploitation.[35]

Most of the trafficked children, regardless of the work they are forced into, are isolated, deprived of the love that a family can give to nourish their journey into adulthood, and are stripped of educational opportunities that may have improved their chances for the future. Physical and psychological abuse is worsened by their complete dependence on their employer who effectively controls their movements within and outside their new living conditions.

[31] ILO: *Targeting the Intolerable*, op.cit.

[32] *Unbearable to the human heart: Child trafficking and action to eliminate it* (ILO, Geneva, 2002), p. xi.

[33] Ibid.

[34] ILO: *Targeting the Intolerable: pink facts sheets.*

[35] IPEC: *Unbearable to the Human Heart: Child Trafficking and Action to Eliminate it, op. cit.*, p. 12.

3.4.5 Hazardous child labour

Although certain specific industries or economic sectors will be the focus of a TBP, any form of child labour can become hazardous, depending on working conditions (see Section 2). The more hazardous the work activity is, the more extreme are the consequences. Box 8 describes important factors affecting the impact of child labour on the health and development of the child.

On account of poor sanitary conditions, inadequate or non-existent personal protective equipment, inappropriate workspace and installations, physical strains, long hours and low pay, working children may suffer from:

- Fatigue
- Musculo-skeletal disorders
- Cuts
- Fractures
- Burns
- Malnutrition
- Poisoning
- Infectious disease
- Psychological harm
- Death.[37]

[36] R. Anker, R. Paratian, R. Torres, and C. Enzler, eds.: *Mauritius: Studies on the Social Dimension of Globalisation/Task Force on Country Studies on Globalisation* (Geneva, ILO, 1999).

[37] V. Forastieri: *Children at Work: Health and Safety Risk* (Geneva, ILO, 1997). See also ILO: *Practical action to eliminate child labour* (Geneva, ILO, 2000).

Box 8: Factors affecting the impact of child labour on the health and development of the child

Factors include:

- the type of work the child is engaged in;

- the conditions of that work;

- employer treatment;

- hours of work — children suffer from fatigue more than adults, but do not get more rest time and have longer periods to accumulate the exposures that may affect them in their adulthood;

- opportunities for attending school;

- the child's own vulnerability — a malnourished child with little physical resistance will suffer more from work hazards than a healthy child;[36]

- lack of experience by virtue of their youth — they often do not have the speed and the skill needed to avoid hazards;

- protective equipment — this is often designed to fit adults, not children;

- chemical substances and radiation — children are affected at lower levels than those affecting adults, this is because children have a higher metabolic rate and may consume airborne toxins at a faster rate than adults; and

- psychological abuse — psychological stress may be caused by employer mistreatment, which can lead to further problems, for example, many cases of domestic workers who leave their abusive employer's home, only to find themselves on the street, with prostitution as their only alternative for survival, exists.

In addition, many children working in the informal sector remain invisible to the public. Their work is neither regulated by labour laws nor monitored by labour inspectors. They have little legal recourse in the event of injury or injustice, and cannot join unions, as these are traditionally for workers in the formal sector, with membership limited to adults.

3.5 Child labour and HIV/AIDS

The HIV/AIDS pandemic adds a new and tragic dimension to the problem of child labour in many countries around the world. Millions of children have been orphaned by the death of one or both parents from HIV/AIDS.
Their number will continue to grow.

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

Box 9: Country experience from the Philippines

An ILO-supported survey in the Philippines demonstrated that 60 per cent of child workers were exposed to chemical and biological hazards, while 40 per cent had suffered serious injuries or illnesses resulting in amputation or mutilation.

Many of these orphans may find security in the households of relatives, but others may drop out of school and look for work to survive. Such children are especially vulnerable to the worst forms of exploitation. An especially heavy burden is placed on girls, who often have to provide care and assume other household responsibilities when a parent becomes ill or dies. Even children cared for by grandparents or other relatives may have to work to help provide income for guardians and siblings.

Because they often work in situations where they are vulnerable to sexual abuse, children in the WFCL face an increased risk of becoming infected by HIV and other sexually-transmitted diseases. Children in prostitution, street vending and domestic work are especially vulnerable in this regard.

Part 2:
Time-Bound
Programmes for
eliminating the WFCL

4 Principal characteristics of a TBP

A TBP is essentially a set of integrated and coordinated policies and programmes to prevent and eliminate a country's WFCL. It is a comprehensive approach characterized by clear goals, specific targets and a defined time frame that operates at many levels – international, national, provincial and community. TBPs emphasize the need to address the root causes of child labour by linking action against child labour to the national development effort, with particular emphasis on economic and social policies to combat poverty and to promote universal basic education and social mobilization. Although the focus is clearly on the worst forms, TBPs also aim at creating necessary political, institutional and social conditions for addressing all forms of child labour.

A typical TBP will be composed of a number of interventions aimed at *preventing* children from entering the WFCL, *withdrawing* and *rehabilitating* those children already engaged in such activities, and *protecting* all working children above the legal minimum age from exploitation and work hazards.

Most prevention and protection strategies will involve "upstream" policy-oriented interventions covering awareness raising, legislation and enforcement, education, employment and social protection, along with specific measures for enhancing enforcement at local and community levels. In contrast, most withdrawal and rehabilitation interventions will take the form of "downstream" direct actions at the local or community level. Both sets of interventions, upstream and downstream, will be needed in most TBPs, and they are highly complementary. On the one hand, to have any effect, policies and legislation must be translated into concrete actions at the local level. On the other hand, the legitimating and underpinning support afforded by an adequate legal and policy framework is often necessary for the unhindered and sustainable implementation of downstream

Box 10: Prevention and protection strategies

- *prevention* strategies include efforts aimed at strengthening legislation and enforcement, improving educational opportunities and carrying out other enhancements to make the education system accessible and attractive to all boys and girls, raising household income, and increasing awareness of the consequences of the WFCL;

- *rehabilitation* includes, principally, the provision of health and counselling services as well as gender-sensitive educational and skills training opportunities for children *withdrawn* from child labour; and

- *protection* from exploitation and hazardous work involves legislation and enforcement of labour standards and improvements in working conditions.

Box 11: IPEC's role in supporting national ownership of the TBP

IPEC, with the support of the international community, can back national commitment to a TBP with additional resources and technical assistance. IPEC's role in programme development and implementation is one of catalyst, facilitator and provider of policy/technical assistance. As the TBP concept is adopted in more countries and becomes more established, IPEC's involvement in the management or execution of projects will be further reduced. Nevertheless, IPEC can vary the extent of its involvement as a function of national institutional and technical capacity.

withdrawal and rehabilitation schemes.[38] An overview of these upstream and downstream interventions is provided in Section 5. For a more detailed discussion, please refer to Guide Book IV.[39]

TBPs have six principal characteristics. They are described serially in the following Sections.

4.1 Country ownership of the programme

The primary responsibility for the development and implementation of TBPs lies with national agencies and institutions. A multi-sectoral programme of the scale of TBPs cannot be effectively and sustainably developed and implemented without full country ownership. Thus a TBP must originate and be led by the country itself. It is the government's responsibility to set the process of TBP development in motion, designate or establish the institutional mechanisms for its implementation, and

mobilize the necessary human and financial resources.

Political support at the highest level of the country is the single most important element for smooth implementation and for ensuring sustainability of a TBP. As the TBP is owned and nurtured by the country and as the relevant policies and programmes have to be endorsed, steered and carried out by the government, the TBP has to be fully accepted and backed by strong and consistent political commitment from the outset of the initiative. A strong political commitment is also a critical prerequisite for:

- the formulation of proactive policies and programmes;

- the integration of the child labour issue into relevant national laws, development policies and programmes; and

- the mobilization of national resources for the elimination of the WFCL.

National ownership and responsibility for the TBP includes the active participation of government agencies and non-governmental organizations, among them employers' and workers' organizations.

4.2 Integration into national social and economic development efforts

The TBP concept draws much of its *raison d'être* from the understanding that child labour cannot be eliminated sustainably unless its root causes are addressed effectively. Hence it seeks to link action against child labour to

[38] Relevant issues in this respect include legal protection from detractors and other opponents, funding and institutional support from local government authorities.

[39] Available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

national development policy, macro-economic trends and strategies, and demographic and labour market processes and outcomes, with particular emphasis on economic and social policies to combat poverty and to promote universal basic education and social mobilization. This comprehensive approach is called for by the multi-sectoral nature of child labour's causes and consequences. Indeed, the ideal approach to the implementation of a TBP is to integrate, or "mainstream" it fully into an even larger national development framework in which pro-poor objectives are being pursued in areas such as:

■ Education

■ Employment

■ Income generation

■ Social protection

■ Health.

This mainstreaming is vitally important for achieving the ambitious goals of the TBP. While direct interventions are necessary and important, only by mainstreaming can the sustainability of their outcomes be assured in the long run. Mainstreaming also facilitates joint targeting with programmes in the other areas of social and economic development cited above, which means that resources for other social goals can be leveraged to benefit victims of child labour and children at risk as well.

4.3 Participation of many stakeholders

The TBP concept takes IPEC's well-established participatory approach to a new level, associating more government departments and agencies at central and local levels, with ministries of labour, workers' and employers' organizations and other traditional NGO partners, with the

different stages of programme preparation and implementation. Thus, as discussed later in this Guide Book, broad consultations among the key stakeholders are required in connection with:

■ problem analysis;

■ identification of areas and sectors of intervention;

■ target setting;

■ choice of strategies and implementation modalities; and

■ resource mobilization and other stages of programme development.

Moreover, the efficient and effective implementation of a TBP requires arrangements for multi-sectoral, multi-agency coordination mechanisms. These functions may be carried out within existing mechanisms where appropriate arrangements are available, or through the establishment of new mechanisms if necessary.

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

TBP interventions should capitalize on synergies between sectors and stakeholders to ensure sustainability. The success of the TBP requires commitment by the government, social partners, community and civil society at large. International agencies and the donor community can assist in resource mobilization, policy advice, and capacity building, as appropriate.

The importance of having a strong social foundation for the TBP cannot be overemphasized. This also includes public awareness and support, along with the active participation of children and their families, teachers, local communities, employers' and workers' organizations, NGOs, central and local governments and the media.

4.4 Flexibility

The number and types of interventions needed under a given TBP depend on

■ the magnitude and complexity of the child labour problem, including the specific causes and consequences of the prevalent worst forms;

■ the extent of policy gaps needing remedy in the short to medium term; and

■ the adequacy of infrastructure and services for addressing the problem.

The configuration of programme components also depends on the availability of human and financial resources, implementation capacity, and the extent of political and social support. These factors will also affect the amount of time needed to deal effectively with the problem.

