

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

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Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Programme

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1. INTRODUCTION

1. In the South-East and East Asia region (SEEAR) much remains to be done to overcome the twin challenges of child labour and educational marginalisation, critical to progress towards the Millennium Development Goals. Although the region as a whole has shown improvements in terms of child labour and primary school attendance, child labour continues to be high in several SEEAR countries and a significant number of primary school-aged children are out of school, often due to the demands of work. The effects of child labour and education marginalisation are well-documented: both can lead to social vulnerability and societal marginalisation, and both can permanently impair productive potential and therefore influence lifetime patterns of employment and pay. Child labour is also often associated with direct threats to children's health and well-being. Further, unconditional worst forms of child labour such as the trafficking and sexual exploitation of children are priority concerns in the region. Children subjected to such forms of abuse suffer serious physical, psychological, and emotional damages and end up being marginalized in all aspects of individual development; social, economic and educational.

2. The remainder of the Report is structured as follows. Chapter 2 discusses definitions and data sources as background for the descriptive statistics presented in the subsequent chapters. Chapter 3 reports both regional and country-specific estimates of children's involvement in employment and child labour, and how these estimates differ across countries and across population subgroups within countries. Chapter 4 assesses factors associated with children's employment. Chapter 5 looks at the characteristics of children's employment in order to shed light on children's workplace reality and their role in the labour force. Chapter 6 provides a more in-depth look at children's employment in the agriculture, manufacturing and commerce sectors. Chapter 7 assesses the interplay between children's employment and schooling, and in particular employment as a factor in educational marginalisation. Chapter 8 reports on out-of-school children. Finally, Chapter 9 reviews policy priorities for addressing the issue of child labour.

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

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

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

The Roadmap calls for effective partnership across the UN system to address child labour, and for mainstreaming child labour into policy and development frameworks. The Roadmap also calls for improved knowledge sharing and for further reSEEARch aimed at guiding policy responses to child labour.

ReSEEARch on the work and the vulnerability of children constitutes the main component of the UCW Programme. Through close collaboration with stakeholders in partner countries, the Programme produces reSEEARch allowing a better understanding of child labour in its various dimensions.

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

2. DEFINITIONS AND DATA SOURCES

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

Panel 2. International legal standards relating to child labour

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

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

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

The **UN Convention on the Rights of the Child** (CRC) recognises the child's right to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development (Art. 32.1). In order to achieve this goal, the CRC calls on States Parties to set minimum ages for admission to employment, having regard to other international instruments (Art. 32.2).

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

5. This point is illustrated in Table 1, which summarises key legislation relating to child labour in the SEEAR countries. As shown, while all but Timor-Leste have ratified ILO Convention No. 138, the minimum age specified at ratification ranges across countries from 14-15 years. Not all countries have provisions for light work, and, among those that do have such provisions, there are differences

in terms of the relevant age range and the make-up of light work. Similarly, not all countries have specified national lists of hazardous work, and there are large differences in contents among those that have drafted national lists.

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

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

Notes:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

6. In view of these measurement challenges, and in order to facilitate cross-country comparisons, the Report uses two methods to approximate child labour. It first presents child labour estimates based on the methodology employed by ILO in its global child labour estimates. Following this, it relies on the broader concept of employment as an approximation of child labour. Children in employment are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period.¹ Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economy; inside and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time), or as a domestic worker outside the child's own household for an employer (with or without pay). It is worth repeating that these child labour approximations are not necessarily consistent with child labour as

¹ The concept of employment is elaborated further in the *Resolution concerning statistics of work, employment and labour underutilization*, adopted by the Nineteenth International Conference of Labour Statisticians (October 2013).

defined in legal terms in individual countries. The Report focuses mainly on children between 5 and 14 years of age; the analysis is extended to include 15-17 year olds when dealing with hazardous work.²

Table 2. Listing of household survey datasets used in Report

Country	Survey name	Year
Cambodia	Cambodia Labour Force and Child labour Survey (LFS-NCLS)	2011-2012
Lao PDR	National Child Labour Survey (NCLS)	2010
Thailand	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 3 (MICS 3)	2005-2006
Mongolia	Labour Force Survey with Child Activities Module (LFS-NCLS)	2011
Indonesia	National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas)	2010
Timor-Leste	Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSLS)	2007
Viet Nam	National Child Labour Survey (NCLS)	2012

7. The Report is based on the most recent available data from national household surveys in a total of seven SEEAR countries, as summarised in Table 2.

8. The ILO Statistical Information and Monitoring Programme on Child Labour (SIMPOC) surveys are the source for information on the extent and nature of children's employment in four countries (i.e., Cambodia, Lao PDR, Mongolia and Viet Nam). The SIMPOC survey programme provides more detailed information on the extent, nature and hazardousness of children's employment across the entire 5-17 years age range. Data for Indonesia is from a general labour force survey that collects information on labour force participation for persons aged ten or older. Data for Timor-Leste are from a general household survey, which is not explicitly designed to measure labour force participation, but collects this information alongside a range of other household and labour force characteristics. Data for Thailand are from the UNICEF Multiple Cluster Indicator (MICS) which does not contain detailed information on the nature and characteristics of children's employment. It is important to note that the estimates of employment for Lao PDR based on the NCLS of 2010 likely significantly understate actual employment levels of children. The underestimation is product of problems with the definition of employment used in the employment question in the NCLS of 2010 that leads to a lack of information on the overlap between school and employment. As evidence from other developing countries indicates that children combining school and work form of the majority of children in employment, the underestimation of employment in the case of Lao PDR could be considerable. This estimation problem does not, however, extend to school attendance, which is captured by a separate question.

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

² The stipulations contained in ILO Conventions Nos. 138 and 182 relating to hazardous work, excessively long work hours and unconditional worst forms, also extend to children aged 15-17 years. Likewise, the Convention on the Rights of the Child applies to all persons under the age of 18.

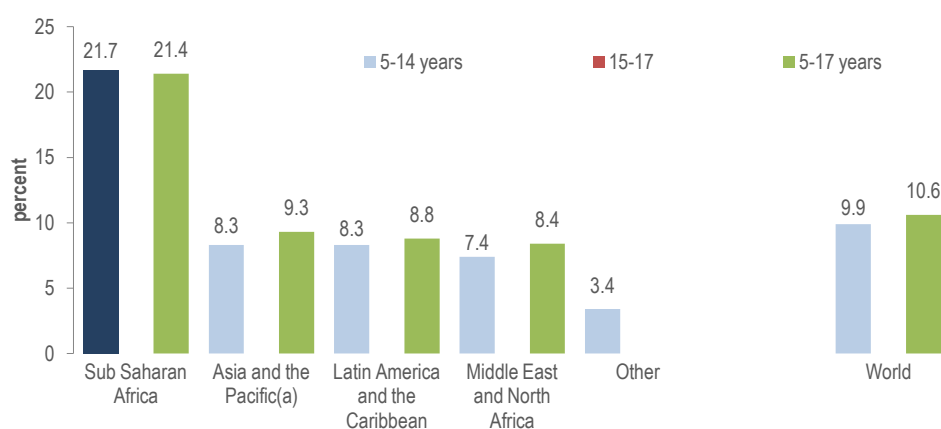
3. CHILDREN'S INVOLVEMENT IN CHILD LABOUR

3.1 Involvement in child labour based on ILO global estimates methodology

10. Child labour in the Asia and Pacific region, as measured in accordance with the ILO global estimates methodology³, stands at around eight percent for 5-14 year olds and nine percent for 5-17 year olds (Figure 1). The region registered by far the largest absolute decline in child labour among 5-17 year-olds for the 2008-2012 period, from 114 million to 78 million. However, the SEEAR region represents only a small part of the Asia and Pacific region, so this positive trend does not necessarily apply to the SEEAR region.

Figure 1. Child labour incidence in the Asia and Pacific region stands at around eight percent for 5-14 year olds and nine percent for 5-17 year olds

Percentage of children in child labour, 5-14 years age range, by region



Notes: (a) Estimates for Asia and the Pacific includes the SEEAR countries.

Source: ILO SIMPOC calculations based on ILO global estimates datasets.

11. Child labour estimates vary consistently across SEEAR countries; in several countries in the region child labour appears high. Country-specific child labour estimates are provided in Table 3. As discussed above, they do not necessarily reflect child labour as defined by national legislation in each of the SEEAR countries, but rather reflect a standardised approximation of child labour for comparative purposes.⁴ The estimates nonetheless provide an indication of how levels of child labour vary across the SEEAR countries. Child labour for 5-17 year olds is more than 10 percent in all the countries, except for Indonesia where it stands at five percent. When expressed in absolute terms, Viet Nam is host to by far the largest number of child labourers (2.5 million), followed by Indonesia (1.7 million).

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

⁴ As discussed earlier, child labour is a legal rather than statistical concept, and the international legal standards that define it are therefore the necessary frame of reference for child labour measurement. However, translating these broad legal norms into statistical terms for measurement purposes is complicated by the fact that international legal standards contain a number of flexibility clauses left to the discretion of the competent national authority in consultation (where relevant) with worker and employer organisations (e.g., minimum ages, scope of application). This means that there is no single legal definition of child labour across countries, and concomitantly, no single statistical measure of child labour consistent with national legislation across countries.

Table 3. Estimates of child labour involvement, based on standard ILO global estimate methodology^(a)

Country	(a) Children aged 5-11 years in employment ^(b)		(b) Children aged 12-14 years in regular (non- light) employment ^(c)		(c) Children aged 15-17 years in hazardous employment ^(d)		(d)=(a)&(b) Children aged 5-14 years in child labour ^(b)		(e)=(a)&(b)&(c) Children aged 5-17 years in child labour ^(b)	
	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.	% of total age group	No.
Cambodia	4.0	77,764	15.8	155,506	28.6	291,366	8.0	233,270	13.3	524,636
Lao PDR	4.1	37,065	15.1	65,173	25.8	105,565	7.7	102,238	11.9	207,803
Thailand ^(e)	9.0	618,039	5.8	179,496	-	-	8.0	797,535	-	-
Mongolia	10.7	31,301	11.8	16,967	5.5	8,344	11.0	48,268	9.6	56,612
Indonesia	1.6	145,241	3.6	464,025	7.4	1,074,545	2.8	609,266	4.6	1,683,811
Timor-Leste ^(f)	15.5	8,528	16.4	12,603	1.0	695	16.0	21,130	10.8	21,826
Viet Nam	3.7	358,506	19.2	790,562	30.7	1,392,252	8.3	1,149,068	13.9	2,541,319
Total countries	4.5	1,276,444	7.7	1,684,332	13.9	2,872,767	5.9	2,960,775	8.2	5,036,007

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

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

12. Child labour in the SEEAR predominates in rural areas. The rural-urban gap applies to all the SEEAR countries and is particularly large in Mongolia where the share of 5-14 year olds rural children in child labour is seven times that of urban children (21 percent against 3 percent), while the proportion of 5-17 year olds rural children in child labour is almost four times that of urban.

13. The influence of gender on child labour varies by country. In Cambodia and Lao PDR girls are more likely than boys to be in child labour, while in the remaining five countries the opposite holds true. Gender differences in child labour increase with age most likely reflecting the different socially-dictated paths taken by boys and girls as they become of age.

Table 4. Child labour^(a) by sex, residence, age group and country

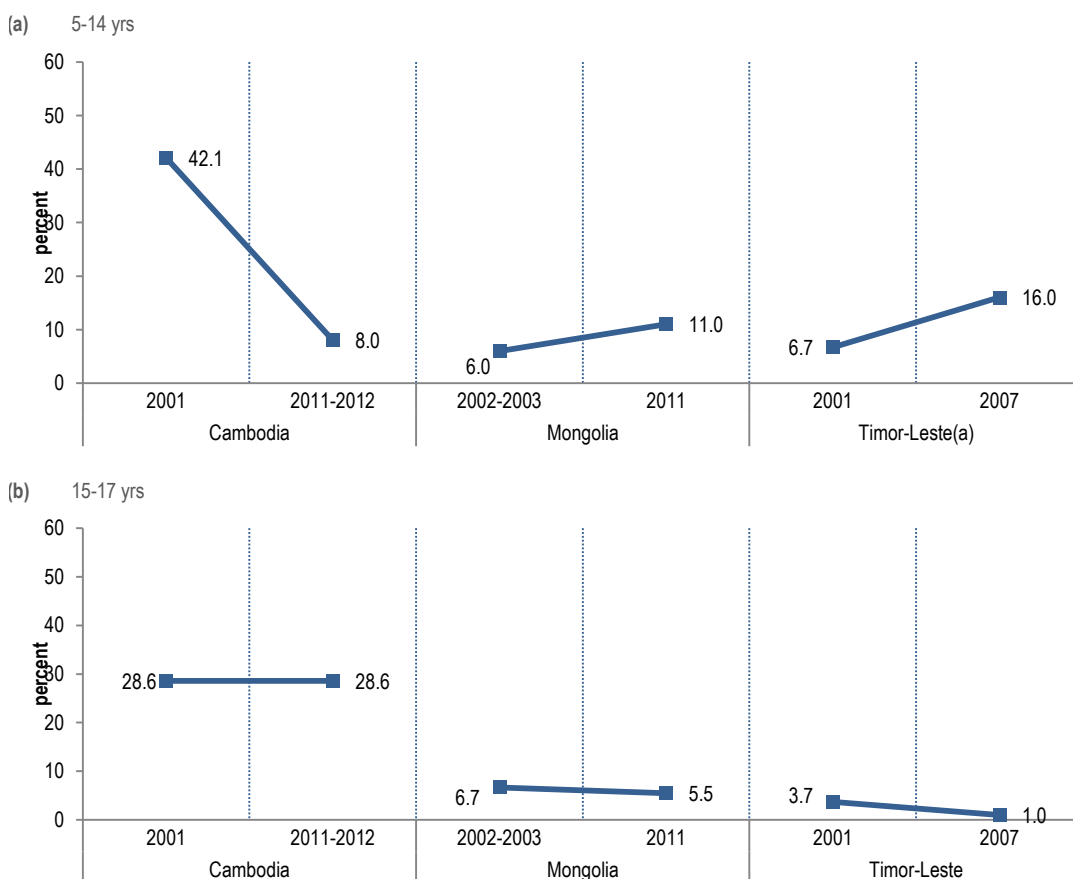
Country	5-14 yrs ^(b)				15-17 yrs			
	Sex		Residence		Sex		Residence	
	Male	Female	Urban	Rural	Male	Female	Urban	Rural
Cambodia	7.7	8.2	4.2	8.9	27.2	30.0	15.2	32.2
Lao PDR	6.7	8.7	2.2	9.2	22.8	28.9	14.2	30.5
Thailand ^(c)	8.1	7.9	7.8	8.0	-	-	-	-
Mongolia	11.8	10.2	2.9	20.8	8.5	2.6	2.5	9.2
Indonesia	3.2	2.4	1.4	3.7	8.4	6.4	8.1	6.9
Timor-Leste ^(d)	17.2	14.9	7.4	18.9	1.5	0.4	0.8	1.1
Viet Nam	8.9	7.7	3.4	10.3	34.9	25.9	14.7	37.2

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

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

14. SEEARA comparison of the estimates at the beginning and at the end of the decade for the countries, for which data allow comparison over time, shows a very strong decline in child labour for 5-14 year olds in Cambodia, from 42 percent in 2001 to eight percent in 2011-2012. In Mongolia and Timor-Leste child labour increased over the decade for children in this age group. The picture changes when looking at child labour for 15-17 year olds, which consists in hazardous work defined as hazardous occupation and/or industry and very long weekly working hours (43 hours or more a week). Child labour remained stable over the decade in Cambodia and decreased in both Mongolia and Timor-Leste (Figure 2). These trends suggest that while children continue to be engaged in work in the region, the hazardousness of the work they are involved in could be diminishing.