In the light of these considerations, a major principle underlying IPEC's approach to TBPs is flexibility. The TBP concept is designed to take into account the variability of national

situations with regard to the extent and nature of the WFCL, as well as differences in institutional and technical capacity. Depending on the extent of the child labour problem and the availability of human and financial resources, a TBP can start on a massive scale and aim to eliminate all WFCL within a relatively short period, or it can start on a relatively small scale and adopt a gradual roll-out plan covering a longer period of time. For example, the programme could focus initially on selected WFCL and extend gradually to other worst forms. Similarly, it could start in a few geographical areas and gradually scale up to cover the whole country. The speed of this expansion could be determined by the pervasiveness and severity of the problem of child exploitation and the availability of resources.

Again, where the WFCL are primarily concentrated in a few regions or sectors, and resources allow for it, the time horizon for achieving TBP goals may be relatively short. In contrast, more time may be needed where the WFCL are widely prevalent, especially if large amounts of resources are called for but are not immediately forthcoming. Also, where institutional capacity is initially inadequate, a gradual expansion from a small start can allow the requisite legal, policy and administrative structures for combating the WFCL effectively to be developed over a longer period of time.

Notwithstanding the desirability of allowing flexible roll-out strategies, it must be recognized that most governments and donors also have a certain degree of flexibility in the allocation of resources. Hence, it is both possible and essential to devote adequate resources for the rapid elimination of all WFCL, in line with national obligations under Convention No. 182. The goal is to eliminate WFCL as quickly as possible. In general, a time frame of 5-10 years should be considered reasonable for eliminating the WFCL.

4.5 Planning on the basis of a solid knowledge base

The TBP approach takes the programme formulation process that has been evolving in IPEC to a new level in terms of systematic planning and grounding on empirical data. Although IPEC-supported projects are rarely developed without a situation analysis involving some form of data collection, IPEC-supported TBPs have been informed by data collection and analysis to an unprecedented extent. IPEC's strong support for the adoption of a data-based approach for the development of TBPs is aimed at improving programme design and enhancing the effectiveness of interventions. Thus a typical TBP development exercise includes:

■ preparatory studies assessing the extent and nature of child labour in key sectors and industries known to have child labour problems;

■ analysis of the causes and consequences of child labour;

■ policy reviews in areas such as labour law, legislation and enforcement, education, and national economic development (including poverty reduction strategies);

■ occupational safety and health studies focusing on children; and

Photo: ILO/P. Deloche

■ a review of the experiences of key partners with child labour policy and project interventions.

Examples of such studies from the initial set of TBPs developed with IPEC support are provided in Section 6.2.[40]

Data analysis and policy reviews help identify the forms of child labour requiring priority attention under the TBP, target-setting, formulation of strategies and, subsequently, programme monitoring and evaluation. This increasing emphasis on data-based planning has been facilitated by the expansion of SIMPOC as a repository of information on child labour and as a provider of technical assistance for strengthening national capacities for child labour data collection and analysis. IPEC is encouraging and supporting better use of existing data, complemented by new data collection exercises using cost-efficient methods, depending on availability of resources. This approach of promoting a more systematic analysis and utilization of data in policy/programme development and implementation will help add value to the information collected by national and international agencies and institutions.

Systematic planning has been promoted through

■ the identification and use of indicators[41] for target setting;

■ monitoring and evaluation;

■ development of logical and strategic frameworks; and

■ analysis of the underlying risks and the assumptions that must be made in programme design.

This approach is essential for the design of feasible, relevant and coherent programmes. It is also essential for assessing progress towards the attainment of programme goals and for evaluating the impact of interventions.

One way of ensuring the pro-active use of information on child labour is the development of *Child Labour Monitoring Systems (CLMS)* as part of the TBP. Through child labour monitoring, information on child labour is systematically and pro-actively put in use for policy improvement and for direct action.

4.6 Systematic programme monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation are important components of the TBP. Effective monitoring and evaluation ensures that a TBP is dynamic and its objectives can be fine-tuned when needed. It also provides future lessons for programme design. A TBP should have clearly defined indicators and targets and an efficient and cost-effective data management system for planning, monitoring and evaluation.

TBP efforts will consist of interventions on a number of different levels by different partners. These various interventions are linked together by a strategy designed to achieve the overall objectives of the TBP framework. Monitoring and evaluation of these efforts, be they upstream or downstream,[42] concern both implementation (management, operations and results) and impact (fundamental causes and consequences). For implementation, continuous analysis and management of the links among the various efforts is essential for the success of the programme framework. With regard to impact, monitoring and evaluation provide the crucial tools to identify and assess the results achieved by programme interventions with regard to the WFCL.

[42] Upstream measures and downstream targeted interventions are covered in Section 5.

Box 12: What is meant by "monitoring"?

Monitoring is the ongoing assessment of progress towards the achievement of operational and strategic objectives of the programme components. It involves the continuous or periodic review of implementation to:

- Assess delivery
- Identify difficulties
- Ascertain problems
- Recommend remedial action.

Monitoring is concerned with the delivery process and should ensure that inputs (i.e., the resources that support a project or programme) are transformed into outputs, in terms of quantity and quality. Indicators of progress towards the achievement of objectives are also reviewed through monitoring plans. This means that impact assessment data collection exercises need to be carried out at defined intervals. Thus, monitoring is also an ongoing data collection process that provides information for evaluation purposes and for overall impact assessment. It can also provide the information needed to show trends.

Box 13:
What is meant by "evaluation"?

Evaluation is the assessment of impact and the analysis of attribution[43] at a single point in time. It is concerned with issues such as:

- Effectiveness

- Efficiency

- Validity of design

- Causality

- Unanticipated effects

- Alternative strategies

- Sustainability

During an evaluation exercise, data collected from the monitoring phase is combined and analysed with other data collected specifically for the evaluation. This analysis is meant to provide an overall picture of how the strategy being implemented addresses the targeted WFCL, including those emerging or discovered in the course of programme implementation.

Moreover, monitoring and evaluation of implementation and impact together makes it possible to:

- gauge whether the TBP framework as a whole is working;

- refine and improve programme targets;

- provide a feedback mechanism for design and targeting (for example, if design strategies are working in some places but not others, or for boys more than for girls, etc., then the programme needs to be re-designed); and

- identify good practices and approaches that can be scaled up and replicated.

[43] That is, the identification of causal relationships between the impact identified and the intervention being evaluated. See Paper V-2: *A Guide to Assessing the Impact of Time-Bound Programmes*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

Photo: ILO/G. Cabrera

5   Policy choices and programme interventions

As noted at the beginning of Section 4, a TBP should, as a general rule, include measures for *preventing* the engagement of children in activities classified as WFCL, interventions for *withdrawing and rehabilitating* children found in such activities and action for *protecting* working children above the legal minimum age of employment from hazardous work and exploitation. Given the multifaceted nature of the child labour problem, with its diverse causes and consequences, effective action will often require a series of complementary interventions in several sectors or domains. Broadly speaking, these measures can be grouped into two different levels:

[44] E.g. rapid response mechanisms and child labour monitoring systems, see sections 5.2.6 and 5.2.7.

[45] These are available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/ english/standards/ipec/ themes/timebound/ index.htm

Photo: ILO/J. M. derrien

1. *"Upstream" measures are aimed at creating an enabling environment for the elimination of the WFCL.* These measures can be thought of as being more general, often necessary at the national level, for example, policy, institutional or legislation issues and the creation of durable mechanisms.[44]

2. *"Downstream" direct interventions are targeted at population groups or economic sectors where WFCL are prevalent.* Hence they refer to specific measures to directly assist working children and their families and communities. Examples include withdrawing children from WFCL and providing them rehabilitation services; education and vocational training opportunities; poverty reduction measures targeting the most vulnerable households; grassroots awareness raising; and social and community mobilization efforts.

Figure 2 gives an overview of the different interventions needed under each of the two levels. The points outlined in the figure are elaborated in Sections 5.1 and 5.2 below. A more in-depth discussion of the issues covered in this section may be found in Guide Book IV and its associated papers.[45]

Figure 2: Types and levels of TBP interventions

Enabling environment

Targeted interventions

Education and vocational training policy

Social mobilization

Community mobilization and awareness raising

Labour legislation, legal framework, and social

Local child labour monitoring

Withdrawal and rehabilitation services, including rapid response

Capacity building at the local level

Economic empowerment of targeted families

Provision of education and vocational training

Capacity building, including information management

Macro-economic environment, employment and poverty reduction

5.1 Creating an enabling environment for the elimination of the WFCL

Measures needed to create an "enabling environment" fall under the heading "upstream". They are shown in Figure 2 to include those that, for example:

- strengthen legislation and enforcement;

- improve access to quality education, vocational training and other social services for all boys and girls;

- enhance opportunities for better employment, improved earnings, and social protection for adults;

- build institutional capacity; and

- guarantee occupational health and safety, particularly for young workers.

Social mobilization, including awareness raising aimed at building social and political support for action against child labour, are also important strategies for creating an enabling environment for the realization of the TBP objectives. These measures are not only fundamental for making sure that the targeted interventions are effective, but also for ensuring that their outcomes are permanent and sustainable in the long run. Moreover, although the focus is on the WFCL, clearly the creation of an enabling environment will help set the stage for the progressive elimination of all forms of child labour.

Photo: ILO/A. Khemka

5.1.1 Labour legislation, legal framework and social policy

A good starting point for addressing the WFCL is to ratify Convention Nos. 138 and 182. In addition to formal ratification, governments must review and reform their legislation to bring them into conformity with the ratified standards. The legal reform process includes consolidating and harmonizing disparate laws concerning children, expanding coverage of the law, increasing penalties and providing compensation for child victims.[46] A necessary part of the process involves strengthening labour inspection and other enforcement mechanisms.

The consolidation and harmonization of laws and regulations relating to child labour needs to be carried out as part of a broader exercise of policy review and reform covering other relevant social and economic issues. For example, as is clear from earlier discussions in Section 3 and from Section 5.1.3, policies enabling all girls and boys to receive quality basic education constitute an essential element of the fight against child labour. Other areas where policy reform may be indicated include:

- access to employment and incomes, including the elimination of discriminatory barriers limiting access to factors of production on account of gender, ethnicity, caste or social class;

- occupational safety and health;

- access to broader health care services, including reproductive health information and services as well as specific measures addressing the HIV/AIDS pandemic; and

- extension of other measures of social protection.

Policy reforms in these and other similarly relevant areas should aim at providing equal opportunities, treatment and protection against exploitation, and at removing and

remedying past and present disadvantages that contribute to vulnerability.

Once the laws on the books have been reformed, various actors must be mobilized to learn how to apply the new instruments. This involves publicizing the law, training relevant law enforcement and judiciary professionals, and awareness raising for children, their families and other groups directly concerned by child labour. It also involves developing child labour monitoring strategies that capitalize on the competencies and experience of labour inspection and allow for expanding and intensifying observation of child labour to areas beyond the traditional scope of work of the labour inspectorate.

Adequate enforcement also requires that mechanisms for generating critical information are put in place, all responsibilities are clearly assigned, information is disseminated freely, and enforcement policy is harmonized.

5.1.2 Social mobilization

Social mobilization is instrumental in building a strong social foundation for the eradication of the WFCL. It aims to create a broad alliance of organizations of civil society that work towards changing social norms or values related to child labour, increasing awareness about its causes and consequences and ensuring that the opinions of communities directly affected by child labour are heard by policy makers.

Strategies of social mobilization must be tailored to suit the needs of the various target groups in the country. Some of the essential components of an effective strategy include: creation of a social alliance of institutional actors; awareness raising among the general public; commitments from policymakers and opinion leaders; and empowerment of

communities at risk and those directly affected by child labour.

5.1.3 Education and vocational training policy

Expanded schooling has considerable welfare-enhancing effects at the individual, household and societal levels that can contribute in immense ways to the elimination of child labour. Hence, the principal objective of education interventions under TBPs is to expand access to quality education for all boys and girls under the minimum age for employment. This requires measures for increasing the availability of basic and secondary education, as well as measures addressing other factors that reduce the demand for education at these levels, including cost and quality. Major strategies of an education policy should therefore be to:

- adopt and implement compulsory schooling regulations;

- increase the proportion of national budgets devoted to education;

- reduce the cost of education for poor families;

- address particular problems faced by girls;

- improve school curriculum;

- minimize school drop-out rates; and

- make education more inclusive.

In addition, there need to be measures for monitoring school enrolment, attendance and completion, particularly for children withdrawn from work, which may be achieved through Child Labour Monitoring Systems at the local level.

Photo: ILO/P. Lissac

[47] Transitional education is non-formal education that prepares former working children for entering the formal education system.

The nature of policy actions needed to ensure expanded quality education for all boys and girls require that TBP managers and partners work with the national, provincial and local education authorities and other key stakeholders to pursue the necessary policy changes as part of education sector programmes, rather than as interventions managed within a child labour elimination programme.

IPEC experience has demonstrated how important non-formal or transitional education[47] can be to the rehabilitation of former child labourers. Vocational education and training provide, moreover, the employable skills needed for gainful employment, which in turn contribute to local and national development.

It is important to recognize, however, that for vocational training to be meaningful, it must be coherent with the needs of the labour market. It would be an unwise use of (sometimes considerable) funds to train adolescents for jobs that do not exist and are not likely to exist in the near future. Working with trade unions and employers groups to identify employment needs and

even set up apprenticeship programmes is one way to avoid this.

5.1.4 Macro-economic environment, employment and poverty reduction strategies

The success of a TBP is closely tied to the achievement of national poverty reduction objectives, which in turn depends on macro-economic conditions, including employment growth. Therefore there is a need for TBP countries to implement strategies that:

■ promote economic growth with equitable income distribution;

■ reduce unemployment and underemployment;

■ diffuse technological changes that reduce the need for child labour; and

■ improve productivity in the informal economy and the agricultural sector.

Where development programmes already exist, the TBP must be closely linked to the relevant interventions and must take advantage of the favourable environment expected to be created. One important example of such a programme is the IMF-World Bank Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs). These usually include a package of measures aimed at promoting economic growth, ensuring macro-economic stability, improving economic infrastructure, enhancing skills, facilitating access to credit (e.g., micro-finance schemes) and increasing private sector investment, all of which can have an impact on child labour.

Given the scale of the child labour problem, the nature of the underlying causes and the consequent need for large-scale multi-sectoral approaches involving extended partnerships, it is essential to ensure the mainstreaming of child labour concerns into poverty reduction strategies and other national development programmes. "Mainstreaming", in this context, refers to the effective recognition of child labour as a key factor hindering national socio-economic development, made concrete by concerted efforts to influence policies, programmes and processes that can contribute significantly to its elimination.[48] An important mainstreaming action is the consideration of child labour concerns in sectoral development programmes, particularly in education. Another is to ensure the targeting of households that are vulnerable to the WFCL as beneficiaries of development interventions such as employment, income generating and social protection components of poverty reduction strategies.

5.1.5 Capacity building at the national level

Besides building an adequate legal framework and implementing

complementary social and economic policies and strategies, effective action against the WFCL requires a certain quantity and quality of institutional infrastructure. Most countries implementing a TBP will need to develop institutional mechanisms and arrangements for managing and coordinating interventions spanning several sectors, enforcing child labour legislation and monitoring the child labour situation at local and national levels. There are numerous areas where capacity building may be necessary.

Planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating TBP interventions

Given its complex multi-sectoral and multi-agency nature, a TBP requires institutional mechanisms to ensure effective and coordinated implementation. The minimum required is an overall secretariat and an inter-sectoral body (see also Section 6.1.2). Equally important are the departments and units within ministries and agencies at central and sub-national levels charged with the development and implementation of various parts of the TBP, as well as the local implementing organizations. For these TBP partners, capacity building may be needed in a whole range of planning and implementation activities, including data collection and analysis, design of interventions, monitoring and evaluation, as well as the adjustment of objectives and strategies to suit progress attained and changes in programme contexts. Such efforts, as in the case of developing comprehensive child labour monitoring systems, should cover the capacity needs for "upstream" interventions.

[48] Examples of concrete measures that can be undertaken in several areas to achieve this include: improving the knowledge base; advocacy efforts; capacity building, and policy development and coordination.

See Paper IV-1: *Mainstreaming Action against Child Labour in Development and Poverty Reduction Strategies*, available in the TBP MAP kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/ english/standards/ipec/ themes/timebound/ index.htm

Enforcing child labour legislation

Agencies involved in the enforcement of child labour legislation may need reinforcements in terms of human resources, new administrative powers, awareness raising about areas of competence, and material means to help them carry out their responsibilities effectively.[49] Similar measures for empowering other law enforcement agents (police, magistrates, social welfare officials, other concerned officials, etc.) may also be needed — particularly awareness raising and training.

Planning for emergency action

Children in or at imminent risk of the most intolerable forms of child labour are children living in crisis. Delay in taking effective action to rescue and protect vulnerable children is likely to prejudice their welfare. The capacity and readiness to respond quickly to prevent children from falling into the worst forms of child labour, to withdraw or rescue them from such situations, and to successfully reintegrate them into their communities is an essential element of a TBP. The creation of a "rapid response" mechanism or facility within the TBP framework enables service providers to respond to such emergency situations. Where TBP interventions are implemented through several different projects, this approach also allows some flexibility for dealing with situations that demand immediate attention outside the geographical area or sector of focus of any one particular project.

Creating a child labour monitoring system

It is essential to put in place mechanisms that allow for the continuous monitoring of the child labour situation so that preventive and remedial actions can be taken in a timely manner. For this reason, the development of a CLMS should be

considered an integral component of the TBP framework.[50]

The basic function of a CLMS is surveillance of the actual involvement of children in child labour. At the local level this involves monitoring workplaces to identify children at work, the hazards they are exposed to, and the school or other service to which they are referred. At the district or national level this involves monitoring child labour trends through analysis of the information coming from the local level. At both levels, information from the monitoring and inspections should be fed back into policy making and the provision of services.

5.2 Targeted interventions aimed at specific groups of child labourers

Although "upstream" or macro-level improvements are essential for the success of TBPs, the envisaged improvements in these areas will not by themselves automatically bring about the elimination of the WFCL. Specific "downstream" prevention, withdrawal, rehabilitation and protection measures targeting households vulnerable to the WFCL will need to be put in place. To be effective, TBPs must support direct interventions for at-risk children, child labourers, their families and communities. Where relevant, these interventions should reflect the specific needs of children relating to factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, caste and social class. The seven most important direct interventions are shown in Figure 2 and are further elaborated below.

[49] For information on how labour inspectors can contribute to the fight against child labour, see *Combating Child Labour: A Handbook for Labour Inspectors* (Geneva, ILO, 2002), available from www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/publ/inspection/handbk_2003.htm

[50] For more information on CLMS see Paper IV-11, *Overview of Child Labour Monitoring Systems*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

5.2.1 Withdrawal and rehabilitation services

Approaches to the withdrawal and rehabilitation of children found in the WFCL must be tailored to the particular needs of each target group and the conditions of exploitation in each sector or geographical area. For example, for children who have been exposed to abuse, violence, psychological torture or physically devastating work, including commercial sexual exploitation and children withdrawn from armed conflict,[51] the rehabilitation approach must contain elements that set out a path from the point of rescue or withdrawal through rehabilitation activities to the full reintegration back into a decent life. Needed services range from emergency medical assistance, counselling and legal aid to education and the provision of alternative income and employment opportunities. Although, in broad terms, many of the measures for dealing with hazardous child labour may be similar to those needed for the unconditional worst forms, the degree to which emergency interventions are needed may differ. Consequently, specific models of intervention will need to be developed or adapted as a function of the forms of child labour being addressed by the TBP, as well as

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Box 14:
Approaches to direct interventions

Direct actions can be organized with an area focus, a sector focus or both. The *sector-based approach*, as its name implies, aims to eliminate child labour (in general, or specific types of exploitation) from a given economic sector or industry. An *area-based approach* allows for targeting of all forms of child labour prevalent in a well-defined geographical area.

The sector-based approach has the advantage of being simpler to implement. It is well suited for sectors where a fairly limited number of workplaces are involved. However, it may not prevent the possible transfer of child labourers from the monitored industry to another.

The area-based approach offers a coherent strategy for addressing the WFCL. It allows direct prevention, removal, rehabilitation and protection interventions to be integrated closely with activities aimed at empowering vulnerable families and local communities. Interventions aimed at making education effective in preventing child labour and providing protective measures for children can be supported by activities to build community safety nets and to reduce the economic vulnerability of families prone to or affected by child labour.

The choice of approach should, of course, be determined by how pervasive the problem of child labour is and the number of WFCL prevalent. A sector-based approach may be indicated if WFCL is prevalent in only a few sectors, or in a demonstrative project focusing on say one or two worst forms, or in the case of regional initiatives targeting a specific form of exploitation, such as trafficking. However, in the TBP framework where all WFCL are expected to be eliminated in line with Convention No. 182, an area-based approach may seem appropriate for many countries.

[51] According to the definition laid down in Convention No. 182, all children withdrawn or rescued from the unconditional worst forms of child labour fall under this category.