Figure 2. Changes in child labour, 5-17 years age group, base year and most recent, by age group and country



Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range. Data for Timor-Leste does not provide information on hazardous occupation.

Source: UCW calculations based on CAMBODIA: Cambodia Child Labour (CCLS) 2001, Cambodia Labour Force and Child labour Survey (LFS-NCLS) 2011-2012; MONGOLIA: National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) 2002-2003, Labour Force Survey with Child Activities Module (LFS-NCLS) 2011; TIMOR-LESTE: Timor-Leste Living Standards Survey (TLSS) 2001, Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSLS) 2007.

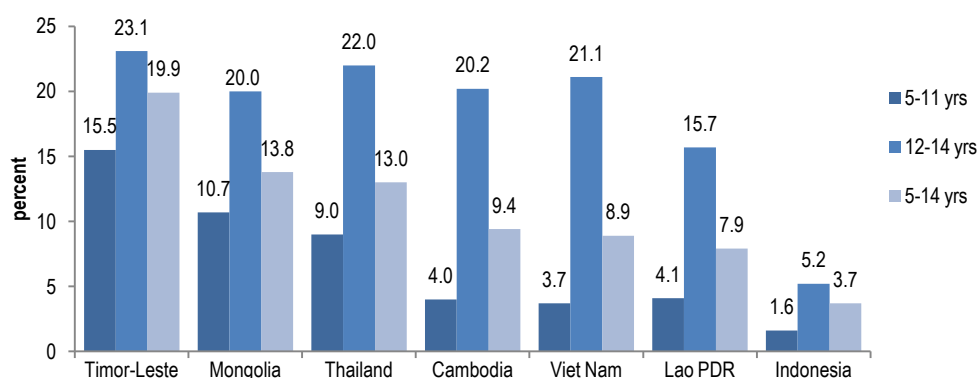
3.2 Involvement in children's employment

15. Child labour as approximated by children's employment⁵ SEEAR is much more common among children aged 12-14. Incidence of children employment for 5-14

⁵ Recall that children in employment are those engaged in any economic activity for at least one hour during the reference period. Economic activity covers all market production and certain types of non-market production (principally the production of goods and services for own use). It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal economy; inside

year olds is almost 20 percent in Timor-Leste, and exceeds 13 percent in Mongolia and Thailand. In the remaining countries, Cambodia, Viet Nam, Lao PDR and Indonesia child labour incidence is lower than ten percent reaching the lowest in Indonesia where four percent of 5-14 year olds are in employment. The picture changes considerably when 12-14 years old are considered. In Lao PDR 16 percent of 12-14 years old children are in employment while in the remaining countries more than one fifth of children in this age group are engaged in work, with the exception of Indonesia where the share stands at 5 percent (Figure 3).

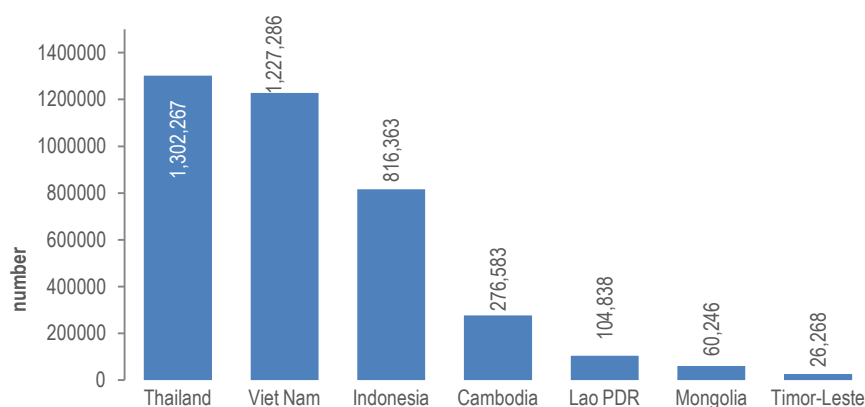
Figure 3. Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by age group and country^(b)



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

16. The picture differs considerably when presented in absolute terms. Thailand is host to the largest number of 5-14 year-olds in employment (1.3 million), followed by Viet Nam (1.2 million) and Indonesia (800 thousand) (Figure 4).

Figure 4. No. of children in employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by country^(b)



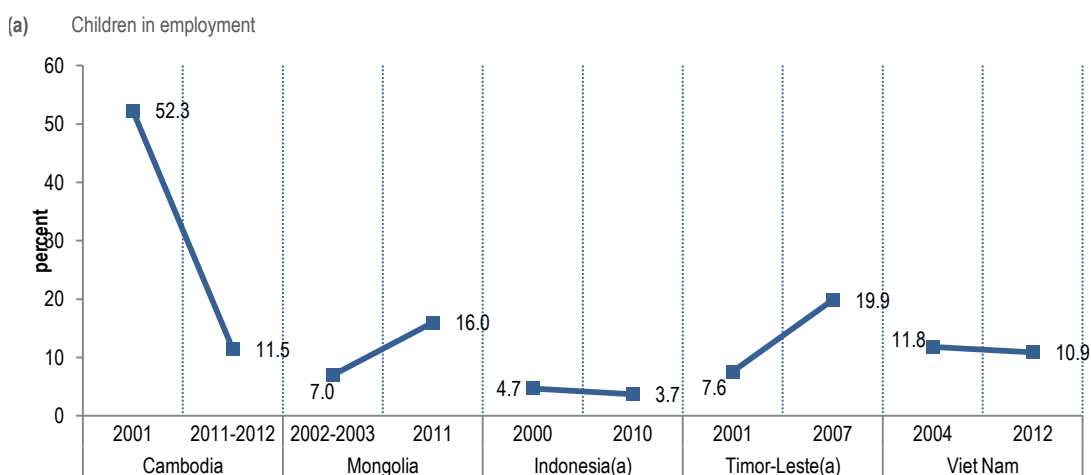
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range; (b) Cross-country comparisons of children's employment should be interpreted with caution, as estimates are based on different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments.
Source: UCW calculations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

and outside family settings; work for pay or profit (in cash or in kind, part-time or full-time), or as a domestic worker outside the child's own household for an employer (with or without pay).

17. A question of most interest, not captured by the static picture of children's employment presented above, is the direction in which the SEEAR countries moved in terms of children's employment in the last decade, i.e., whether a greater or lower proportion of children are working over time. A comparison of the estimates at the beginning and at the end of the decade for 7-14 year olds shows a very large decline in children's employment in Cambodia, from 52percent in 2001 to 12 percent in 2011-2012. Children's employment declined, although to a much lower extent, in Indonesia where children's employment fell from five percent in 2000 to four percent in 2010 and in Viet Nam where the decline was from 12percent in 2004 to 11percent in 2012 (Figure 5).

Mongolia and Timor-Leste, on the contrary, experienced an alarming exacerbation of children's employment situation. In Mongolia children's employment rose from 7 percent in 2002-2003 to 16 percent in 2011. The increase in children's employment was for the most caused by an increase of children combining school attendance and employment. The worsening of children's situation in terms of employment may be in part the result of the global financial crisis. However, the increase in children's employment had already been denounced by the International Labour Organization and National Statistical Office of Mongolia in 2008⁶ and had been attributed to recent social and economic reforms in Mongolia which had adversely affected income and employment of the vulnerable groups of the society and consequently led to a rise in poverty and unemployment and an increase in child labour. In Timor-Leste children's employment rose from 8 percent in 2001 to 20 percent in 2007, due to the increase of both children exclusively in employment and children combining school and employment. The increase took place before the outbreak of the global financial crisis (Figure 5).

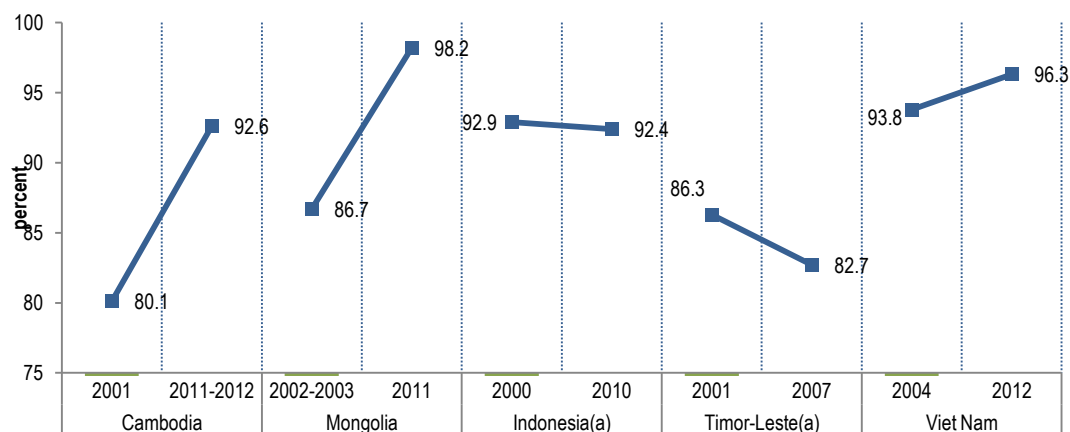
Figure 5. Changes in child activity status, 7-14 years age group, base year and most recent, by country



⁶ International Labour Organization and National Statistical Office (NSO) of Mongolia, *Report of National Child Labour Survey 2006 – 2007*, 2008

Figure 5.Cont'd

(b) Children in school



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

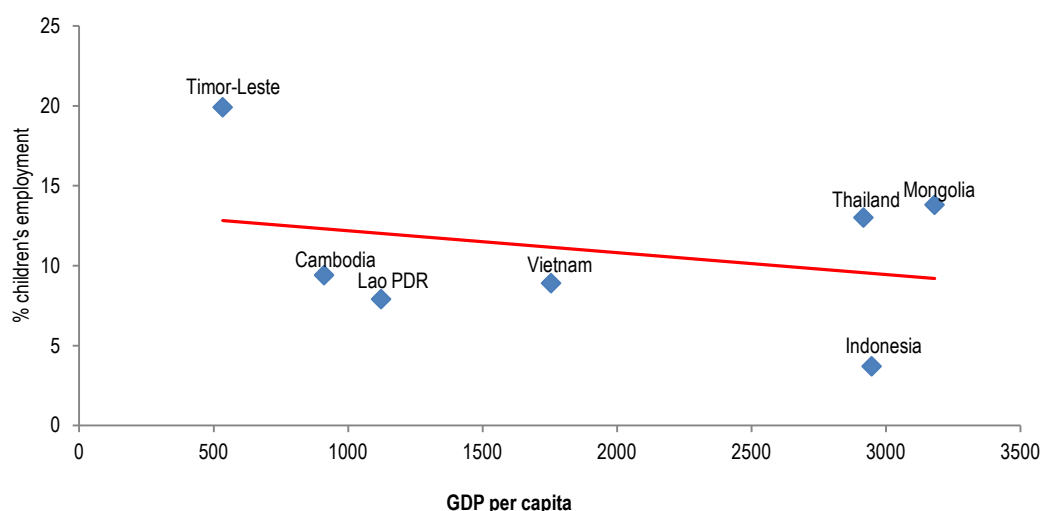
Source: UCW calculations based on CAMBODIA: Cambodia Child Labour (CCLS) 2001, Cambodia Labour Force and Child Labour Survey (LFS-NCLS) 2011-2012; MONGOLIA: National Child Labour Survey (NCLS) 2002/2003, Labour Force Survey with Child Activities Module (LFS-NCLS) 2011; INDONESIA: National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas) 2000, 2010; TIMOR-LESTE: Timor-Leste Living Standards Survey (TLSS) 2001, Timor-Leste Survey of Living Standards (TLSS) 2007; VIET NAM: Household Living Standards Survey (HLSS) 2004, National Child Labour Survey(NCLS) 2012,

18. School attendance for 7-14 year olds rose consistently during the decade in all the SEEAR countries with the exception of Timor-Leste where it decreased by 4 percentage points and Indonesia where it diminished by 0.5 percentage points (Figure 5). Section 7 will look in details at the interaction between children's employment and school attendance.

4. FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH CHILDREN'S EMPLOYMENT

19. **Children from poorer countries are more to be found in employment.** But it is interesting to note that while there is a negative correlation between children's involvement in employment and national income, this correlation appears weak and imprecise at best. As illustrated in Figure 6, levels of children's employment are low relative to national income in some countries while in others the opposite is true. The existence of countries doing better with fewer resources suggests significant scope for policy intervention against child labour. Policies promoting quality education as an alternative to child labour can be particularly important in this context.

Figure 6. Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group,^(a) and GDP per capita^(b), by country^(c)



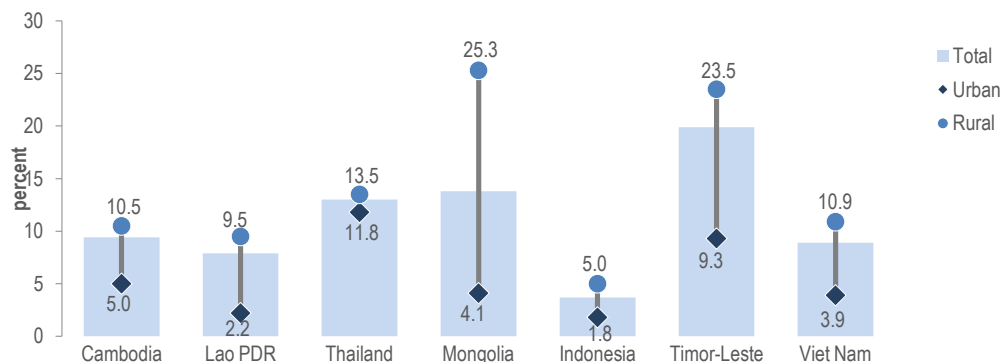
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range; (b) Reference years for GDP per capita estimates correspond to reference years for the child labour surveys indicated in Table 1; and (c) Cross-country comparisons of children's employment should be interpreted with caution, as estimates are based on different reference years and are derived from different survey instruments.
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

20. Children's employment in the SEEAR is much more common in rural areas.

The rural-urban gap extends to all 7 SEEAR countries, but again the dimension of the gap varies largely by country. The relative rural-urban gap is highest in Mongolia, where the share of rural 5-14 year-olds in employment is more than six times that of urban children in the same age group (25 percent against 4 percent). In Lao PDR rural 5-14 year olds are almost five times more likely to be in employment than their urban counterparts. In the remaining countries, the share of rural 5-14 year-olds in employment is at least twice that of urban children in the same age group, with the exception of Thailand where the percentage of rural children in employment exceeds that of urban children by only two percentage points (14 percent against 12 percent) (Figure 7).