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

local conditions, including institutional and
technical capacity.[52]

5.2.2 Education and vocational training

Most of the issues discussed in Section
5.1.3 on measures regarding education
policy are equally relevant at the local
level. Direct actions in education at the
local level may include measures that
contribute to the quality of schooling, such
as improved infrastructure, training of
teachers and other education officers on
practices which attract/retain ex-child
labourers and, conversely, those which
contribute to school dropout among
vulnerable children, parent-teacher
collaboration, and other forms of
community involvement in the
development and management of the
school. Other local actions may involve
addressing barriers to schooling by
children from poor households, for
example the introduction of
school–feeding schemes. In addition to
measures directed at the formal education
system, it may also be necessary to
develop transitional education schemes for
children removed from work who are able

to join formal classes, as well as
non-formal education programmes and
vocational training schemes for those
who cannot. However, improving the
formal education system to meet the
needs of former child labourers should
be the ultimate goal.

5.2.3 Economic empowerment of targeted families

This type of intervention is essential not
only for the withdrawal of children from
the WFCL, but also for preventing the
withdrawn children and others at risk
from entering or returning to the labour
market. Although provision may be
made within the TBP budget for direct
funding of economic empowerment
activities, an efficient and perhaps more
sustainable approach is to link up target
families with existing credit and income
generation schemes, with efforts made
to bring the implementing and funding
agencies of such schemes into the TBP
framework as key partners.

5.2.4 Capacity building at the local level

Local administrations, community
groupings and NGOs involved in direct
actions against the WFCL can often
deliver better services by benefiting
from capacity building for planning,
reviewing, carrying out, monitoring and
evaluating their activities. The means
for capacity building at the local level
include:

- *networking/coalition building* of
  the various actors involved in the
  implementation of direct actions at
  the local level, to enable them to
  address the WFCL through
  combined, coordinated efforts and
  means of action; and

■ *organization of workshops* and other
training activities to help the different
actors review working methodologies,
progress and obstacles, to share
experiences, to learn about good
practices, etc.

5.2.5 Community mobilization and awareness raising

Most areas to be covered by TBP targeted
interventions require the implementation
of awareness-raising activities aimed at
changing attitudes and perceptions about
child labour and mobilizing society to take
action against it. Local communities need
to be empowered to address the causes of
child labour through collective action. This
participative approach should strengthen
local ownership of direct interventions,
and enhance the relevance and
sustainability of the specific projects.
Including children in the process
strengthens it even further. Apart from
empowerment of communities, mobilizing
local political will is equally important for
translating national commitments into
concrete local action.

5.2.6 Rapid response mechanism

Sometimes efforts to remove children
from hazardous situations may require
emergency action. Although it may not
be practical to immediately remove all
children engaged in the WFCL there is a
consensus that children who work in
conditions that are life threatening,
physically or psychologically disabling,
morally degrading or that are
detrimental to their physical or moral
integrity must be given a priority akin to
emergency.

These mechanisms may be based on a
multi-agency rapid response team or on
provincial inter-agency teams.
The principal steps of a rapid response
are illustrated in Figure 3.

5.2.7 Local child labour monitoring

The establishment of local CLMS for
children at risk has proved an effective
means in several countries in

Figure 3: Emergency response mechanism

Receiving information

Planning the rescue

The rescue operation

Child labour situation

Post-rescue rehabilitation

Post-rescue legal issues
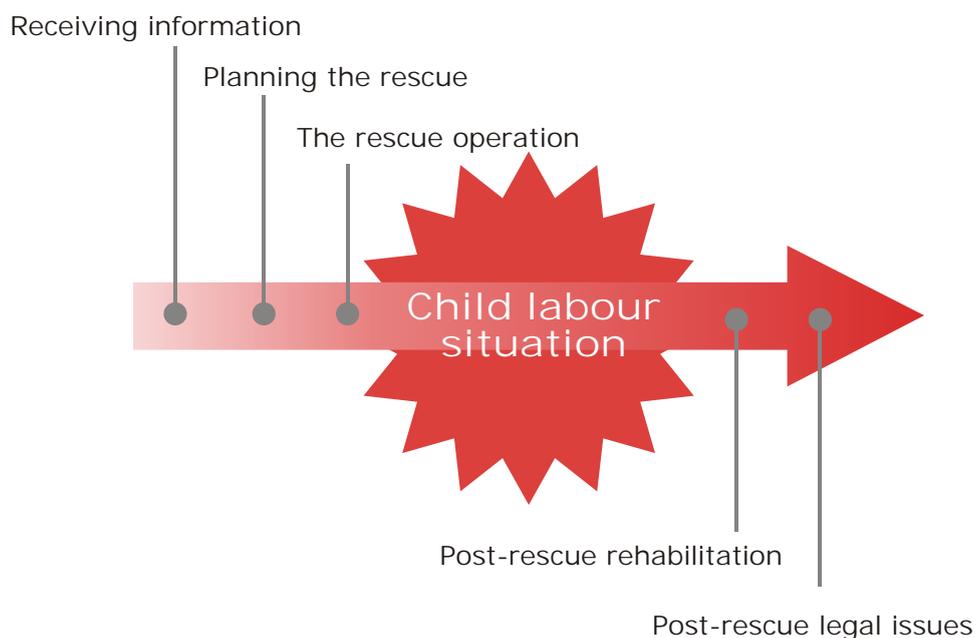
preventing children from being trafficked or put to work in exploitative conditions. This local monitoring aims to keep track of the children as they are withdrawn from work and enter transitional and/or formal education or benefit from other components of the programme and to verify that their situation has improved. At the local level, the CLM partners would include the community members, the employers and the schools that provide alternatives for the children. At a wider intermediate level, the partners include the official inspectorates, employers' organizations active in the sector, trade unions, and NGOs. These then link to the national level where relevant ministries, statistical units, parliamentarians and others who set or influence policy are involved. Local CLM mechanisms need to be developed as part of an overall integrated CLMS framework. This ensures that the different information bases are properly linked together and that the information collected is comparable between and across different types of TBP interventions.

5.3 Scope of TBPs and linkages with other programmes

In ratifying Convention No. 182, a country commits itself to eliminate all WFCL within a specified time frame. Consequently, TBPs need to have a national scope, with measures in place to eliminate and prevent *all* worst forms, including coverage of all economic sectors where children could be exploited. This, of course, does not mean all TBP interventions will have a national scope, as some WFCL may be concentrated in particular geographical areas.

In general, the "upstream" measures discussed in Section 5.1 will have a national scope, while direct actions may not, particularly where they address localized worst forms. Nevertheless, TBP design should be such that while progress is being made with respect to previously identified worst forms, any newly emerging forms of exploitation would also be picked up and addressed. The development of local CLMS covering

Photo: ILO

Figure 4: Relationships between TBPs and other national development programmes
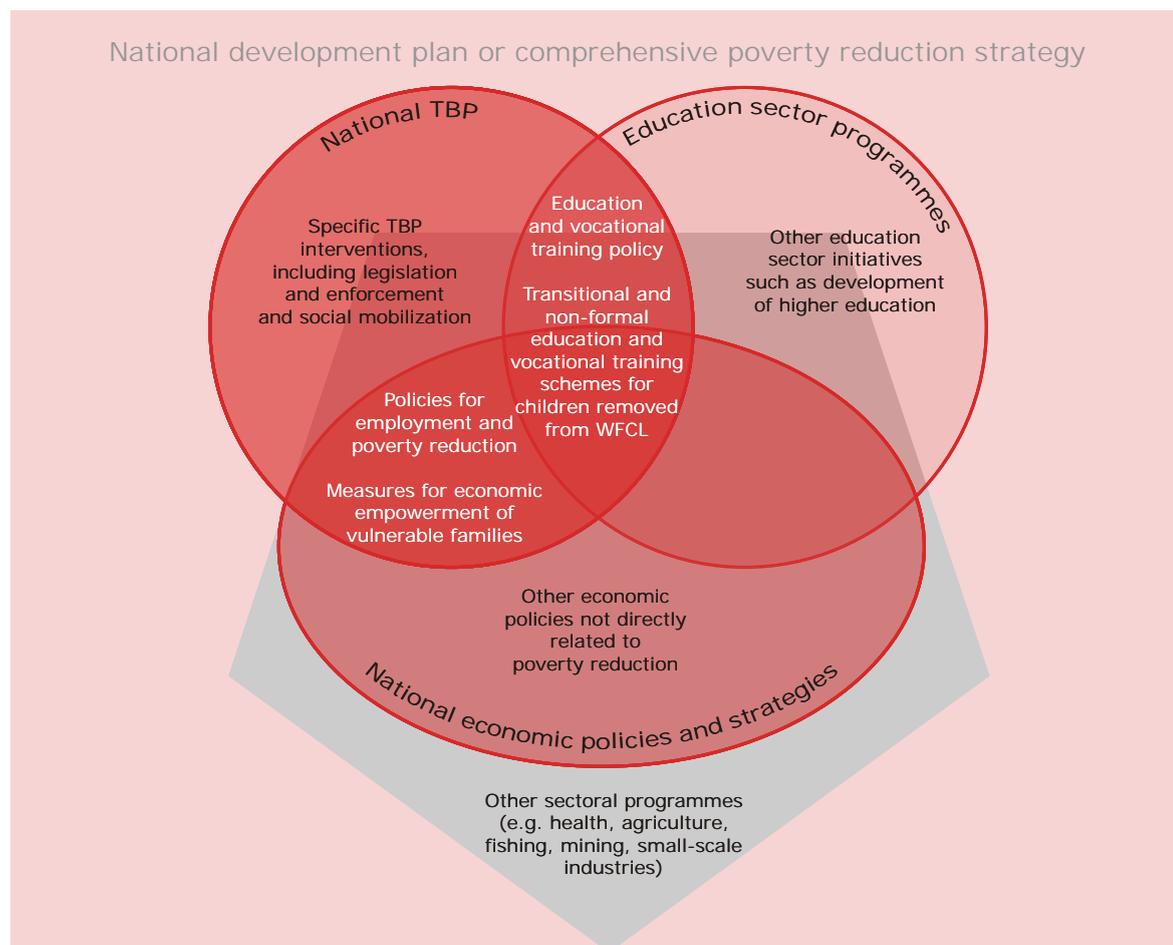
National development plan or comprehensive poverty reduction strategy

National TBP

Education sector programmes

Specific TBP interventions, including legislation and enforcement and social mobilization

Education and vocational training policy

Transitional and non-formal education and vocational training schemes for children removed from WFCL

Other education sector initiatives such as development of higher education

Policies for employment and poverty reduction

Measures for economic empowerment of vulnerable families

Other economic policies not directly related to poverty reduction

National economic policies and strategies

Other sectoral programmes (e.g. health, agriculture, fishing, mining, small-scale industries)

all areas of the country could be an important step towards the achievement of such a capability.

In considering programme options, it is important to ensure that all major interventions essential for the realization of the TBP objectives are in place, but without unnecessary duplication. TBP design should thus seek to capitalize on synergies between sectors and programme partners, strengthening existing interventions if necessary, and making particular efforts to provide TBP target groups access to existing programmes, with new interventions developed essentially to fill existing policy and programme gaps.[53]

For resource-constrained countries facing major problems with the WFCL, it is only

through such partnerships that a significant nationwide impact can be achieved. Figure 4 provides a simplified representation of areas where possible linkages could be developed between core TBP interventions, represented by the central circle, and sectoral development programmes when designing a TBP.

The outer box in Figure 4 represents the broader development framework within which the TBP is integrated, such as a national development plan or a comprehensive poverty reduction strategy. The TBP itself constitutes an umbrella framework for child labour interventions. As such, it may be composed of one or more child labour projects, along with the linked interventions implemented under

[53] For more information on TBP design please refer to Section 6.3; for more in-depth discussion, see Guide Book V: *Overview of Strategic Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation of Time-Bound Programmes*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

Figure 5: National TBP Umbrella Framework

Component Project 1
(E.g., TBP project covering many "upstream"
and "downstream" interventions)

Component Project 2
(e.g. project against
commercial sexual
exploitation
of children)

Component Project 3
etc.

Linked sectoral interventions,
e.g. education sector
development, employment
and poverty reduction
interventions, etc.
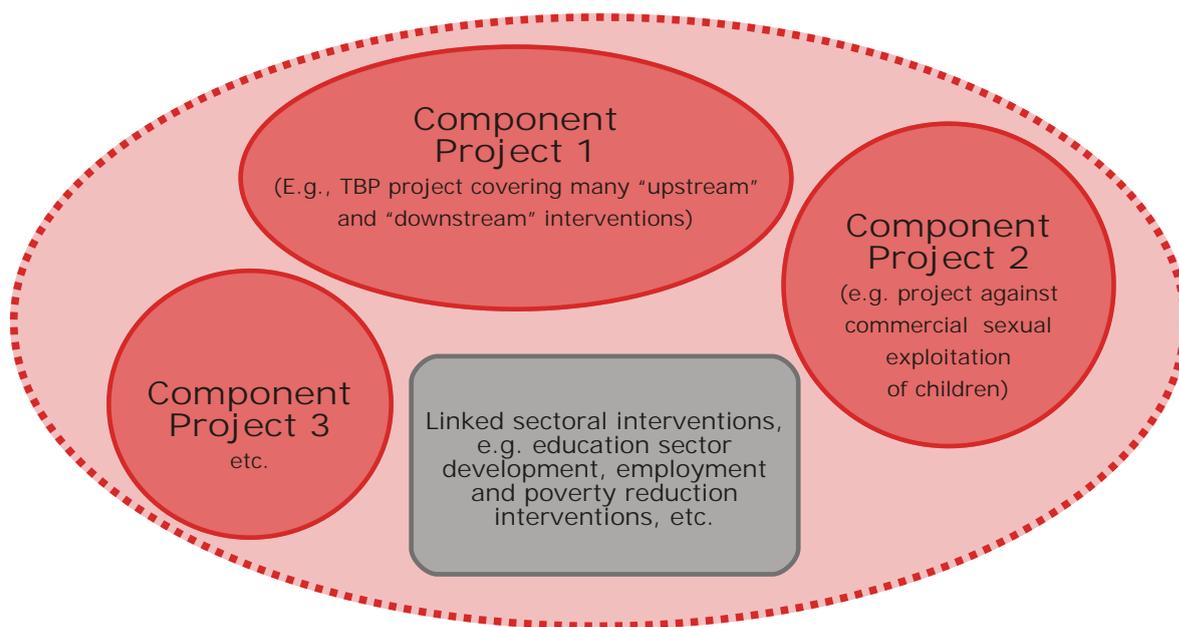
sectoral development programmes. For example, a TBP may have an IPEC-supported child labour project as well as other projects funded by government and donors. Figure 5 illustrates the relationship between a TBP as a national umbrella framework and its component projects. See Section 6.4 for further discussion of funding arrangements, programme configuration and management modalities.

that it is: innovative; effective in producing the desired impact; replicable; relevant; responsive; ethical and efficient. In many cases it is necessary to customize the key attributes to specific areas of interventions. A wider dialogue with organizations that have tried the practice and found it useful can often be essential to its successful replication.[54]

5.4 Good practices in TBPs

Much of the focus in the initial stages of the TBP will be on designing and implementing interventions that work both "upstream" and "downstream". As additional resources are mobilized and the reach of the TBP expands, positive experiences and effective models from early interventions can be replicated and scaled up. The identification and replication of "good practices" is therefore an essential part of programme development and implementation.

The overriding criterion for a good practice is its usefulness and sustainability. Among the key attributes of a good practice are

Box 15: What is a good practice?

A good practice can represent any type of activity, process, strategy or technique at any level (upstream or downstream) from any aspect of a project or programme.

6   The TBP development process

The approaches to TBP development proposed in this Section are largely based on experience acquired in the design and implementation of the first four programmes begun in 2000-2001 in El Salvador, Nepal, the United Republic of Tanzania and the Philippines. The TBP preparatory activities, including data collection, situation analysis, stakeholder consultations and project formulation contributed significantly to the refinement of the TBP concept, for example in terms of content, emphases and relationships with ongoing interventions in areas such as macro-economic policy, poverty reduction and education. Refinement and further development of methodologies and strategies have also occurred on such aspects as integrating programmes, the role of monitoring and evaluation in building knowledge, the elements of a feasible impact assessment framework and the most appropriate systems for child labour monitoring. The specific roles that IPEC and other ILO units can play and the required capacity to fulfil these roles were also clarified. Such issues have important bearing on the nature of coalitions and partnerships to be developed with government agencies, NGOs, community groups and donors.

TBP development and implementation requires a number of processes, many of which overlap. These include:

■ social mobilization through the participation of stakeholders;

■ research and analysis;

■ goal setting and programme formulation;

■ resource mobilization; and

■ programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

These processes are described in Sections 6.1 - 6.5. In Section 6.6 some important lessons learned from the first four TBP countries about setting up and implementing programmes are reviewed.

6.1 Social mobilization through the participation of stakeholders

6.1.1 Role of ILO constituents, partners and other stakeholders

The tripartite structure of the ILO is unique and it offers tangible assets for implementing a TBP. Convention No. 182 requires close consultations between government, employers' and workers' organizations in combating the WFCL. The support of employers' and workers' organizations can range from *awareness raising* and *sensitization activities* among their membership to *field-based activities* in different sectors. In order to build momentum for the TBP, it is essential to explore and identify the specific contributions the ILO constituents can make towards the elimination of the WFCL.

The types of collaboration workers' organizations have undertaken with IPEC in the past include capacity building, policy development, social

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mobilization, awareness raising and the implementation of direct action programmes to withdraw and rehabilitate child labourers. They can also help further the cause of eliminating child labour in general through the development of their own action plans against child labour and by including provisions in collective bargaining agreements that clearly prohibit child labour. Teachers' organizations also have relevant roles to play including training teachers and participation in child labour monitoring activities.

Employers' organizations can also be important partners in the national TBP framework. In many countries they have fully realized the long-term negative impact that the detrimental cycle of child labour, low education levels and poverty has on economic development. In a number of cases, they have also contributed funds for direct action or collaborated with IPEC or other pro-child organizations in other ways to eliminate child labour. This includes, for example, voluntary codes of conduct, product labelling schemes, the creation of child-labour-free zones and research activities.

It is also important to involve other concerned groups in the process of developing and implementing TBPs. Besides employers' and workers' organizations, other stakeholders include implementing agencies, affected children and their families, and local experts. Also constituting key partners are international aid and development organizations active in related fields, such as poverty reduction, food security, education and training, and child protection.

In addition, a host of NGOs, community development and community-based organizations (CBOs), university and research institutions and the media are also active partners and important stakeholders in the fight against child labour. For example, policy analysis by local research institutions can contribute significantly to advocacy efforts and to programme formulation.

Photo: ILO/

Photo: ILO/J. Maillard

Also, many non-governmental institutions do an important job in bringing about awareness of the problem of child labour and in implementing a great number of small-scale pilot projects for working children. In the delivery of services to the children affected by the WFCL, however, the efforts of some organizations may be hampered by inexperience in working with children and by a variety of symptom-based, and often contradictory, approaches to combating the problem. Therefore, an important function of social mobilization is to ensure the harmonization of understanding, goals, messages and approaches among partners, along with actions aimed at strengthening capacity at the implementation level.[55]

6.1.2 Institutional and management framework for TBP design and implementation

The participative approach must be reflected in, and promoted by, the institutional mechanism charged with the development and implementation of the TBP. The main ministry responsible for combating child labour may be designated as the "lead agency" for the TBP. It is usually the ministry of labour and acts as the secretariat for the TBP development process. It must work closely with the different partners mentioned above, as has been the practice in IPEC country programmes. Indeed, it is a good idea to set up or designate an inter-sectoral/inter-ministerial body (e.g., a committee, task force) with the responsibility for guiding, coordinating and overseeing the development and implementation of the TBP. The nature and composition of such a body will vary from country to country.

TBPs should be seen as offering *a broader national framework* for action against child labour than the typical IPEC country programme has so far. Most IPEC National Steering Committees essentially provide oversight and coordination for activities funded through IPEC. The TBP framework should provide an umbrella enabling maximum collaboration among all key national and international agencies and, consequently, the effective monitoring and coordination of all relevant interventions undertaken by different agencies. Although the IPEC National Steering Committees tend to be broad-based, they may not have a sufficiently high level of administrative competence to coordinate and monitor all child labour-related interventions. Moreover, as an existing body closely identified with a small number of national and international institutions, they may not have sufficient federating power for the broader TBP framework unless they are reconstituted and assigned new functions. Thus it may be desirable to establish a new body that supersedes the existing IPEC National Steering Committee. The new body

[55] For more information on stakeholder analysis, see Guide Book III, op. cit.

could be set up at the start of programme development or at the beginning of implementation.

In the latter case, an existing IPEC National Steering Committee (or a sub-committee thereof) could provide guidance and a participatory forum for TBP development until a new more administratively competent body replaces it. If an appropriate body already exists, then, of course, the TBP oversight and coordination function can be assigned to it.

Box 16:
Examples of institutional arrangements for TBP oversight and coordination

Nepal

The High Level Inter-Ministerial Coordination Committee on the TBP has been established which includes high-level representatives from a broad selection of government ministries responsible for children's affairs, social welfare, education, the judiciary and the economy along with the employers' organizations, trade unions and the ILO. This Committee's mandate is to ensure inter-ministerial coordination and cooperation in the implementation of the TBP and to provide policy guidance.