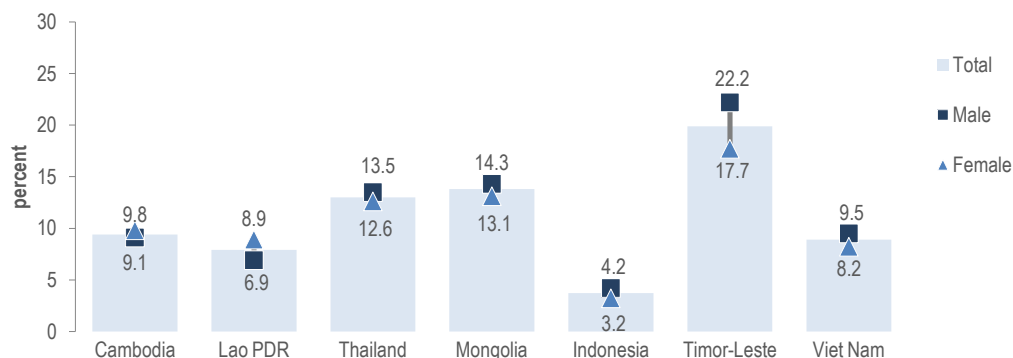
21. Why are rural children more prone to involvement in employment?

Differences in the rural and urban economies, and in particular the key role of the informal family-based production in rural areas, is undoubtedly one important factor. Higher levels of poverty, poorer basic services coverage, and less access to schooling, particularly at the post-primary level, in rural areas also likely play an important role influencing relatively more rural households to send their children to work. As discussed further in the next section, the nature of the work children perform also differs considerably between urban and rural areas.

Figure 7. Children's involvement in employment is generally much higher in rural areasPercentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by residence and country

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

22. Gender factors do not appear relevant in determining the extent of children's involvement in employment. At the country level, the share of boys in employment exceeds that of girls in Thailand, Mongolia, Indonesia and Viet Nam by around only one percentage point while in Timor-Leste by approximately 5 percentage points. In Cambodia and Lao PDR the opposite holds true, the gender gap in employment “favours” girls, although differences are small, less than one percentage point in Cambodia and two percentage points in Lao PDR (Figure 8). It is worth recalling, however, that these figures do not capture household chores, the burden for which falls disproportionately on females in most contexts. It is also worth underscoring that girls are often disproportionately represented in less visible and therefore underreported forms of child labour such as domestic service in third party households. Employment estimates alone, therefore, may understate girls' involvement in child labour relative to that of boys.

Figure 8. Gender factors do not appear relevant in determining the extent of children's involvement in employment in the SEEARPercentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by sex and country

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

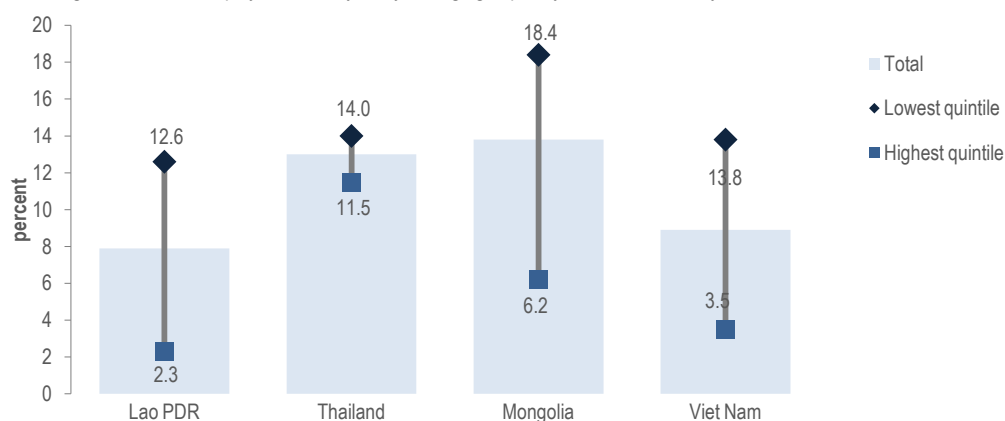
23. Involvement in employment is higher among children from poorest households. As shown in Figure 9, the correlation between poverty and

children's employment is positive and strong in the majority of the countries included in the analysis. For example, SEEARin Mongolia, 18 percent of children from poorest households are in employment compared to 6 percent of their peers from the richest ones; in Lao PDR 13 percent of the poorest children are in employment against two percent of the richest. These results are consistent with a wide body of international evidence indicating that poverty (approximated by income, consumption, wealth index, etc.) is an important factor in child labour. Poverty makes it more likely that households have to rely on their children's income or production to help make ends meet, particularly when they are faced with an unforeseen shock. Former child labourers are themselves more likely to be poor and reliant on child labour as adults, thereby continuing the vicious cycle of poverty and child labour.

24. It is worth noting, however, that children's employment is not limited to poorest households in Thailand, Timor-Leste and Mongolia. Indeed, as also shown in Figure 9, the share of children in employment even in the richest households is not negligible in these countries. This suggests that while poverty reduction is an important part of the answer to child labour, it is not, in and of itself, a complete answer.

Figure 9. Children from poor households are much more likely to be involved in employment

Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by income and country



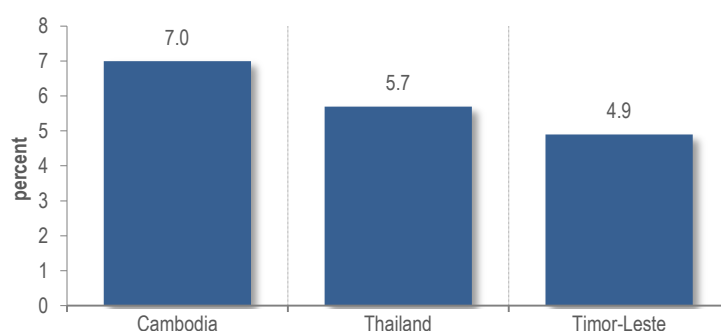
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

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

25. **Orphanhood appears to increase vulnerability to child labour in the SEEAR countries.** Orphanhood is common in the SEEAR and the effect of orphanhood on children's involvement in employment is therefore of considerably policy interest. Figure 10 indicates that a higher share of orphans compared to non-orphans are in employment in all countries where data are available. These simple correlations do not of course offer insight into why this is the case, i.e., whether it is orphanhood *per se* that increases children's risk of work or whether it is factors associated with orphanhood, such as household poverty, driving the correlation.

Figure 10. Orphan children appear more at risk of involvement in employment in most countries

Percentage point difference in involvement in employment between orphan and non-orphan children, 5-14 years age group^(a), by country



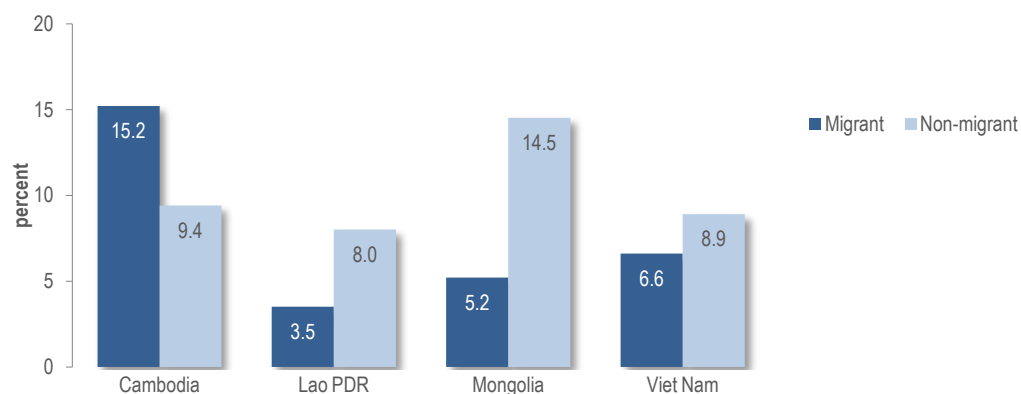
Notes: (a) Estimates for Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

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

26. Migration does not appear to consistently increase children's risk of employment. Indeed, if anything, the opposite pattern appears to hold. In three of the four countries where data are available, there is a smaller share of migrant compared to non-migrant children in employment (where migrant children are defined as those who have changed location during the last five years). Cambodia is the only one of the four countries where migrants are at greater risk of employment.

Figure 11. There is not clear pattern in terms of migrant status and involvement in employment

Percentage of children in employment, 5-14 years age group, by migrant status and country



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

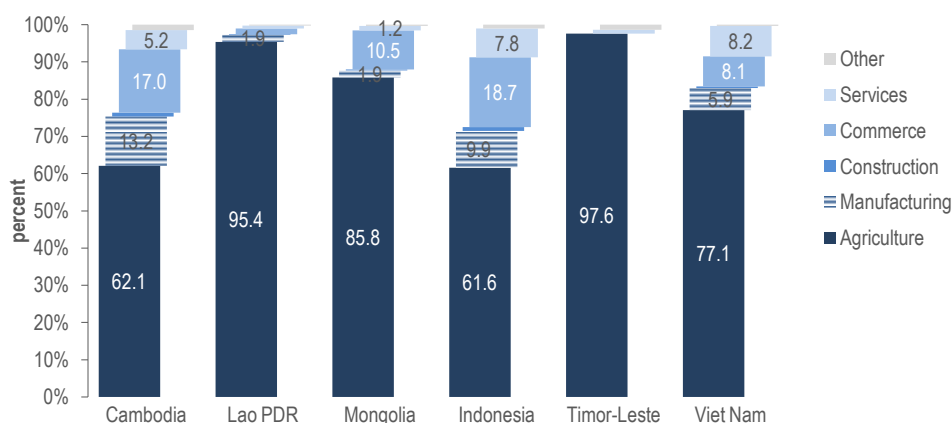
5. NATURE OF CHILDREN'S EMPLOYMENT

27. Information on the various characteristics of children's employment is necessary for understanding children's workplace reality and their role in the labour force. This section presents data on broad work characteristics that are useful in this context. For children's employment, the breakdown by industry is reported in order to provide a standardised picture of where children are concentrated in the measured economy. A breakdown by children's status in employment is also reported to provide additional insight into how children's work in employment is carried out. Average working hours, exposure to dangerous conditions and incidence of work-related disease and injury are reported to provide indirect and direct indications of the possible health and educational consequences of children's work. A review of the worst forms of child labour in the region, constituted by hazardous work and the unconditional worst forms of child labour is presented at the end of the section.

28. **The agriculture sector accounts for by far the largest share of children's employment.** The agriculture sector accounts for at least three of every five children in employment in all the SEEAR countries considered (Figure 13). In Cambodia and Indonesia agriculture absorbs 62 percent of child workers aged 5 to 14 years, in Viet Nam and Mongolia it accounts respectively for 77 percent and 86 percent of children in employment while in Lao PDR and Timor-Leste it accounts for more than 95 percent of child workers. The predominance of agriculture is a particular concern in light of the fact that this sector is one of the three most dangerous in which to work at any age, along with construction and mining, in terms of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases.⁷ Children working in agriculture can face a variety of serious hazards, including operation of dangerous equipment, pesticide exposure, excessive physical exertion and heavy loads. In most of the countries analysed there is also a large share of child workers employed in other sectors other than agriculture. In Cambodia, 13 percent of child workers are found in the manufacturing sector, while in Indonesia the share stands at 10 percent. Many child workers are also involved in commerce; 17 percent in Cambodia, 11 percent Mongolia, 19 percent in Indonesia and 8 percent in Viet Nam.

Figure 12. **Children's employment is mainly concentrated in the agriculture sector although a large share of child workers are also employed in other sectors**

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



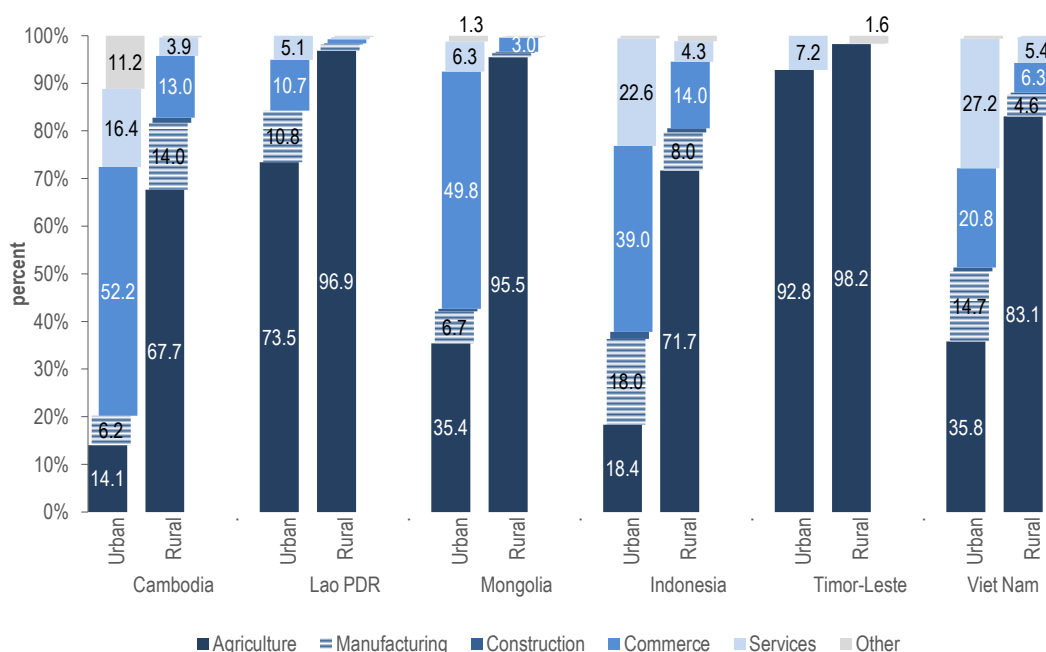
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

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

⁷ ILO, *Child labour in agriculture* (<http://www.ilo.org/ipec/areas/Agriculture/lang-en/index.htm>).