United Republic of Tanzania

A national Inter-sectoral Co-ordination Committee for the TBP (NISC-TBP) has been established by the initiative of the Ministry of Labour, Youth Development & Sports to provide for the overall co-ordination of the implementation of the TBP. It functions under the leadership of the Prime Minister's Office, while the Ministry of Labour serves as the secretariat. The NISC-TBP has taken over the functions of the National Steering Committee that was established in 1994 to oversee the IPEC country programme for Tanzania. Like the High Level Inter-Ministerial Committee in Nepal, the NISC-TBP membership includes senior-level representatives from several key government institutions, the social partners (the Trade Union Congress of Tanzania, the Association of Tanzania Employers) and non-governmental organizations. IPEC and other UN and international or regional agencies and donors (UNICEF, DANIDA, AfDB and WFP) participate in an observer-cum-advisory capacity.

El Salvador

A National Steering Committee has been set up to coordinate all child labour initiatives. Coordinated by the Ministry of Labour, this committee has responsibility for overseeing implementation of the TBP. Committee members include the Minister of Education, the Minister of Health, the executive directors of The Salvadoran Institute for the Protection of Minors and the National Bureau of the Family as well as representatives from workers' and employers' organizations.

Notwithstanding the likely role of the ministry responsible for eliminating child labour as the lead agency for the TBP, in many countries another ministry or the office of the head of government may have a more substantial role in inter-ministerial coordination and resource allocation decisions. Such a ministry or office should head the TBP oversight and coordination body. Membership should be at a level high enough to facilitate decision-making and the building of political support for the TBP. International partner agencies such as ILO/IPEC, UNICEF, other UN agencies, international financial institutions, bilateral donor agencies and other international organizations can contribute to the work of this body in an observer and an advisory capacity. Box 16 contains examples of TBP oversight and coordination mechanisms from Nepal, the United Republic of Tanzania and El Salvador.

Where a child labour unit already exists within the lead agency for TBP implementation, it could be strengthened to serve as the overall secretariat of the TBP and to provide technical and administrative support to the oversight and coordination body. In the absence of such a unit, one will need to be created, or an existing unit designated and provided with adequate capacity to enable it to devote sufficient attention to TBP development and implementation.

In principle, similar coordinating bodies and secretariats could be envisaged at sub-national levels. However, the creation of many structures for TBP implementation may not be cost effective, besides being duplicative and perhaps superfluous. Instead, it might be better to entrust the monitoring and coordination functions to suitable administrative organs and units existing at these levels.

6.1.3 Fostering networks, creating synergies

The success of a TBP will largely depend on the ability to foster knowledge networks, create a common understanding, designate responsibility and coordinate the joint effort of key TBP stakeholders. If the lead agency can indeed ensure that the potential synergy effects of coordinated action are harvested, this could result in a tremendous impact on the elimination of the WFCL. It is therefore critical to develop and maintain strong partnerships, based on the comparative advantages of each partner organization. IPEC can assist in this coalition-building exercise.

Photo: ILO

Box 17:
Country examples of awareness raising and social mobilization

In El Salvador, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania, specific campaign activities included:

■ sensitizing civil servants, parliamentarians, local government officials, employers, workers, teachers, judges, lawyers, police, NGO representatives and community workers through seminars, workshops, meetings, field visits, etc.;

■ disseminating awareness raising materials through the employers', workers' and teachers' organizations;

■ portraying the work hazards, inhuman working conditions and their impact on children through mass media (TV, radio, newspapers);

■ publishing posters, hoarding boards, photo displays, pamphlets, flyers, newspaper articles, etc. to sensitize local communities and to mould public opinion against the WFCL;

■ mounting street- and folk drama for similar purposes;

■ issuing special postal stamps focusing on the WFCL;

■ observing a national day on WFCL; and

■ empowering working children and their families to voice their own concerns and aspirations, and to suggest solutions that will help them break out of the vicious cycle of poverty and child labour.

6.1.4 TBP advocacy

TBP advocacy is essential for the establishment of a strong social foundation to eliminate the WFCL. A key objective is to target the general public through nationwide media campaigns as well as the TBP stakeholders through targeted orientation programmes and campaign interventions. The aim is not only to make headlines. Ideally, headlines should reflect media coverage of meaningful stakeholder dialogue.

Awareness raising and social mobilization activities are just as crucial at the TBP preparatory stage as they are as programme components at the implementation stage (see Section 5.1.2). Box 17 provides examples of awareness raising activities carried out at the preparatory stage of the TBPs in El Salvador, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania.

6.2 Research and analysis

In order to map the extent of a country's WFCL, a combination of surveys, rapid assessments (RAs) and research is carried out. This analysis also includes a thorough review of

existing legislation and an assessment of the existing educational infrastructure in terms of access to basic education for both girls and boys, its quality, and its relevance for the prevention of the WFCL. IPEC can provide assistance in collecting and analysing relevant data, identifying priorities and policy options, and mobilizing local and external resources. The information needed to develop a programme as complex as the TBP is substantial. The specific research requirements are discussed in Guide Book III.[56]

They include the collection and analysis of information on

■ the incidence and nature of child labour, including the sectoral and geographical distribution of the worst forms;

■ the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of working children and their families;

■ the major causes and consequences of different forms of child labour;

■ the institutional, policy and programme context within which the TBP will be implemented and possibilities for linking TBP interventions to those of other programmes;

■ past experiences with child labour interventions; and

■ actual and potential partners, their activities and possibilities for synergistic action

As an example, Box 18 provides lists of studies conducted in the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania as part of the TBP preparatory process. In addition to these, baseline studies are being

conducted in all three countries as part of programme implementation.

Apart from their contributions to data collection and analysis, local research institutions have a critical role in helping to disseminate information about child labour and ensuring that the problem becomes a part of ongoing intellectual and civil society debates. In an effort to build knowledge networks at the global level, IPEC, for instance, is increasingly working with research institutions at the national level. As a way of sharing the costs of doing research and the burden of quality control, the country specific possibilities of creating knowledge networks and linking up TBP research with national and international research projects should be carefully explored.

6.3 Goal setting and programme formulation

Programme formulation consists of a series of activities beginning with stakeholder consultations and the collection and analysis of data on prevalent WFCL and on various factors relevant to TBP design and implementation. Research informs the determination of the forms of child labour to be covered and key target areas, as well as the setting of goals to be pursued. The process culminates in the design of the national strategic framework or action plan for the elimination of the WFCL and the preparation of project documents for donor-funded components. The following sub-sections discuss different aspects of the TBP formulation process.

[56] Available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/ english/standards/ipec/ themes/timebound/ index.htm. Also relevant is Paper III-1, op. cit.

Box 18:
Examples of TBP preparatory studies

Dominican Republic

- Three RAs on child domestic work, commercial sexual exploitation and urban child labour

- Five baseline surveys in the agricultural sector synthesized into a single analytical report

- A mapping of the WFCL

- A national child labour survey

- A legal study

El Salvador

- Six RAs on domestic work, street work, fishing, scavenging in garbage dumps, sugar cane harvesting and processing, and commercial sexual exploitation

- A child labour module attached to the multi-use household survey

- Assessments of the health situation of children working in fishing, sugar cane processing and scavenging in dumpsites, in collaboration with World Health Organization and the Pan-American Health Organization

- Research on existing normative, socio-economic and educational framework

- Research on successful employment generation and micro-enterprise development

Nepal[57]

- Baseline surveys on ragpickers and porters

- RAs on the seven TBP target groups: bonded child labour, domestic child labour, ragpicking, portering, trafficking for labour and sexual exploitation, mining and carpet making

- Planned: multi-year tracer studies, follow-up national child labour survey

Tanzania

- Seven Rapid Assessments on the informal sector, mining, commercial sexual exploitation, domestic work and commercial agriculture (coffee, tea, tobacco)

- A multi-round child labour survey conducted in conjunction with the National Labour Force Survey

- A district mapping of donor and international NGOs' participation in child-labour-relevant programmes

6.3.1 Determining the WFCL to be covered by the TBP

As one of the first steps in formulating a TBP, the country must identify the WFCL that exist and set goals for their elimination within a determined period of time. The process of identifying the WFCL to be covered by the TBP, setting goals and devising strategies for their attainment is based on in-depth research and analysis of the child labour situation and the underlying social, economic and policy contexts, and on intensive consultations among stakeholders.

IPEC can assist the government in the process of identifying the WFCL in the country. Subsequently, the government can incorporate this list in the reform of child labour related legislation. The final list of identified WFCL could be reviewed and prioritized at a national consultation workshop, where the specific target groups of the TBP could also be decided.

6.3.2 Selecting key geographic target areas

As with the forms of child labour to be covered, the selection of target areas should also be based on extensive consultations with the ILO constituents and other key programme partners, including any funding agencies. Of course, the choice of target areas will be largely determined by the prevalence of the WFCL.

6.3.3 Consulting to build momentum

Stakeholder consultations undertaken as part of the programme formulation process can help improve the relevance of interventions, lay a strong foundation for partnerships at the implementation stage, and build momentum for the TBP. The lead agency will need to undertake a host

of consultations with key stakeholders at national and sub-national levels with a view to ensuring their involvement in programme development and implementation, and to mobilize their support for the elimination of the WFCL. Regional TBP workshops are particularly important ways of seeking support and eliciting information from local leaders, government officials and implementing agencies in future TBP target districts. In El Salvador, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania, the regional consultations produced new knowledge on the incidence of the WFCL. Suggestions were also made regarding possible methods for combating the problem and the roles that could be played by local government structures and existing programmes at district and local levels.
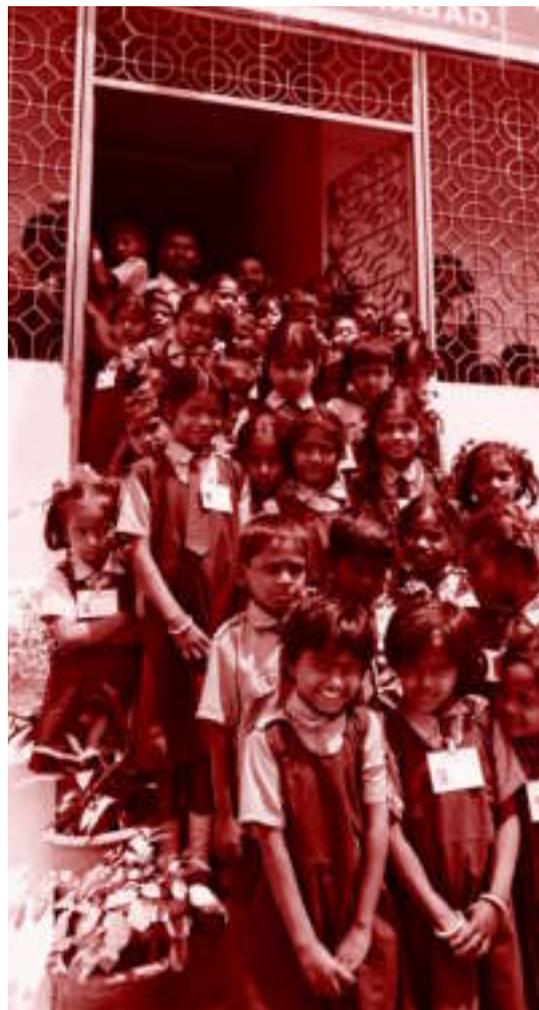
Photo: ILO/M. Crozet

Box 19:
National Stakeholder Consultations

Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania

An important milestone in the development of both the Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania TBPs was the National Stakeholder Consultation. In both countries, the respective Prime Minister opened this important national meeting. They lasted for two and a half days, and between 80 and 120 participants from central and district levels attended.