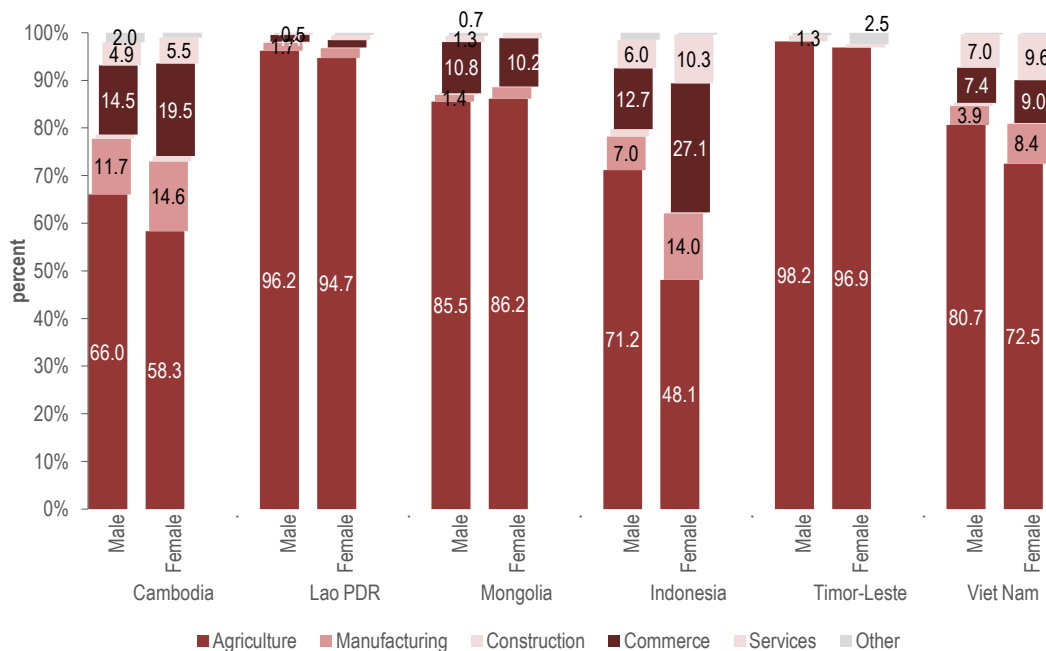
29. The sectoral composition of children's employment differs considerably between rural and urban areas. This is a reflection of the important underlying differences in the rural and urban economies (Figure 14). Agriculture work not surprisingly predominates in rural areas, while the composition of children's employment in urban areas tends to be more varied, with the services, manufacturing, commerce and agriculture sectors all playing important roles. It is worth noting, however, that in Timor Leste and Lao children's employment in agriculture is also widespread in urban area. Employment in the services sector includes domestic service in third-party households, a form of work that is hidden from public view and can leave children especially vulnerable to exploitation and abuse.

Figure 13. Sectoral composition of children's employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group^(a), by residence and country



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

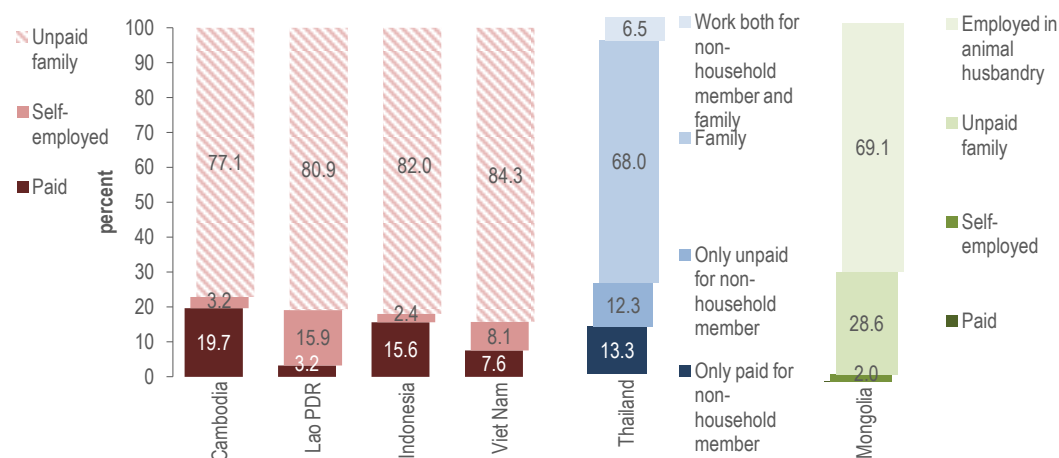
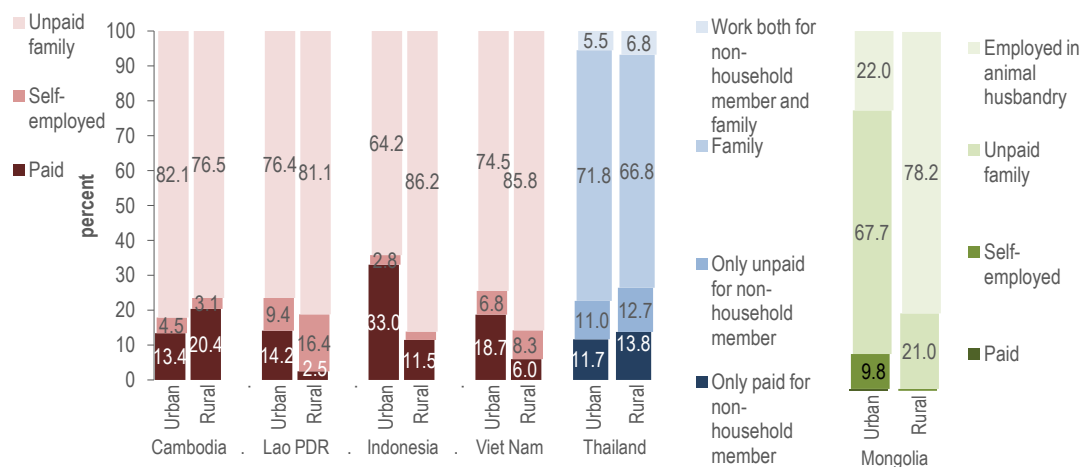
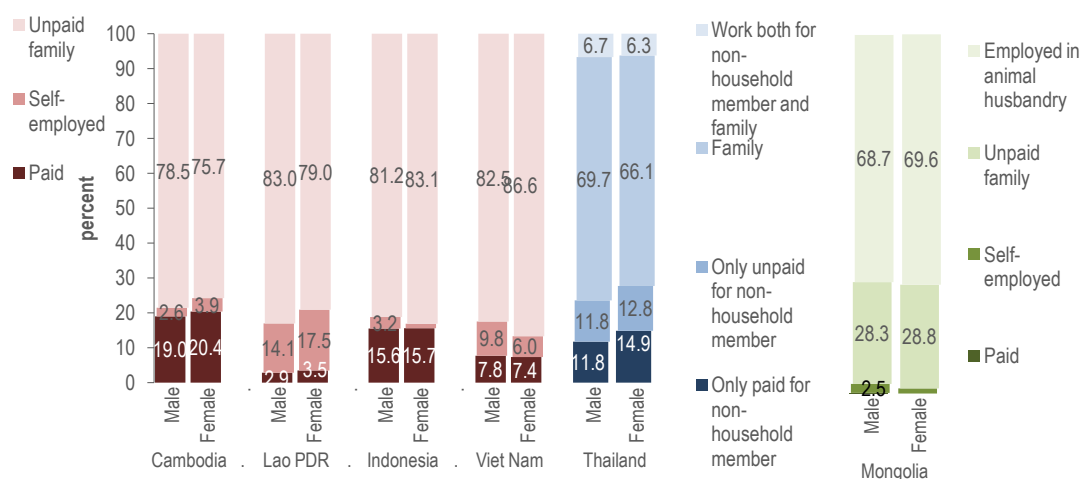
30. The sectoral composition of children's employment does not differ considerably by gender: Exceptions are Viet Nam, and especially Indonesia, where girls in employment are more likely to be engaged in manufacturing, commerce and services and less likely to be found in agriculture than boys.

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

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

31. Children's employment is heavily concentrated within the family unit in most of the SEEAR countries. The share of children in employment who work for their own families ranges from 75 percent in Thailand to 84 percent in Viet Nam (Figure 15a). Paid employment and self-employment are also important in the SEEAR countries. In Cambodia, Indonesia and Thailand, for example, respectively 20 percent, 16 percent and 13 percent of children in employment are paid workers, while in Lao PDR 16 percent of child workers are self-employed. Mongolia's sectoral composition of employment shows a particular feature as 69 percent of children in employment are engaged in animal husbandry. Children's status in employment also varies somewhat between urban and rural places of residence, with paid employment playing a relatively larger role in urban contexts in Lao PDR, Indonesia, Mongolia and Viet Nam, while in Thailand and Cambodia it appears more common in rural areas (Figure 15b). Children's status in employment varies little by gender (Figure 15c).

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

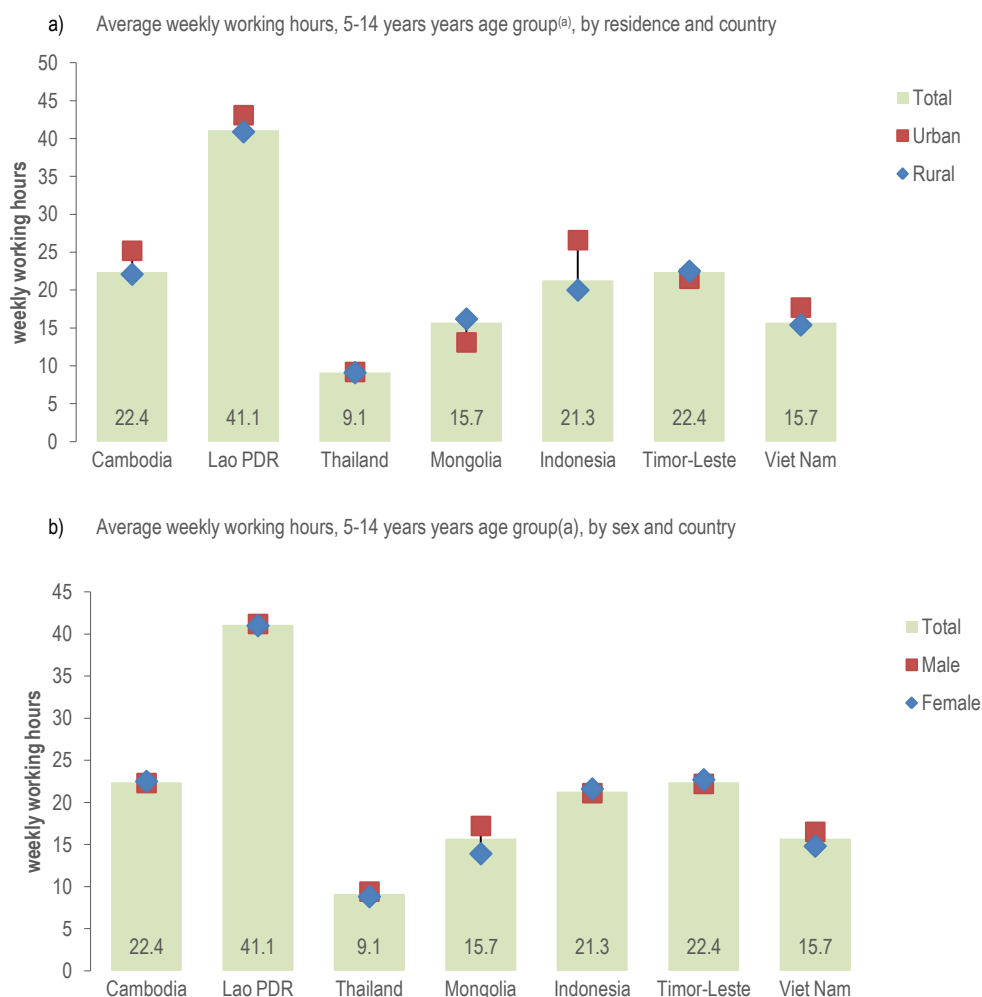
(a) Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group^(a), by country(b) Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group^(a), by residence and country(c) Children's status in employment (% distribution), 5-14 years age group^(a), by sex and country

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

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

32. Many children in employment work long hours with obvious consequences for time for study and leisure. Children's total working hours vary considerably across the SEEAR countries. Average weekly working hours range from 41 hours in Lao PDR to nine hours in Thailand (Figure 16). Differences by place of residence and by gender in hours logged at work are small in all the countries considered (Figure 16a and Figure 16b). In interpreting these figures on working hours, it is worth noting that many children in employment, and especially girls in employment, also spend a non-negligible amount of time each week performing household chores in their own homes, adding significantly to the overall time burden posed by work. It is also important to note that working hours can be affected by seasonality. Children in agriculture, for instance, may work for very different amounts of time each week in different agricultural seasons. Estimates of working hours, it follows, can be influenced by when during the year a survey is fielded.

Figure 16. Children in employment put in long hours



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

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

6. IN-DEPTH LOOK AT CHILDREN'S EMPLOYMENT SECTORAL COMPOSITION

33. As illustrated in Section 5, although most working children in the SEEAR are found in the agriculture sector, many are also engaged in the manufacturing sector and in commerce. It is therefore worth looking in more detail at the nature and characteristics of children's work in these sectors, starting from the agriculture sector which is prevalent among child workers.

6.1 Children's employment in agriculture

Most children in agriculture work within their own families. Figures for the five SEEAR countries for which detailed data on industry are available make clear that children's agricultural work takes place overwhelmingly on the family farm (Table 5 **Error! Reference source not found.**). Almost nine in ten child agricultural workers are found on family farms in Indonesia and Viet Nam. In Lao PDR, 82 percent of all children in agriculture work for their families while in Cambodia the figure stands 74 percent. In Mongolia 81 percent of all children in agriculture work in animal husbandry and 19 percent in other types of agriculture work on family farms. In Lao PDR and Viet Nam the other significant work modality in the agriculture sector is self-employment, which accounts for 16 percent and 8 percent, respectively, of child agricultural workers. In Cambodia and Indonesia instead respectively 23 percent and 9 percent of children in agriculture work for wages.

Table 5. Children's status in agricultural employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by country

	Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	73.8	23.1	3.1	-	100
Lao PDR	82.3	1.5	16.2	-	100
Indonesia	89.3	8.5	2.2	-	100
Viet Nam	87.5	4.2	8.3	-	
	Employed in animal husbandry	Non-wage family	Self	Other	
Mongolia	80.6	18.8	0.5	0.1	100

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

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

34. **Most children in agriculture work in crop and animal production.** Children are heavily concentrated in crop production in Lao PDR (96 percent), while in Cambodia and Viet Nam crop production absorbs more than 65 percent of agriculture workers. In Viet Nam both crop and animal production are important (Table 6). Viet Nam is the only country where an appreciable share of child agricultural workers is found in logging (seven percent). The share of children in agriculture work engaged in fishing is of 5 percent in Indonesia and 4 percent in Viet Nam. Children are involved in the production of a variety of specific crops. Cereals appear most important in this regard, with rice production involving a large share of child agriculture workers, especially in Lao PDR (82 percent). Vegetable production is also relevant in all the countries (Table 7, Table 8, Table 9 and Table 10).

Table 6. Children's occupation category in agricultural employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by country

	Crop production	Animal production	Mixed crop and animal production	Forestry/logging	Fishing	Total
Cambodia	65.3	28.6	-	3.0	2.6	100
Lao PDR	96.1	2.5	-	-	-	100
Mongolia	4.0	96.0	-	-	-	-
Indonesia	69.0	24.3	1.2	0.9	4.6	100
Viet Nam	38.8	49.0	1.3	6.8	3.8	100

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

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

Table 7. Distribution of children in crop production by crop type, 5-14 years age group, Cambodia

	Cereals (except rice), legumes	Rice	Vegetables, melons, roots	Tobacco	Tropical and subtropical fruits	Other tree and bush fruits	Spices, aromatic, drug	Support activities for crop production	Post-harvest crop activities	Other	Total
Cambodia	8.4	15.3	19.1	3.4	2.5	19.3	1.8	23.6	4.9	1.7	100

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

Table 8. Distribution of children in crop production by crop type, 5-14 years age group, Lao PDR

	Rice	Beverage crops	Support activities for crop production	Other	Total
Lao PDR	82.4	2.8	9.9	5.0	100

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

Table 9. Distribution of children in crop production by crop type, 10-14 years age group, Indonesia

	Cereals and other crops	Vegetables, horticultural specialties and nursery products	Fruit, nuts, beverage and spice crops	Other	Total
Indonesia	70.5	6.1	14.6	8.8	100

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

Table 10. Distribution of children in crop production by crop type, 5-14 years age group, Viet Nam

	Cereals (except rice), leguminous crops and oil seeds	Rice	Vegetables and melons, roots and tubers	Sugar cane	Other non-perennial crops	Grapes	Citrus fruits	Oleaginous fruits	Other	Total
Viet Nam	40.8	13.0	8.6	4.3	9.2	5.3	6.2	5.2	7.5	100

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

35. Children in Cambodia are more likely to work on farms with relatively small-sized workforces. In Cambodia (the country where these data are available) most children are located on farms with from two to 9 workers (Table 11).

Table 11. Distribution of children in agricultural employment by farm workforce size and age group, Cambodia

	One worker	2-4	5-9	10-19	20-49	50 or more	Total
5-14 years	6.0	63.5	22.3	6.2	1.7	0.4	100
15-17 years	6.0	50.0	25.0	12.0	4.3	2.7	100
18+ years	13.3	57.1	17.0	8.0	3.4	1.2	100

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

The relative importance of child labour in agriculture

36. Not answered thus far is the question of the *relative* importance of children's labour agriculture. In other words, what is the "child labour content" of agriculture in the SEEAR countries? These questions are taken up below by looking at the share of the total agricultural workforce (**Error! Reference source not found.**) and of total working hours (**Error! Reference source not found.**) in agriculture accounted for by child workers. Children account for 13 percent of the overall agricultural workforce in Mongolia, for around 7 percent of the workforce in Cambodia, for more than 4 percent of the workforce in Lao PDR and for one percent of the workforce in Indonesia (**Error! Reference source not found.**). The role of children is less important when measured in terms of total working hours. Children's working hours account for 5 percent of total working hours in Mongolia, for 4 percent of total working hours in Cambodia and Lao PDR and for less than one percent of total working hours in Indonesia (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

Table 12. Children as percentage of total workforce, 5-14 years age group^(a), by agricultural subsector and country

	Agriculture sector	Livestock production subsector	Crop production subsector	Forestry/ logging subsector	Fishing subsector
Cambodia	6.7	15.1	5.8	4.0	2.8
Lao PDR	4.4	5.6	4.4	-	-
Mongolia	12.6	13.0	9.6	-	-
Indonesia	1.2	2.9	1.0	0.8	1.2

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

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

Table 13. Children's working hours as percentage of total working hours, 5-14 years age group^(a), by agricultural subsector and country

	Agriculture sector	Livestock production subsector	Crop production subsector	Forestry/ logging subsector	Fishing subsector
Cambodia	3.8	10.4	3.4	2.3	2.0
Lao PDR	3.8	5.0	3.8	-	-
Mongolia	5.0	5.2	4.5	-	-
Indonesia	0.7	1.7	0.6	0.4	0.8

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

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

37. Children appear to play an important role in livestock production. Error! Reference source not found. and Error! Reference source not found. also report children as percentage of the workforce and of total working hours in specific agriculture subsectors. Children account for 15 percent of all workers in livestock production in Cambodia, 13 percent in Mongolia, six percent in Lao PDR and three percent in Indonesia.

38. The following paragraphs will look in more detail at the nature and characteristics of children's work in the manufacturing sector in those SEEAR countries where this sector absorbs a consistent share of child workers; Cambodia, Indonesia and Viet Nam.

6.2 Children's employment in manufacturing

39. **Most children in manufacturing work within their own families.** Figures for the three SEEAR countries show that children's manufacturing work takes the form mainly of contribution to family businesses (Table 14). Almost eight in ten child manufacturing workers contribute to family businesses in Cambodia, while in Indonesia and Viet Nam six in ten children produce manufactures for the family businesses. The other significant work modality in the manufacturing sector is work for wages, which accounts for 22 percent of manufacturing workers in Cambodia, 39 percent in Indonesia and 35 percent in Viet Nam.

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

	Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	78.3	21.6	0.2	-	100
Indonesia	59.0	38.7	2.3	-	100
Viet Nam	60.9	34.5	4.7	-	100

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

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

40. Children are involved in the production of a variety of goods. The production and processing of food products appear very important in this regard, absorbing 39 percent of child manufacturing workers in Cambodia, 37 percent in Indonesia and 32 percent in Viet Nam. Garment production is also relevant in all countries, absorbing 26 percent of child manufacturing workers in Cambodia, 12 percent in Indonesia and 18 percent in Viet Nam. Wood products also account for a large share of children in manufacturing work; 13 percent in Cambodia, 25 percent in Indonesia and 14 percent in Viet Nam (Table 15, Table 16 and Table 17). It emerges that children in the SEEAR are commonly engaged in the production of food products, garments and wood products within the family for sale or barter or for the household own consumption.

Table 15. Distribution of children in the manufacturing sector by manufacture type, 5-14 years age group, Cambodia

	Starches and starch products	Bakery products	Sugar	Tobacco products	Garments	Wood products	Other	Total
Cambodia	5.3	10.5	22.9	5.0	26.0	12.9	17.4	100

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

Table 16. Distribution of children in the manufacturing sector by manufacture type, 10-14 years age group, Indonesia

	Manufacture of food products	Garments	Manufacture of products of wood, cork, straw and plaiting materials	Manufacture of glass and glass products	Other	Total
Indonesia	36.7	12.3	24.9	5.8	20.2	100

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

Table 17. Distribution of children in the manufacturing sector by manufacture type, 5-14 years age group, Viet Nam

	Manufacture of food products.	Garments	Manufacture of products of wood; manufacture of articles of cork, straw and plaiting materials	Other	Total
Viet Nam	32.3	17.5	13.9	36.4	100

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

6.3 Children's employment in the commerce sector

41. The following paragraphs will look in more detail at the nature and characteristics of children's work in the commerce sector in those SEEAR countries where this sector accounts for a consistent share of child workers; Cambodia, Mongolia, Indonesia and Viet Nam.

42. The large majority of children in commerce work within their family business. Again, figures for the four SEEAR countries show that the vast majority of children's commerce work takes place within the family business and is unpaid (Table 18). Nine in ten children in commerce are working in the family business in Cambodia, Mongolia and Indonesia, while in Viet Nam eight in ten. In Indonesia and Viet Nam the other significant work modality in the commerce sector is work for wages, which accounts respectively for 10 percent and 11 percent of commerce workers. In Mongolia 10 percent of child commerce workers are self-employed.

Table 18. Children's status in employment in the commerce sector, 5-14 years age group^(a), by country

	Non-wage family	Wage	Self	Other	Total
Cambodia	93.3	3.8	3.0	-	100
Mongolia	90.1	0.0	9.9	-	100
Indonesia	89.2	9.5	1.3	-	100
Viet Nam	82.6	11.2	6.2	-	100

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

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

43. Most children in commerce are engaged in the retail sale in specialized and non-specialized stores of food, beverages and tobacco products; 46 percent in Mongolia, 21 percent in Indonesia and 49 percent in Viet Nam. (Table 19, Table 20 and Table 21).

Table 19. Distribution of children in commerce by commerce type, 5-14 years age group, Mongolia

	Sale, maintenance and repair of motor vehicles	Sale in non-specialized stores with food, beverages or tobacco predominating	Other retail sale in non-specialized stores	Retail sale of food in specialized stores	Retail sale of clothing, footwear and leather articles in specialized stores	Retail sale of second-hand goods	Other retail sale not in stores, stalls or markets	Other	Total
Mongolia	13.3	10.2	4.3	36.1	10.9	3.0	3.6	18.5	100

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

Table 20. Distribution of children in commerce by commerce type, 10-14 years age group, Indonesia

	Non-specialized retail trade in stores	Retail sale of food, beverages and tobacco in specialized stores	Other retail trade of new goods in specialized stores	Retail trade not in stores	Other	Total
Indonesia	63.3	20.5	8.5	3.1	4.7	100

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

Table 21. Distribution of children in commerce by commerce type, 5-14 years age group, Viet Nam

	Sale, maintenance and repair of motorcycles and related parts and accessories	Wholesale of food, beverages and tobacco	Wholesale of waste and scrap and other products n.e.c.	Retail sale in non-specialized stores with food, beverages or tobacco predominating	Retail sale of beverages in specialized stores	Retail sale of books, newspapers and stationary in specialized stores	Other retail sale of new goods in specialized stores	Retail sale via stalls and markets of food, beverages and tobacco products, textiles, clothing and footwear	Other	Total
Viet Nam	5.2	6.0	10.0	13.0	25.9	5.6	3.9	16.3	14.1	100

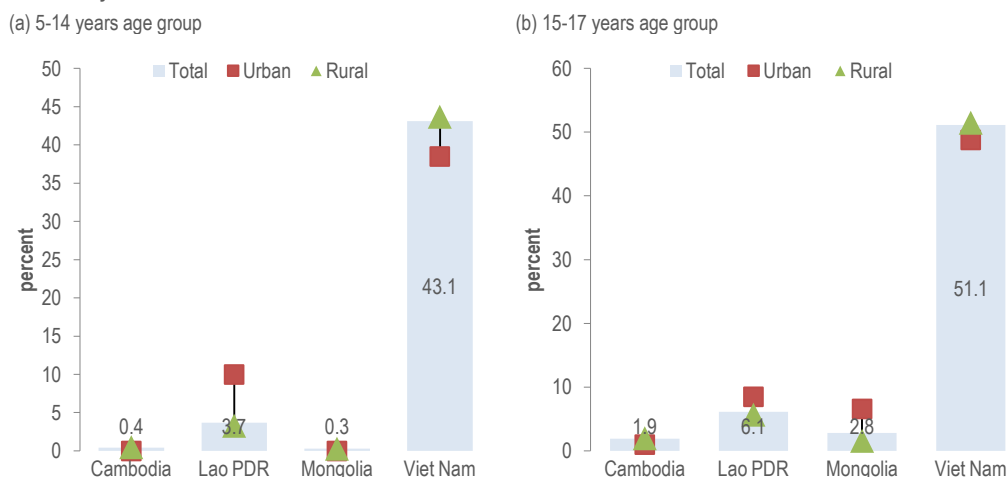
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

6.4 Children's exposure to hazards

44. **Children's employment may expose them to hazards.** Information from the ILO SIMPOC surveys, conducted in Cambodia, Laos, Mongolia and Vietnam, permit a more detailed look at the actual conditions faced by children in the workplace. These surveys suggest that children have a low exposure to dangerous conditions in the workplace in three out of four SEEAR countries (Cambodia, Lao PDR and Mongolia). In Viet Nam instead child workers are alarmingly exposed to dangerous conditions in the workplace, both younger and older children alike, with 43 percent of employed 5-14 year olds and 51 percent of employed 15-17 year olds exposed to dangerous conditions in the workplace⁸. The employment of 5-14 year-olds appears safer than that of older children. Indeed, the proportion of 15-17 year-old working children exposed to the same set of dangerous conditions is larger than that of their younger counterparts in the four countries (Figure 17).

⁸ including heavy loads; work with gas, fire, flames, chemicals, explosives or toxic substances; work in environment with excessive noise or vibration; work in a dusty or smoky environments; underground work or work at heights; work in dark or confined spaces; work in insufficiently ventilated spaces; and work during the night

Figure 17. Percentage of children in employment exposed to one or dangerous conditions,(a) by residence, age group and country



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

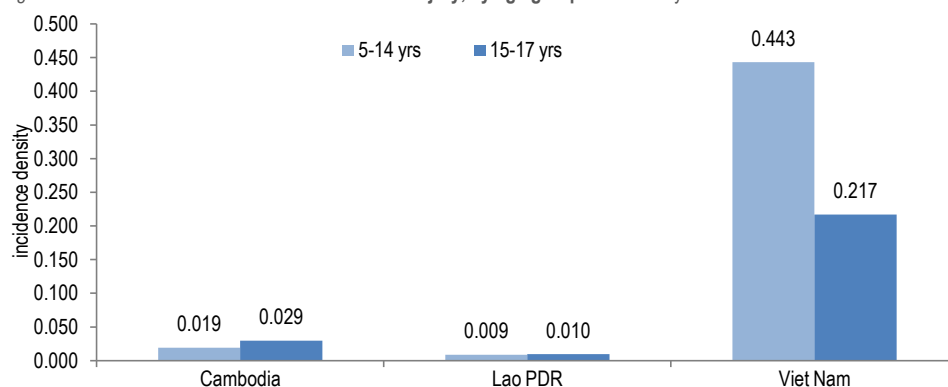
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

45. Estimates regarding work-related ill-health and injury show that among the three countries for which data are available, the problem emerges clearly only in Viet Nam, where incidence densities suggest that working children aged 5 to 17 years face about a 28 percent chance of suffering ill-health related to work over the course of a 12-month period. Younger children are at much greater risk of work-related illness and injury than their older counterparts, underscoring that young children in employment constitute a particular policy priority (Figure 18). The risk of ill-health among child workers appears to depend on the type of work they are involved in; in Viet Nam ill-health is highest in the agriculture sector (Appendix, Figure A2).