Presentations on the results of national surveys, situation analyses and other programme preparation studies contributed to a better understanding of the magnitude and nature of the WFCL. In turn, consensus was reached on the programme's objectives and major strategies, the priority target groups and the geographical areas to be covered.

During the discussions, the need to establish meaningful links between the TBP on the one hand and PRSPs and other national development plans on the other hand was emphasized. Presentations on existing policy and programme frameworks and relevant interventions were followed by group work on intervention gaps and recommendations, capacity building needs, implementation modalities and the roles and responsibilities of the stakeholders of the TBP.

6.3.4 Developing a strategic programme framework

A *strategic programme framework* or national action plan for the elimination of the WFCL could be a major output of the TBP preparation consultations. This document will set up the TBP as the umbrella framework within which different partners in various sectors will contribute to the goal of eliminating the WFCL. It defines the medium- and long-term objectives of the programme and identifies the different areas of intervention and the strategies needed to achieve them. Normally, the types of actions to be implemented will be drawn from the set of "upstream" and "downstream" interventions outlined in Sections 5.1 and 5.2. The programme framework will also identify the target groups to be reached, time-bound targets to be attained, and indicators of progress.

It should also set out the institutional framework and modalities for implementing the actions contained therein, including the responsibilities of the different actors involved, and, if possible, an estimation of the required human, institutional and financial resources.

The strategic programme framework document can be an important tool for nurturing the interest, involvement and commitment of actual and potential TBP partners, including government departments, employers' and workers' organizations, NGOs, bilateral and multilateral development partners, civil society and community groups. Once completed and agreed among the stakeholders, it can provide the framework under which individual projects can be implemented, for example with different donors and

government ministries taking responsibility for specific interventions.

IPEC has developed a planning approach that can be used for designing umbrella programmes, called *Strategic Programme Impact Framework* (SPIF) (See Box 20). The SPIF approach is aimed at strengthening strategic planning at all levels, including the monitoring and evaluation of interventions. It is being applied in all IPEC-supported TBPs and country programmes.[58]

Box 20: Strategic Programme Impact Framework (SPIF)

IPEC's Strategic Programme Impact Framework (SPIF) process is aimed at facilitating the task of strategic planning, and as the first step in the development of an impact assessment framework. SPIF is an approach to identify outcomes and impacts in an area of intervention (a given country, sector or target group) where a programme or project operates. Its intention is to place a project in context and provide the basis for strategic programming and linking of complementary interventions to enhance its effectiveness. SPIF tries to articulate the theory of change — or logic model — underlying the efforts to eliminate child labour in the area of intervention. The theory of change is defined as a sequence of interlinked propositions, assumptions and principles that explain how (positive) social transformations can be brought about, leading to an expected end-situation that considerably improves the existent reality of a country, a community or a specific group of people.

6.3.5 Preparing project documents for donor-funded components

As a national strategic programme framework, the TBP provides for the formulation of one or more donor-funded projects to assist implementation. It is possible for one major donor to assist with the preparatory activities and with funding for a supporting TBP project that kicks off the overall Programme, with other donors coming on board later on. This has been the case for TBPs in the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Nepal, the Philippines and the United Republic of Tanzania. Alternatively, a consortium of donors may agree to fund both the preparatory activities and programme implementation right from the start, as is happening with several of the more recent programmes, particularly in Bangladesh. In either case, different donors may require separate project documents, each clearly identifying the interventions being supported. However, a joint document with a programme-funding approach should not be ruled out and would be, in many cases, quite desirable and easier to manage, especially from the perspective of the TBP managers.

The format and contents of a project document are usually determined by funding and executing agencies. IPEC provides a format for projects intended for ILO execution.[59] ILO field and headquarters units, including IPEC and the ILO Multi-Disciplinary Teams (MDTs) can provide invaluable assistance for project design and implementation, particularly for ILO-executed projects.

IPEC essentially works with government departments, workers' and employers' organizations and NGOs in the

[58] For more information, see Guide Book V, op. cit., or Paper V-1: *Strategic Planning in TBPs*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/ english/standards/ipec/ themes/timebound/ index.htm

[59] See Paper V-1, op. cit.

Photo: ILO/E. Gianotti

implementation of ILO-executed child labour projects. Thus such projects typically include provision for "*action programmes*", which are usually small projects designed with and implemented by government and non-government agencies. An action programme usually covers one or more of the outputs already identified in the main project document.

6.4 Resource mobilization

The elimination of the WFCL may require substantial financial resources as well as different types of technical expertise and institutional support at different levels. Financial support may take the form of either direct contribution to the TBP budget or funding of complementary activities within ongoing programmes of national and international development agencies.

The mobilization of resources is, evidently, a crucial prerequisite for large-scale interventions such as TBPs. Besides contributions from the national governments, funding for the earliest TBPs came from one donor. However, in most cases it will be useful to explore the possibility of pooling resources from a consortium of several donors, as is being done for the Bangladesh TBP. In countries participating in the World Bank and IMF Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative, it will also be useful to explore the possibility of channelling resources generated under this scheme into funding TBP interventions. Other possible sources include grant and loan funding from the international and regional financial institutions.

Resource mobilization starts early in the programme development process, and continues in parallel with the data collection, research, consultations and programme formulation exercises. As noted in Section 6.3.5, a TBP may start with one major donor and attract other donors after the start of implementation. Thus, indeed, resource mobilization is likely to be an ongoing process that continues throughout programme implementation. Moreover, in many countries the sustainable pursuit of TBP goals may depend on the ability to attract a succession of donors over the medium- to long- term.

Financial support may take the form of either direct contribution to the TBP

budget or funding of complementary activities within ongoing programmes of national and international development agencies. There are also very important ways to expand the programme that require relatively little or no fund raising. This involves leveraging the resources of other development or social programmes that can have impact on child labour. This is of particular interest in relation to education and poverty alleviation programmes. It can involve joint targeting of beneficiaries and/or the incorporation of child labour indicators among those of other programmes, where feasible.[60] IPEC can assist in the process of mobilizing resources. In many cases ILO Subregional and Area Offices and IPEC staff have direct contacts with donor agencies at the country level and they can provide information on donor priorities and requirements as well as technical input and know-how for producing necessary documentation. However, it is important to note that the responsibility for programme development, including resource mobilization, rests with the government.

6.4.1 Government support

The government has the principal responsibility for funding the TBP. Government funding of the TBP may include direct TBP interventions, as well as public expenditure in areas such as education and poverty alleviation that impact on the problem of child labour. In line with Convention No. 182 it is also expected that the government will set up institutional structures and design appropriate policies for the elimination of the problem as a matter of urgency.

When mobilizing resources for TBPs, it is essential to consider all relevant government departments and agencies as key partners and to involve them in discussions as early as possible. This is because there are important synergies to

be achieved by mainstreaming action against child labour within such national development plans as the PRSPs, Five-Year Plans, national initiatives on Education for All as well as policies promoting decentralization and good governance at local levels. Given all these possibilities, it is important to have child labour concerns voiced in policy discussions and resource allocation fora from the earliest possible moment and by the responsible government departments and agencies. This may occur in connection with public budget hearings, PRSP consultations and similar public discussions covering key sectors of relevance to child labour.

6.4.2 Enlisting donor support

Given the increasing adoption of decentralized funding modalities by major donors and the positive trend of local resource mobilization for child labour projects, it is likely that most new donor funding of child labour initiatives will come through donors at the country level. It is therefore imperative that programme partners explore all possibilities of enlisting local donor support for TBPs. As noted above, ILO/IPEC can assist in this process of mobilizing donor support. ILO Subregional and Area Offices have an important role to play in this regard.

The process of mobilizing donor support starts right from the outset of TBP development through the active involvement of key donors in TBP preparatory activities. A concept paper outlining the WFCL problem and the proposed strategies for addressing it could be prepared and disseminated among the local donor community. This might include, for instance, the strategic programme framework mentioned in Section 6.3.4. Donors should also be invited to participate in

[60] See Guide Book IV: op. cit., section on mainstreaming. For additional information, see also Paper IV-13: *Resource Mobilization for Time-Bound Programmes*. Both documents are available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/themes/timebound/index.htm

all relevant consultations and in informal donor group meetings. They could be encouraged to co-fund research activities and to participate in research dissemination seminars. Furthermore, they could be approached with targeted proposals with a view to funding specific components of the TBP. As noted earlier, funds from several donors could be pooled to support a TBP.

6.4.3 Collaborating with the programmes of other institutions

Most developing countries will usually have a variety of ongoing projects and programmes sponsored by the government, UN agencies, international financial institutions, bilateral donors or international and national NGOs. The process of analysing and mapping out the major child labour related programmes in early TBPs has clearly revealed how there is ample opportunity for integrating and assimilating components of such ongoing projects within the broader framework of the TBP.

The largest source of resources in the context of resource mobilization may well be the complementary programmes and projects of national and international agencies. Therefore, every effort should be made to mainstream the goal of the elimination of WFCL and link the TBP with all relevant programmes and to promote joint targeting of child labourers and their families.

Activities that can contribute directly to the success of the TBP include support to:

■ Poverty alleviation

■ Micro finance and micro credit

■ Small enterprises development schemes

■ Women's empowerment programmes

■ Expansion of the coverage of primary education

■ Improving the quality of primary education and the reduction of dropout

■ Non-formal education

■ Vocational training

■ Employment creation

■ Youth employment

■ Food security

■ Social security

■ Micro health insurance schemes.