46. The relationship between child work and health is complex, and often difficult to disentangle empirically. The negative impact of child work on health, for example, may be obscured by the selection of the healthiest children for work. Health perceptions may also differ across population groups, and levels of reported illness among working children and non-working children may be affected by different perceptions of illness. Further, much of the relationship between child health and work is dynamic (i.e., current health is affected by past as much as present work, and current work affects future as much as present health), a fact not captured by measuring reported illness over a short period. This is an area where further methodological work is required.⁹

⁹ For a more complete discussion of measurement issues around child labour and health, see: O'Donnell O., Rosati F. and Van Doorslaer E. *Child labour and health: evidence and reSEEARch issues*. UCW Working Paper, Florence, January 2002.

Figure 18. Incidence of work-related disease and injury, by age group and country



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

47. The above figures for three SEEAR countries indicate the presence of hazardous conditions in employment only in Viet Nam. However the countries are too few to extend this conclusion to the SEEAR region as a whole and often information on hazardous conditions may be faulty because of few children replying to questions on the subject. There is a growing body of literature highlighting that children in the SEEAR are commonly engaged in hazardous work. As illustrated above the majority of children in employment are found in agriculture, one of the three most dangerous sectors in terms of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases.¹⁰

Children's involvement in hazardous activities

48. In **Mongolia**, children are very often engaged in hazardous activities in herding and animal husbandry. Animal husbandry exposes children to risks including bites and attacks by animals, extreme temperatures, being cut by sharp knives while slaughtering livestock, and nonpayment of wages. Herding exposes children to extreme cold and frostbite, exhaustion, wild animal attacks, assault or beatings when far from home and accidents such as falling off horses.¹¹ In Mongolia children are involved in horse racing, which is very popular in the country. They are at risk of injury or death from accidents or falls. In 2012, the Ministry of Health reported that more than 300 children injured during horse races were treated at the National Trauma Center; this statistic does not include children treated in other facilities.¹²

49. In the SEEAR children are engaged in hazardous work also in the fishing industry. In **Thailand** children are found in the shrimp and seafood processing industries where they are subject to long and late hours and engage in heavy

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

¹¹ UCW, *Understanding Children's Work and Youth Employment Outcomes in Mongolia*, 2009.

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

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

¹² United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Mongolia*.

lifting.¹³ In **Indonesia**, children work in the fishing industry, also for long periods of time on offshore fishing platforms known as *jermal*.¹⁴

50. In the SEEAR a very large number of children are engaged in **domestic service**. Child domestic labourers may face long working hours, strenuous tasks and are susceptible to physical and sexual abuse and confinement in the employer's home. In Indonesia, for example, according to a report of Human Rights Watch, hundreds of thousands of girls, some as young as 11, are employed as domestic workers for very long hours (14 to 18 daily hours, seven days a week) and are prevalently unpaid for their services.¹⁵

51. There is evidence that children in the SEEAR are engaged in mining and quarrying. In **Mongolia**, for example, children perform hazardous work in mining coal, gold, and fluorspar both on the surface and underground in artisanal mines. They transport heavy loads, handle mercury and explosives, work in extreme climate conditions, risk falling into open pits, and descend into tunnels that are up to 10 meters deep.¹⁶

52. In the SEEAR there are many other examples of hazardous work involving children. In **Cambodia** children work as brick makers. Working environment in brick factories is unhealthy and unclean (due to smoke, bad odours, dirty water) and unsafe (due to heat, ashes and pieces of broken bricks everywhere). The most common tasks undertaken by children consist in carrying, loading, and unloading bricks. Child brick makers often operate heavy machinery. Many of them work between 6 and 10 hours a day without going to school.¹⁷ Other children in Cambodia work in salt production, which requires them to carry heavy loads over sharp salt crystals, for long hours and in hot weather conditions.¹⁸ In Thailand many children work at entertainment venues, markets, restaurants and gas stations. In these workplaces, they may be working at night or for long hours and may be exposed to high levels of noise, dust, and smoke.¹⁹ Many children in Thailand work in garment production for long hours and operating dangerous machines.²⁰ In Thailand children are also paid to fight in a very popular dangerous form of boxing called Muay Thai, in which they do not wear protective equipment.²¹ In Mongolia children are engaged in scavenging in dumpsites, where they are exposed to extreme weather conditions, unhygienic

¹³ ILO-IPEC, *Combating the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Shrimp and Seafood Processing Areas in Thailand*, Project Document, Bangkok, 2010.

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

¹⁴ Chou, CT, *Child Workers 'Abandoned' at Sea*, aljazeera.com [online] April 19, 2007.

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

¹⁵ Human Rights Watch, *Workers in the Shadows: Abuse and Exploitation of Child Domestic Workers in Indonesia*, New York, February 11, 2009. <http://www.hrw.org/en/reports/2009/02/10/workers-shadows-0>.

¹⁶ UCW, *Understanding Children's Work and Youth Employment Outcomes in Mongolia*, 2009.

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

¹⁷ Bunnak, P, *Child Labour in Brick Factories Causes and Consequences*, Phnom Penh, LICADHO and World Vision Cambodia, 2007.

¹⁸ ILO, *From a Child's Eye: Working in the Hot, Sharp Salt Fields of Cambodia*, ILO News, Geneva, June 7, 2012.

¹⁹ Surapone Ptanawanit and Saksri Boribanbanpotkate, *Assessing the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Selected Provinces of Thailand: Chiang Rai, Tak, Udon Thani, Songkla, and Pattani*, February 22, 2007.

²⁰ ILO, *The Mekong challenge - working day and night - the plight of migrant child workers in Mae Sot, Thailand*, Bangkok, 2006.

²¹ Catsoulis J, *Portrait of the Sad Life of Child Boxers in Thailand*, New York Times, New York, November 13, 2012.

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

conditions and health problems caused by the inhalation of smoke from burning garbage.²²

6.5 Worst forms of child labour other than hazardous

53. Many children in the SEEAR are in the unconditional worst forms of child labour as victims of human trafficking and/or in commercial sexual exploitation, including pornography. The trafficking of children is a priority concern to many SEEAR governments. In the region trafficking is fuelled by the strong demand for adoptive infants, young brides, sex with children, images of child pornography and cheap labour. Historical intraregional migration is another key factor enabling human trafficking. The following are some of the child trafficking flows:

- Children trafficked from Cambodia to Thailand for begging or for the sale of small items;
- Girls trafficked from Viet Nam to Cambodia or from Myanmar to Thailand for sexual exploitation;
- Boys trafficked from Myanmar to Thailand to work in Thai factories and on fishing boats;
- Boys trafficked from Viet Nam to China for illegal adoption;
- Girls trafficked from rural areas of Cambodia to urban centres for sexual exploitation;
- Laotian girls trafficked to Thailand for domestic or factory work.²³

Panel 3. Street children in SEEAR countries

In many SEEAR countries the problem of **street children** is very pressing. Children in the street are at high risk of drug abuse, commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking and juvenile delinquency. Although data on the subject is limited, in **Cambodia** it has been estimated that there are about 24,700 children living on the streets in Phnom Penh, Pailin, Siem Reap, Banteay Meanchey and Sihanoukville. Large numbers of children have also been seen living on the streets in Battambang Town and other towns, specifically Poipet, along the border with Thailand. In Cambodia, children on the street often engage in hazardous work as beggars and scavengers.²⁴ In **Viet Nam** the MOLISA (Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs) estimated that the number of children living and working in the street in the whole of Viet Nam was of about 13,000 children in 2007²⁵. According to the Ministry of Social Affairs, in 2008 there were an estimated 230,000 street children in Indonesia.²⁶

²² ILO, National Human Rights Commission of Mongolia, *The Worst Forms of Child Labour in Mongolia- Study Report*, Ulaanbaatar, 2008.

²³ Unicef East Asia And Pacific Regional Office, *Child Trafficking In East And South-East Asia: Reversing The Trend*, Bangkok, 2009.

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

²⁴ MoSVY, *Orphans, Children Affected by HIV and Other Vulnerable Children in Cambodia, A Situation and Response Assessment*, 2007

²⁵ MOLISA, *Report on the situation of children in special circumstances to the Committee for Culture, Education, Youth and Children of the National Assembly*, 2008

²⁶ Ministry of Social Affairs of the Government of Indonesia, 2008.

In **Cambodia**, the Svay Pak brothel area outside Phnom Penh, where young children are exploited in the sex trade, continues to operate.²⁷ In **Thailand** commercial sexual exploitation of children, including child sex tourism, is a major problem.²⁸ In Mongolia girls are trafficked internally and subjected to forced prostitution, also in bars, hotels, saunas, massage parlors and karaoke clubs.²⁹ In **Indonesia** boys and girls are engaged in commercial sexual exploitation. According to a 2010 report of Save the Children the nature of commercial sexual exploitation in some areas in Indonesia has changed from children living in brothels to children living with their families and working out of hotels and other locations through arrangements facilitated by social media.³⁰ In Indonesia children are also trafficked internally for commercial sexual exploitation at mining operations in Maluku, Papua, and Jambi provinces and in the urban areas of Batam District, Riau Island, and West Papua province and are trafficked for sex tourism in Bali. In **LAO PDR** boys are also victims of forced labour in Thailand, especially in the fishing and construction industries.³¹ In Viet Nam children from rural areas are subjected to commercial sexual exploitation. Children also are subjected to forced street hawking, forced begging, or forced labour in restaurants in major urban centers of **Viet Nam**. According to a 2012 UNICEF-funded survey on the commercial sexual exploitation of children, Viet Nam is a destination for child sex tourism with perpetrators coming from Japan, South Korea, China, Taiwan, the UK, Australia, Europe, and the United States.³² Timor-Leste is a destination country for girls from Indonesia, China, and the Philippines subjected to sex trafficking. **Timor-Leste** may also be a source of girls sent to Singapore and elsewhere in Southeast Asia for domestic service.³³

²⁷ U.S. Department of State, *Cambodia*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

²⁸ U.S. Department of State, *Thailand*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*. Washington, DC.
United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Thailand*.

²⁹ United States Department of Labour (US DOL), *2012 Findings on the Worst Forms of Child Labour - Mongolia*.

³⁰ Odi Shalahudin and Hening Budiati, *In-Depth Study on CSEC: Executive Summary*. Bandung, Surabaya, Lampung, and Pontianak, Save the Children, 2010.

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

³¹ U.S. Department of State, *Laos*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

³² U.S. Department of State, *Viet Nam*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

³³ U.S. Department of State, *Timor-Leste*, in *Country Reports on Human Rights Practices- 2013*, Washington, DC.

7. CHILDREN'S EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATIONAL MARGINALISATION

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

55. One way of viewing the interaction between children's employment and schooling is by decomposing the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups – children in employment only, children attending school only, children combining school and employment and children doing neither. This decomposition, reported in Table 22 and Figure 19, varies considerably across the SEEAR countries. Timor-Leste stands out as having non negligible shares of children in employment only, standing at 7 percent. In the other countries the large majority of child workers are combining employment with school. Inactivity rates are low in all the countries considered; only in Timor-Leste one out of every ten children is inactive. Inactive children are likely performing household chores in their own homes, a form of work falling outside the formal definition of employment. Others may be in worst forms of child labour beyond the scope of standard household surveys.

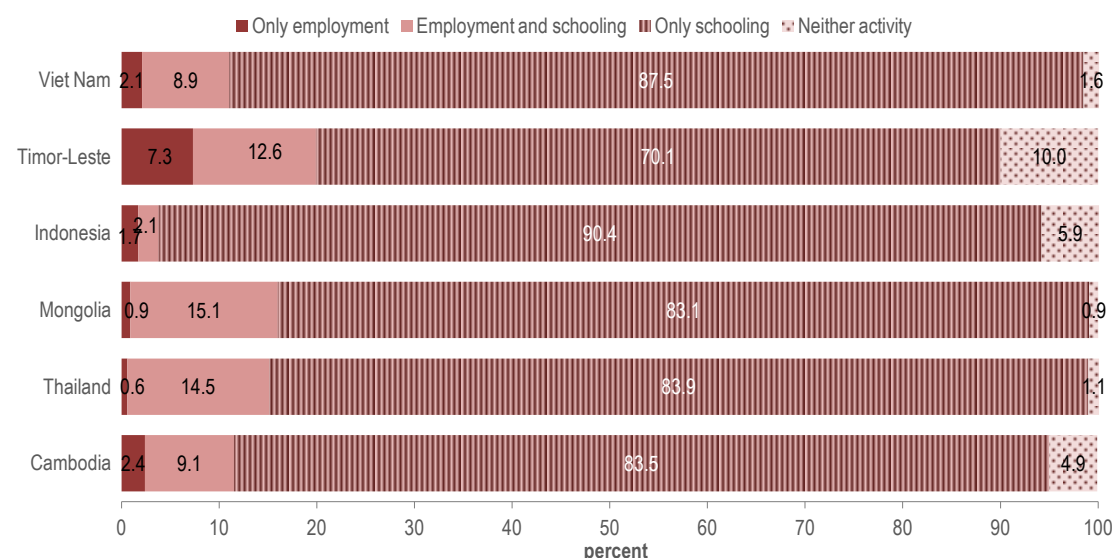
Table 22. Children's involvement in employment and schooling, 7-14 years age group^(a), by country

Country	Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
	(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Cambodia	2.4	83.5	9.1	4.9	11.5	92.6	7.4
Thailand	0.6	83.9	14.5	1.1	15.1	98.3	1.7
Mongolia	0.9	83.1	15.1	0.9	16.0	98.2	1.8
Indonesia	1.7	90.4	2.1	5.9	3.7	92.4	7.6
Timor-Leste	7.3	70.1	12.6	10.0	19.9	82.7	17.3
Viet Nam	2.1	87.5	8.9	1.6	10.9	96.3	3.7

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

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

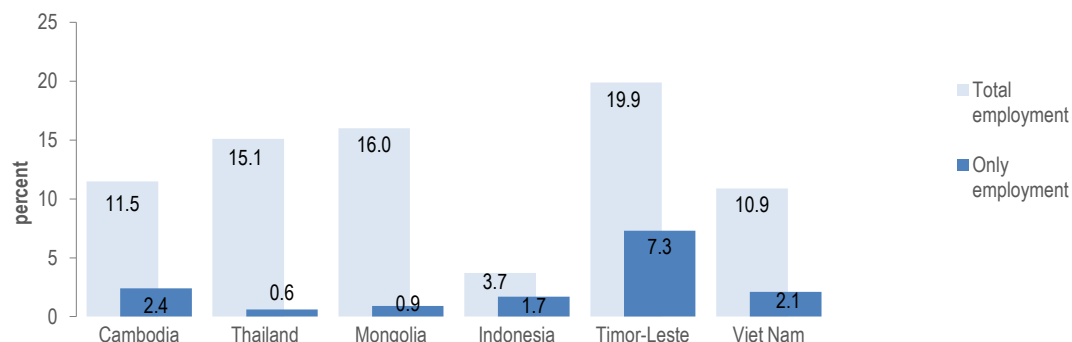
Figure 19. Working children are divided between those that work only and those that combine school and work

Children's activity status (% distribution), 7-14 years age range^(a), by country

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

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 1).

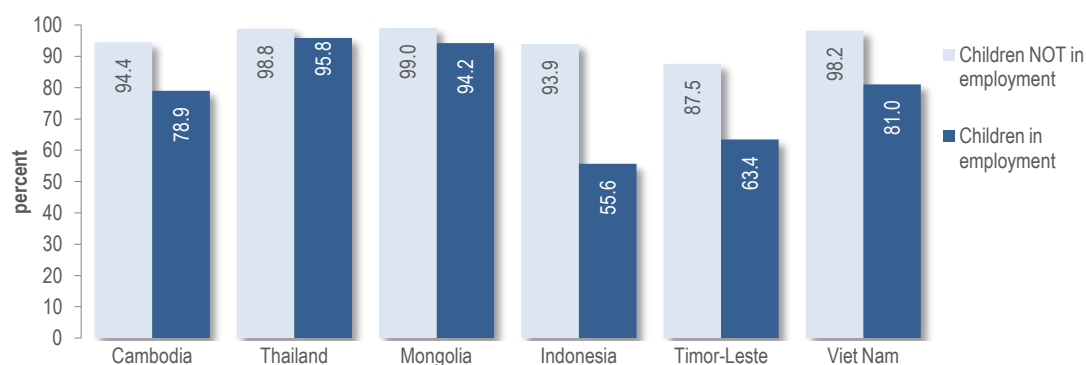
56. Work and schooling do not appear mutually exclusive activities for most children in the SEEAR. Figure 20 reports working children that do not attend school as a percentage of total working children in each of the SEEAR countries. Only in Timor-Leste a large share of children in employment are not able to attend school and are therefore educationally marginalised. The reasons why these children are unable to attend school may be several. In many cases it is undoubtedly the demands of work on children's time and energy that directly preclude schooling. In other instances a lack of access to adequate school services can mean that families do not have the option of choosing school over work because the former is not available (see also discussion in next section). Decisions concerning children's education can also be influenced by the value given to education by families and by family perceptions of the returns to education in the labour market. Whatever the cause, it is this group of working children not in school whose long-term prospects are likely to be most compromised. Clearly, if children are denied schooling altogether then they have little chance of acquiring the human capital necessary for more gainful employment upon entering adulthood.

Figure 20. Work and schooling do not appear mutually exclusive activities for most children in the SEEARChildren in employment only (i.e., not attending school) and total children in employment, 7-14 years age range^(a), by country

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

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

57. Children in employment are much less likely to attend school than their non-working peers in most of the SEEAR countries. Comparing the school attendance of working and non-working children is a way of assessing the *relative* educational disadvantage of the former group. This comparison, reported in Figure 21, indicates that working children lag substantially behind their non-working peers in four out of seven SEEAR countries. The attendance gap between working and non-working children stands at 38 percent in Indonesia, 24 percent in Timor-Leste, 17 percent in Viet Nam and 16 percent in Cambodia. In Thailand and Mongolia instead the difference in the attendance rate of working and non-working children is respectively of only 3 percent and 5 percent points. Data are not available on the regularity of school attendance, i.e. the frequency with which children are absent from or late for class, but attendance regularity is also likely adversely affected by involvement in employment.

Figure 21. Children in employment are much less likely to attend school than their non-working peers in most of the SEEAR countriesPercentage of children attending school by work status, 7-14 years age range^(a), by country

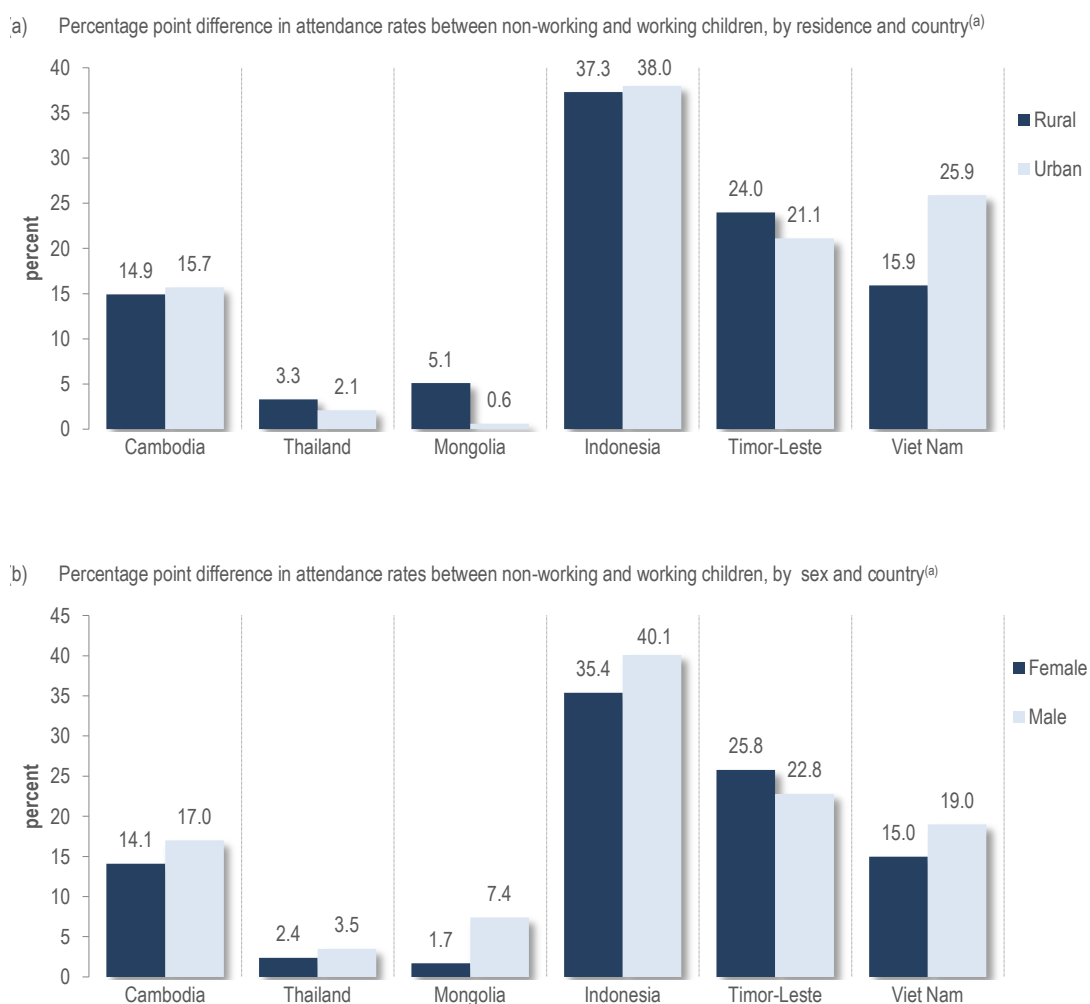
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

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

58. The attendance gap between working and non-working children does not vary substantially between urban and rural areas and between males and females. This

point is illustrated in Figure 22 which reports the percentage point difference in attendance rates between working and non-working children by residence and by gender. The gap by residence between working and non-working children varies across countries with no clear pattern emerging. In Cambodia, Indonesia and Viet Nam the attendance gap appears larger in urban areas than in rural areas while in Thailand, Mongolia and Timor-Leste the attendance gap in rural areas exceeds the one in urban areas. Regarding differences by gender in the attendance gap, in most countries (Cambodia, Thailand, Mongolia, Indonesia and Viet Nam) the attendance gap appears larger for males than for females, while the opposite holds true in Timor-Leste.

Figure 22. The attendance gap between working and non-working children does not vary substantially between urban and rural areas and between males and females.

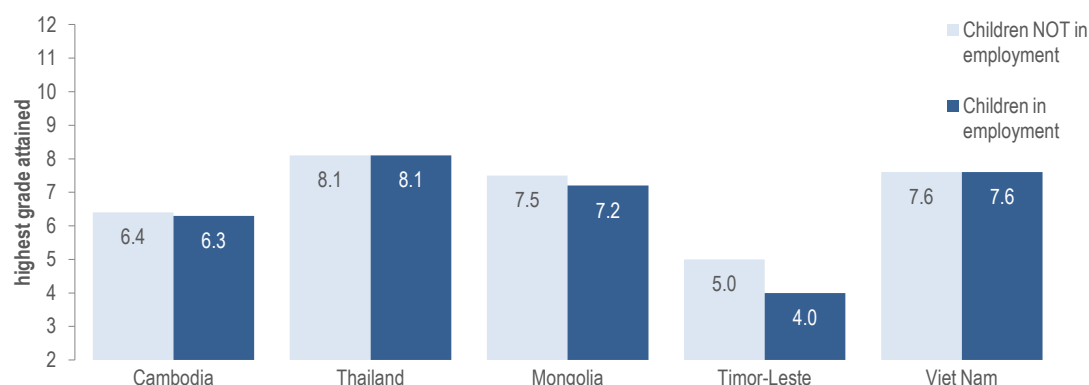


Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

59. A large share of working children do in fact attend school in the SEEAR, so a key question is how work affects their school performance. Data on the highest grade completed show mixed outcomes. Children in employment lag behind their non-working counterparts in terms of grade progression in three out of six

SEEAR countries; Cambodia, Mongolia and Timor-Leste (Figure 23). In Timor-Leste the differences in grade progression between working and non-working children are large, while in Cambodia and Mongolia the differences are small. In Viet Nam and Thailand children in employment and non-working children appear to progress through the education cycle at the same pace. However, because child workers are more likely to drop out after primary school, and because drop outs are presumably those with higher accumulated delay, the gap in grade-for-age reported in Figure 23 is likely to underestimate the true gap in completed grades between working and non-working children, i.e., the gap that would be observed in the absence of selective drop out. The difference in grade-for-age is likely in large part a reflection of higher repetition arising from poorer performance, but information on learning achievement scores is needed to obtain a more complete picture of the impact of work on children's ability to benefit from their time in the classroom. It stands to reason, however, that the exigencies of work limit the time and energy children have for their studies, in turn negatively impacting upon their academic performance.

Figure 23. Highest grade completed at age 14 years, children currently attending school, by involvement in employment, by country



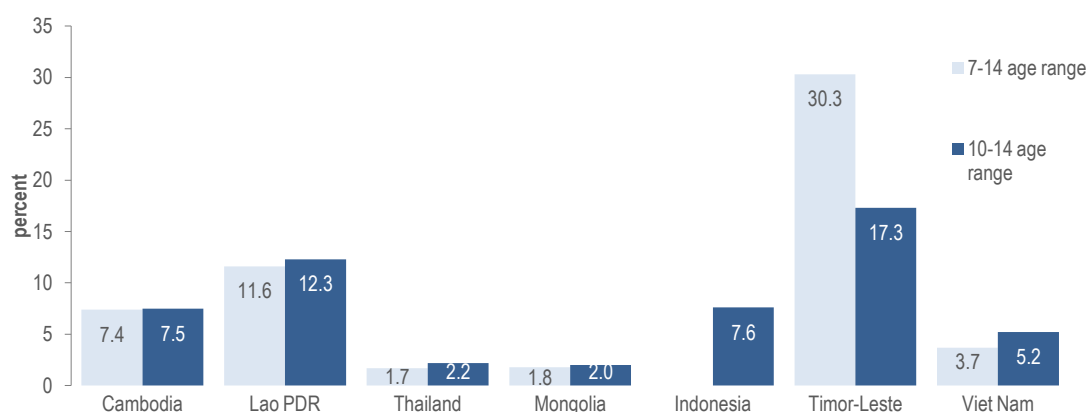
.Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

8. OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

60. **The size of out of school children varies across the SEEAR countries.** In Timor-Leste and Lao PDR the percentage of out of school children aged 7 to 14 years raises concern; indeed in Timor-Leste 30 percent of children in this age group are not attending school while in Lao PDR 12 percent are out of the education system. The share of out-of-school children stands at eight percent in Cambodia, at two percent in Thailand and Mongolia and at four percent in Viet Nam (**Error! Reference source not found.**²⁴). Some of these out-of-school children are simply late entrants, i.e., children who will eventually enter school but have not yet done so. But even when the reference group is limited to the 10-14 years age group to exclude most potential late entrants the share of out-of-school children is high in both Lao PDR and Timor-Leste.

Figure 24. The size of out of school children varies across the SEEAR countries

Percentage of out of school children (OOSC), by age group(a) and country



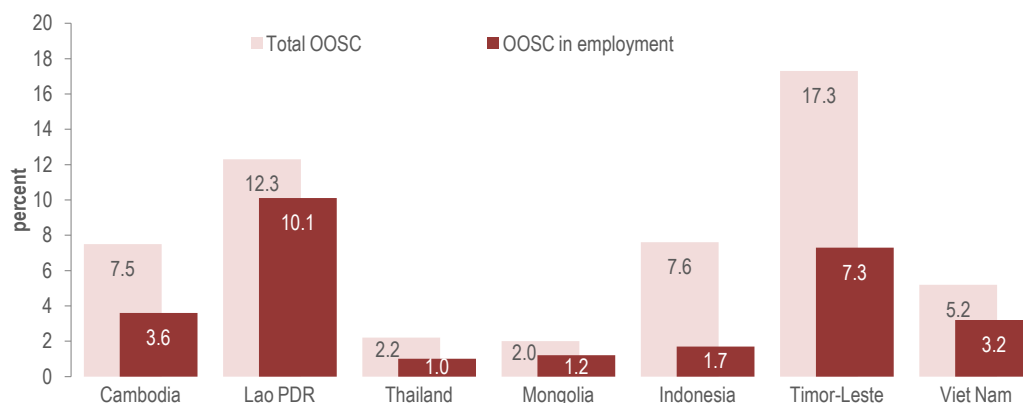
Notes: (a) Estimates for Indonesia and Timor-Leste refer to the 10-14 years age range.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see **Error! Reference source not found.**¹).