These and similar interventions should be coordinated within the TBP framework with a view to creating a major thrust to combat the WFCL, securing synergies and ensuring a measurable impact. Similarly, major NGOs in the country that have direct experience with working children or

Photo: ILO/P. Deloche

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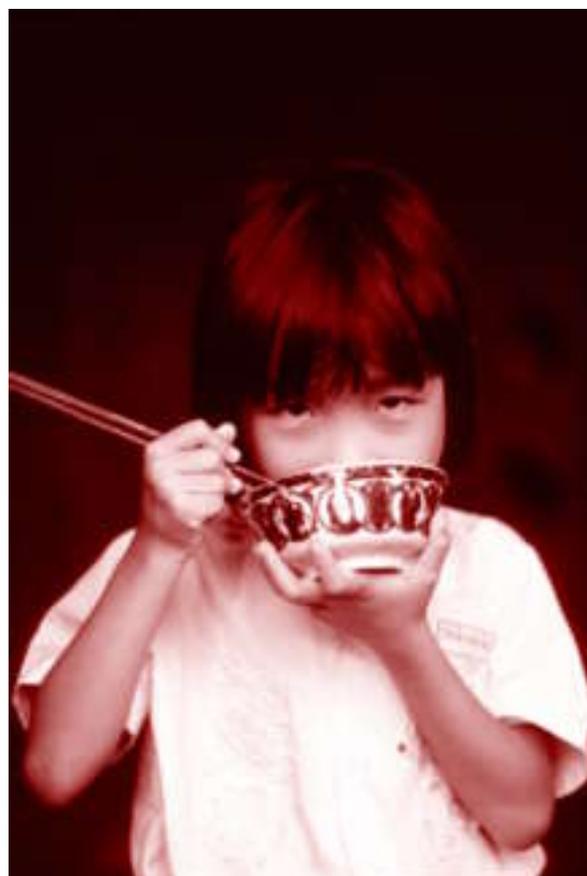
with the poor segments of the population and have been running these types of programmes ought to be welcomed as partners in the alliance, and encouraged to contribute to efforts aimed at eliminating the WFCL.

Finally, for IPEC-executed programmes, there is ample scope for coordinating activities combating child labour with those of other sectors and programmes within the ILO (See Box 21).

6.5 Programme implementation, monitoring and evaluation

6.5.1 Implementation modalities

Determining programme implementation modalities is an important element of TBP design. The programme framework will cover sectoral interventions that are not primarily motivated by the fight against child labour and have other independent goals, as well as interventions specifically designed to address child labour issues. The first type of intervention will be implemented within the programmes of

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Box 21:
Leveraging resources through joint targeting and other types of cooperation

Examples from ILO programmes in El Salvador, United Republic of Tanzania and Nepal

In El Salvador, the ILO InFocus Programme on Boosting Employment through Small Enterprise Creation (SEED) has programmes in place that overlap geographically with interventions foreseen for children in fireworks production and those working on dumpsites. SEED is coordinating its efforts with that of IPEC to try to assist the families of children identified in these target groups.

In the United Republic of Tanzania, several employment-promotion and gender-focused ILO programmes underway will impact child labour as they address some of its root causes. These include the ILO Strategies and Tools against Social Exclusion and Poverty (STEP) programme for Tanzania that aims to promote the extension of social protection to women and men in the informal economy, and the joint ILO/UNDP regional project "Jobs for Africa—Poverty Reducing Employment Strategies for Africa". More directly, IPEC and the ILO International Programme on More and Better Jobs for Women are implementing a joint project, "Promoting Linkages Between Women's Employment and Reduction of Child Labour".

In Nepal, IPEC has a joint project with ILO Declaration on eliminating bonded labour, which targets 16,000 children. This project has been absorbed into the TBP framework.

the concerned sectoral agencies. In contrast, measures specifically developed to address child labour problems are likely to be implemented within child labour projects. Education sector reforms, for example, and other measures aimed at improving access to quality education, though crucial for the attainment of TBP goals, are unlikely to be implemented solely as a component of a child labour project. What is important is to ensure that TBP concerns such as school-related factors that contribute to child labour are adequately addressed.[61] Similarly, employment and income generation measures are likely to be implemented by the concerned line ministries, irrespective of whether a programme against child labour exists.

In the context of a TBP, it will be useful to apply the same management principle to both types of interventions. In other words, the different departments and agencies could manage their own projects, irrespective of whether they were specifically designed as part of the TBP or have an independent *raison d'être*. Nevertheless, close collaboration and effective coordination of activities within and between both types of interventions must be ensured. While it need not be necessary to bring all TBP interventions under one management, it is essential to ensure that they articulate well with each other and are implemented in a coordinated manner. This need for non-centralized implementation with effective coordination underscores the importance of designing an adequate institutional framework for TBP implementation, as discussed in Section 6.1.2.

6.5.2 Planning for programme monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation starts at the design and planning phase of the TBP.

[61] Of course, issues such as non-formal and transitional education for ex-child labourers will most likely be addressed within the components of the TBP.

Usually, the programme strategy will be designed to achieve the TBP objectives by mapping links between interventions. It will also have clearly established objectives and indicators at the impact and operational levels. There will be concise targeting in the form of a baseline that will include all relevant indicators for impact, unintended effects and direct effects of interventions. Each element of the strategy can have a more detailed map of intervention.

The link between designed interventions and objectives at different levels can be established through dynamic and participatory use of logical framework approaches. The initial situation analysis and stakeholder consultations can use these methods to identify and communicate the changes that the TBP is expected to bring about. As part of the monitoring and evaluation process, repeat situation analyses can help revise these logical frameworks as part of participatory monitoring.

It is suggested that the following items be identified at the design stage:

- The objectives at different levels and corresponding indicators.

- The links between the components of the TBP and the contributions they make to each other. This could include key programme interfaces or common factors that need to be closely monitored.

- The sustainable situation that is being aimed for, including criteria and indicators for progress towards sustainability. Institutional sustainability such as building capacity for repeated situation analyses and creation of relevant networks should be particularly

considered. An outline of possible exit strategies based on evidence of sustainability could also be identified for TBP component projects.

■ The monitoring and evaluation system to be used. This should be selected according to the nature and level of the interventions, including the nature of consultation processes. This analysis should closely assess existing monitoring and evaluation capacity so as to ensure ownership, mainstreaming and cost-effectiveness.

One possible approach would be to identify, at an early stage of the TBP development process, a local institution with research and management capacity to facilitate the design, monitoring and evaluation process, including the consultations with the stakeholders. This institution could then provide technical support to other institutions responsible for components of the TBP.[62]

6.5.3 The monitoring process

The nature of the monitoring process will depend on the data requirements in individual cases, means of verification, and the possible sources of data and methodologies to be used. Programme management systems of different interventions will often provide the data for monitoring at the operational level. For monitoring the achievement of operational objectives and impact on children, specific monitoring systems may need to be established. ILO/IPEC has developed a number of systems and approaches to project monitoring.[63] Monitoring systems of other programmes and institutions, such as those of the World Bank, and UN system exercises such as Common Country Assessments (CCAs) or United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) can also be used, in particular for contextual variables.

[62] For further guidelines and examples of ILO/IPEC monitoring and evaluation procedures, see Guide Book V: *Overview of Startegic Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation of Time-Bound Programmes*, available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/ english/standards/ipec/ themes/timebound/ index.htm

[63] For detailed examples, see Paper V-1, op. cit., and Paper V-5: *Identifying and Using Indicators of Achievement in ILO/IPEC Projects*, both available in the TBP MAP Kit or from the TBP MAP web site: www.ilo.org/public/ english/standards/ipec/ themes/timebound/ index.htm

6.5.4 *The participatory approach and programme evaluation*

Evaluation has to achieve a balance between the inside knowledge and understanding of stakeholders and programme management, and the external standards used by independent evaluators. It has to be a participatory and joint process that allows for the comprehensive perspective of both managers and evaluators.

TBPs are joint interventions of many stakeholders, national institutions and donors. As joint interventions where the link between components is the key to overall impact, joint evaluations can be seen as the most appropriate way to evaluate joint programmes, both the overall TBP and the contribution from each component. Joint evaluations of existing interventions on child labour in a country prior to the design of a TBP can provide the programmatic overview that identifies possible synergies, and complementarities and gaps. The common understanding and basis for programme interventions that comes from a joint evaluation will also give indications as to whether joint or linked programmes such as TBPs are feasible.

6.6 Some prerequisites for the development of TBPs

From the experience gained thus far in the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Nepal, the Philippines and the United Republic of Tanzania, it is apparent several conditions need to be met for the successful development and implementation of a TBP. These relate to technical and institutional capacity and the availability of resources. These conditions can be summarized as follows:

■ The development of the TBP presupposes the existence of a *strong, explicit and consistent political commitment* of the highest authority of the government. Such full commitment is essential for generating support for new policies and legal reforms to combat child labour, mobilizing national resources, integrating the TBP with relevant projects and programmes of the government and other agencies operating in the country, and ensuring active support of the entire government machinery towards the elimination of the WFCL. It is expected that a country seeking to implement a TBP will have ratified ILO Convention No. 182.

■ The multi-sectoral nature of interventions needed to effectively address the child labour problem makes the *support of a wide range of government ministries and agencies* indispensable. In most countries, the ministry of labour (or its equivalent) will have primary responsibility for combating child labour. Besides the active support and leadership of this ministry, most TBPs will require continuing support from the ministries of finance, planning, education, interior, justice, women and children's affairs, and rural/urban development, among others. Also crucial is support from the different layers of decentralized administration (provincial, district and local governments, for example). The active interest and participation of these key stakeholders is crucial for the success of any TBP.

■ Similarly, strong support is required from the trade unions, employers' organizations, NGOs, professional bodies and research institutions, community organizations, community leaders, teachers,

activists, parents and local populations in general. Since child labour is a highly complex phenomenon and deeply rooted in the country's socio-economic reality — as well as in the norms, values and attitudes of it's people — the successful implementation of the TBP will require *whole-hearted support of society.*

■ For countries facing major child labour challenges, planning, designing, implementing, monitoring and evaluating a TBP may require *substantial technical expertise, institutional support and human resources*. Where sufficient local expertise and adequate organizational structures are not available at different levels to transform the TBP approach into concrete action, additional efforts will be needed to build up national capacity.

■ *Previous experience with IPEC programmes* is very useful in terms of building a mechanism of national coordination, scaling up successful interventions and developing expertise. In the absence of this, an enhanced preparatory phase may be required.

■ The *resources required* to eliminate the WFCL *are considerable.* These may be in the form of either direct financial support from bilateral or other donors or parallel services to the target groups of the TBP. In assessing the feasibility of implementing a TBP, it is useful for the Lead Agency to hold consultations with other government agencies and the donor community in order to explore possible different funding sources, including possibilities for different agencies funding complementary interventions. ILO/IPEC can assist in the mobilization of donor funding for TBPs.