61. **The demands of work are not the only reason for children's absence from school.** It is interesting to note that large shares of out-of-school children are not in employment in most SEEAR countries (**Error! Reference source not found.**²⁵). An exception is represented by Lao PDR where the large majority of out of school children are in employment. This result suggests that while work is undoubtedly an important barrier to children's schooling it is by no means the only barrier keeping children out of the classroom. What are some of the other barriers? Figure 26, which reports reasons cited for never entering school, suggests that attitudes towards school are especially important. Very large shares of respondents across all countries indicate not being in school because they saw it as unimportant or uninteresting, or were not allowed by their parents (e.g., 51 percent in Lao PDR, 42 percent in Timor-Leste and 44 percent in Viet Nam).

Figure 25. Many, but by no means all, out-of-school children are in employment

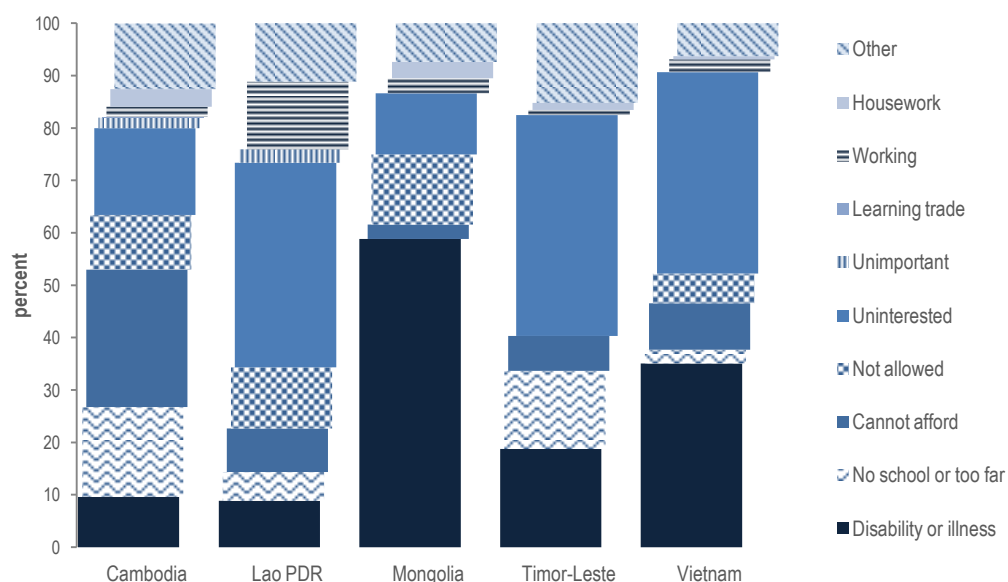
Percentage of out of school children (OOSC), 10-14 years age group, by work status and country

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see *Error! Reference source not found.* 1).

62. School-related factors, and specifically school access and school costs, are other important factors. Large shares of respondents across all countries (e.g., 43 percent in Cambodia, 22 percent in Timor-Leste) cite lack of nearby school facilities and/or high school costs as reasons for being out of school. The demands of housework or employment, on the other hand, together were cited by only a minority of respondents in most countries.

Figure 26. Attitudes towards school appear to play an especially important role in explaining why children are out of school

Reasons for never entering school (% distribution), children aged 9-14 years, by country

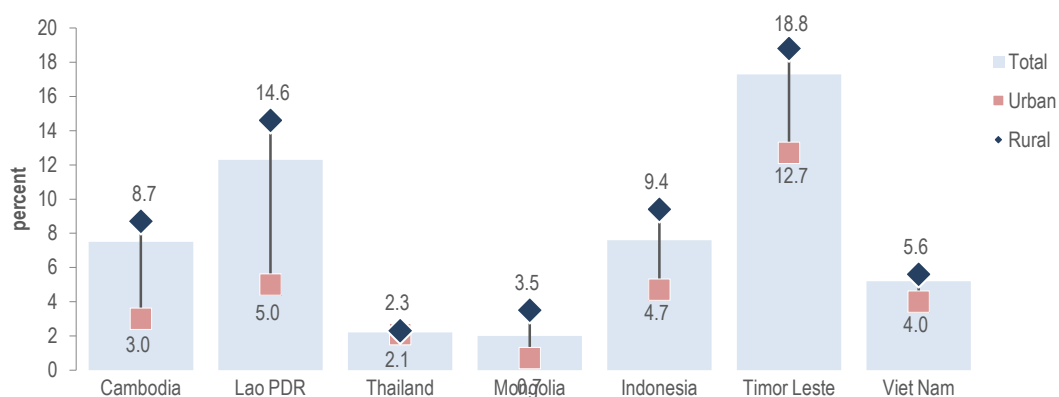


Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

63. The share of out of school children is especially high in rural areas in most of the SEEAR countries. As reported in Figure 27 in five out of seven of SEEAR countries the percentage of out of school children is higher in rural areas than in urban areas. The percentage of out of school rural children in the 10-14 years age range is five times that of urban children in Mongolia, three times that of urban children in Cambodia and Lao PDR and two times that of urban children in Indonesia. In Thailand, Viet Nam and Timor-Leste the differences by residence in the out of school rate are smaller. Clearly, the effort to increase school enrolment must therefore place particular emphasis on extending schooling in the underserved rural regions of the SEEAR. Extending education in unserved areas is not only an important goal in itself, but is also important to providing children with an alternative to work.

Figure 27. The share of out of school children is especially high in rural areas in most of the SEEAR countries

Percentage of children who are out of school, 10-14 years age range, by residence and country

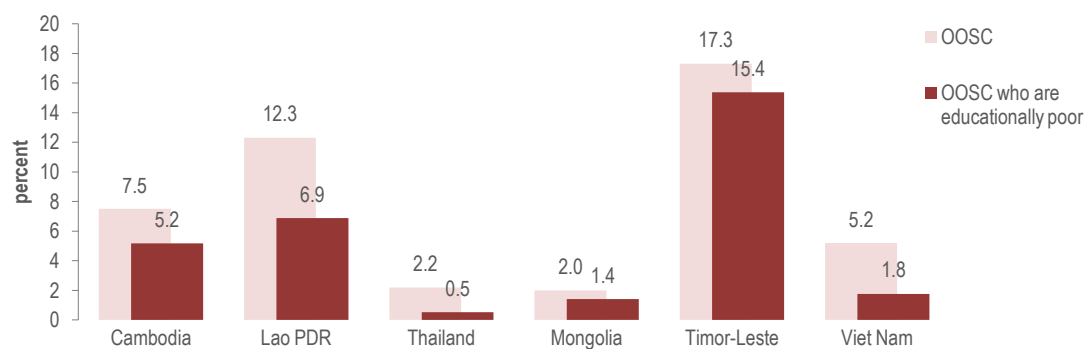


Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

64. Many of those who are out of school have very limited education and therefore are in need of “second chance” learning opportunities. As reported in Figure 28 a non negligible share of out-of-school children suffer what UNESCO terms “education poverty”, i.e., possess less than four years of education, the minimum amount of school time considered by UNESCO as necessary for acquiring basic literacy skills. It is likely that the education poverty indicator actually underestimates the second chance learning needs of out-of-school children, as basic literacy skills alone are less and less an adequate skills floor for successful entry into the labour market. Rather, higher-order technical, vocational and reasoning skills, requiring education well beyond the primary level, are increasingly needed. Reaching the group of out-of-school children with second chance educational opportunities is important to ensuring that these children do not enter adulthood lacking the basic skills needed for work and life.

Figure 28. Many of those who are out of school have very limited education and therefore are “educationally poor”

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



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

ADDITIONAL STATISTICS

Table A1. Children's involvement in employment and schooling, 7-14 years age group^(a), by residence and country

Country		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Cambodia	U	1.0	92.5	5.0	1.5	6.0	97.5	2.5
	R	2.8	81.4	10.1	5.8	12.9	91.5	8.5
Lao PDR	U	-	-	-	-	2.6	95.6	4.4
	R	-	-	-	-	10.4	86.3	13.7
Thailand	U	0.5	85.3	13.1	1.1	13.5	98.4	1.6
	R	0.7	83.3	14.9	1.0	15.7	98.3	1.7
Mongolia	U	0.1	94.3	5.0	0.6	5.0	99.3	0.7
	R	1.9	70.0	26.9	1.1	28.8	96.9	3.1
Indonesia	U	0.8	94.3	1.0	4.0	1.8	95.3	4.7
	R	2.3	87.8	2.8	7.2	5.0	90.6	9.4
Timor-Leste	U	3.0	81.0	6.3	9.8	9.3	87.3	12.7
	R	8.7	66.4	14.8	10.1	23.5	81.2	18.8
Viet Nam	U	1.3	93.8	3.5	1.4	4.8	97.3	2.7
	R	2.4	84.9	11.0	1.7	13.4	95.9	4.1

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

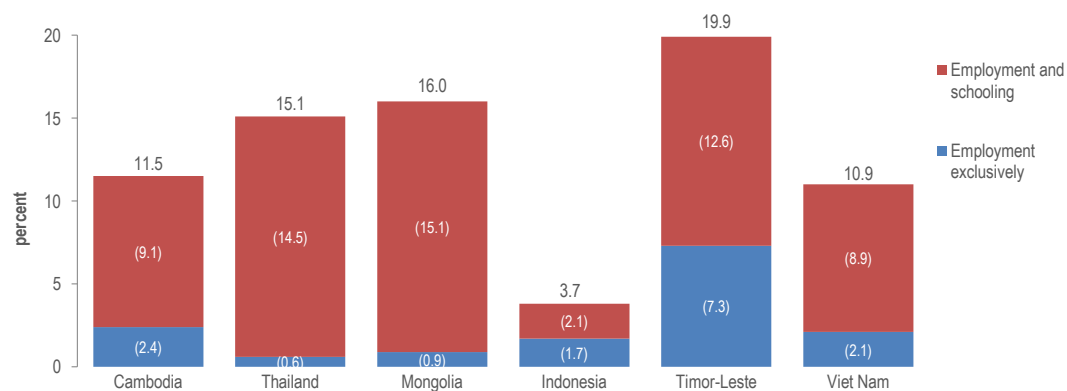
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys (see Table 2).

Table A2. Children's involvement in employment and schooling, 7-14 years age group^(a), by sex and country

Country		Mutually exclusive activity categories				(a)&(c) Total in employment	(b)&(c) Total in school	(a)&(d) Total out of school
		(a) Only employment	(b) Only schooling	(c) Employment and schooling	(d) Neither activity			
Cambodia	M	2.6	83.1	8.4	5.9	11.0	91.5	8.5
	F	2.2	84.0	9.8	3.9	12.1	93.8	6.2
Lao PDR	M	-	-	-	-	7.6	89.7	10.3
	F	-	-	-	-	9.7	87.0	13.0
Thailand	M	0.8	83.1	15.0	1.1	15.7	98.1	1.9
	F	0.5	84.6	13.9	1.0	14.4	98.5	1.5
Mongolia	M	1.4	82.5	15.1	1.0	16.5	97.5	2.5
	F	0.4	83.8	15.1	0.7	15.5	98.9	1.1
Indonesia	M	2.0	89.7	2.3	6.0	4.2	92.0	8.0
	F	1.3	91.0	1.9	5.8	3.2	92.9	7.1
Timor-Leste	M	7.7	68.7	14.5	9.1	22.2	83.2	16.8
	F	6.9	71.4	10.8	10.8	17.7	82.2	17.8
Viet Nam	M	2.5	86.6	9.3	1.7	11.7	95.9	4.1
	F	1.7	88.4	8.4	1.5	10.1	96.8	3.2

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

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

Figure A1. Percentage of children in employment by school status, 7-14 years age range^(a), by country

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

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

Table A3. Children's involvement in employment, 5-14 years age group^(a), by orphan status and country

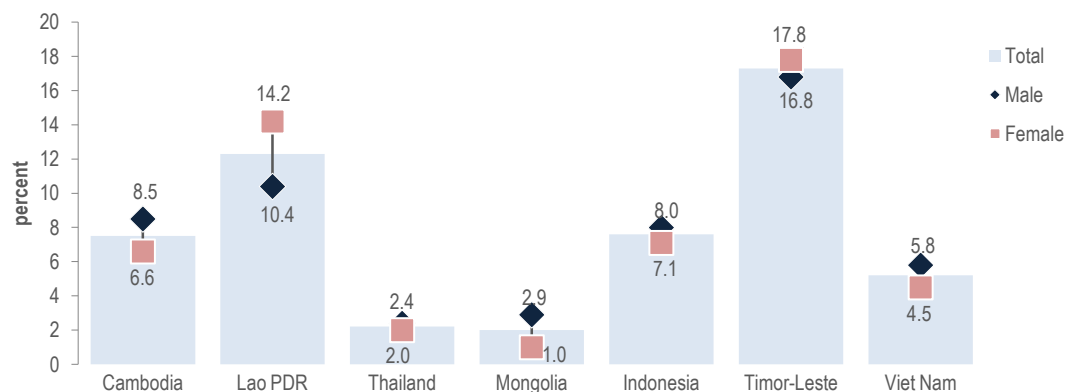
	Orphan ^(b)	Non-orphan
Cambodia	15.9	8.9
Thailand	18.4	12.7
Timor-Leste	24.1	19.2

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

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

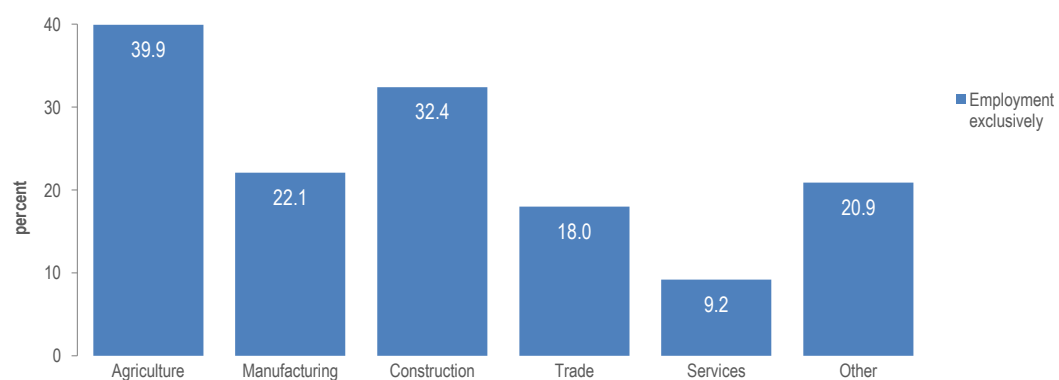
Figure 29. The share of out of school children varies little by sex

Percentage of children who are out of school, 10-14 years age range, by sex and country



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

Figure A2. Incidence of work-related disease and injury, by sector in employment – Viet Nam



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