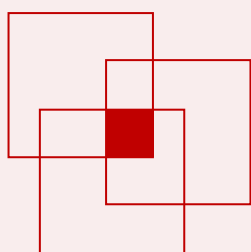




International
Labour
Organization

CHILD LABOUR AND EDUCATION IN INDONESIA



International
Programme on
the Elimination
of Child Labour
(IPEC)

Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW) Branch
Governance and Tripartism Department

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INTRODUCTION

JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

Child labour remains a widespread and serious problem throughout much of the world. The International Labour Organization's (ILO) most recent estimate is that 215 million children are in child labour with 152 million of these between the ages of 5 and 14.¹ At the same time according to the Education for All (EFA) Global Monitoring Report 2011, a total of 67 million primary school aged children and 73 million children of junior secondary school age are estimated to be out of school.²

There has been growing recognition of the close association between tackling child labour and increasing access to education. Within the Education for All (EFA) movement, a key goal is the EFA and Millennium Development Goal target of achieving universal primary education by 2015. This will not be achieved unless there is a determined effort to reach the hardest to reach children including those in child labour.

In an earlier study on child labour and education by the ILO's International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) a strong effect of child labour on school attendance rates was identified.³ The cross-country data indicated that increasing levels of economic activity of children caused a decline in school attendance rates. Many working children were constrained in their school attendance by long hours of work or difficult working conditions and many of them did not attend school at all. School attendance rates of working children in some countries were only about half of those of non-working children.

Within the framework of a recently commenced IPEC project supported by the government of the Netherlands, data on both child labour and education are being reviewed with a view to identifying what is known about child labour which could be relevant to education planning. For this purpose, studies will be undertaken on the four countries involved in the project: Bolivia, Indonesia, Mali and Uganda.

SCOPE OF THIS STUDY

The 2009 Indonesia Child Labour Survey (ICLS) is the primary dataset used in this report. This survey was carried out by the Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS) - Indonesia in 2009 with support from the IPEC/SIMPOC program. The survey was a sub-sample of and integrated in the 2009

¹ ILO: *Accelerating Action against Child Labour: ILO Global Report on Child Labour 2010* (Geneva, 2010).

² EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011: *The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education* (Paris, UNESCO/Oxford University Press, 2011).

³ ILO-IPEC: Blanco F. and Hagemann F.: *Child labour and education: Evidence from SIMPOC surveys* (Geneva, ILO, 2008).

National Labour Force Survey, Sakernas. The ICLS was based on a nationally representative sample of 11,654 households.⁴

For the purpose of this analysis, children aged 7 to 15 years old represent the core age group of this study, corresponding to the beginning and end of compulsory education. They will be analyzed in terms of their educational characteristics and their activity status.

In addition to the ICLS, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) is used as the primary data source for internationally comparable statistics on education indicators. The paper also draws on a recent study by the Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project "Understanding Children's Work and Youth Employment outcomes in Indonesia".⁵

Chapter 1 of this report gives a general background on Indonesia and the Indonesian population; **Chapter 2** describes the education system and provides information on the education context in Indonesia; **Chapter 3** provides the estimates of the extent and nature of the work of children aged 7 to 15; **Chapter 4** presents the impact of children's activities on their schooling; **Chapter 5** provides estimates of out of school children as well as their profiles; and **Chapter 6** concludes the report with key findings and recommendations for further analysis.

⁴Statistics Indonesian, International Labour Organization: Working children in Indonesia 2009, BPS Catalogue: 2306003 (Jakarta, February 2010).

⁵ The UCW is an inter-agency research project supported by ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank.

CHAPTER 1: COUNTRY PROFILE

1.1 GENERAL BACKGROUND

The Human Development Report 2011 ranks Indonesia at 124 out of 187 countries in the Human Development Index (HDI). This places Indonesia in the medium human development category.⁶ The adult literacy rate is 92.2 per cent.⁷ In an assessment in 2008 99.5 per cent of youth, aged 15 to 24 were literate.⁸

According to the Human Development Report the life expectancy at birth increased from 66.2 years in 2003⁹ to 69.4 years in 2011.¹⁰ The report indicates that the mortality rate in Indonesia under the age of five years was 39 deaths per 1,000 live births. 18.7 per cent of the population continues to live below the income poverty line (PPP \$1.25 a day).

Indonesia's gross domestic product (GDP) expanded was 4.6 per cent in 2009 and 6.1 per cent in 2010.¹¹ Recent policies have helped achieve macroeconomic stability. However, Indonesia's performance has lagged behind some of its regional partners and GDP growth remains below potential, due to investment and export weaknesses.

Creating enough jobs to absorb new entrants to the labour market, estimated at 2 million every year, remains a key challenge.¹² Almost one in five young people in the labour force is unemployed which is five times higher than the adult unemployment rate. About two thirds of those looking for work are the first-time job seekers. A recent UCW study highlighted that both rural and urban youth suffer very high rates of unemployment, and their unemployment spells are long.¹³ According to the results of this study, educated youth experience particular difficulties in securing work.

Indonesia's recently published Master Plan for the Acceleration and Expansion of Indonesia's Economic Development (MP3EI) sets out ambitious targets for Indonesia. The plan unveiled in May 2011 put the spotlight on the need for heavy investments in infrastructure coupled with improvement in the investment climate. The aim is to make Indonesia, the 17th largest

⁶ HDI takes life expectancy, adult literacy, primary schooling and per capita income as a basis.

⁷ United Nations Development Programme(UNDP)–Human Development Report Office. 2011: Sustainability and Equity: A Better Future for All (New York, UNDP, 2011).

⁸ UNESCO Institute for Statistics: Data Centre.<http://stats.uis.unesco.org> (accessed on 14 November 2011).

⁹ United Nations Development Programme(UNDP)–Human Development Report Office. 2005: International cooperation at a cross roads: Aid, trade and security in an unequal world (New York, UNDP, 2005).

¹⁰ United Nations Development Programme(UNDP)–Human Development Report Office. 2011:Sustainability and Equity: A Better Future for All (New York, UNDP, 2011).

¹¹ <http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NY.GDP.MKTP.KD.ZG> accessed on 14 December 2011.

¹² World Bank, Indonesia Youth Employment Action Plan 2004-2007.

¹³ UCW: Understanding children's work and youth employment outcomes in Indonesia, Draft version (Rome, December 2011).

economy in the world in 2010, one of the world's ten biggest economies by 2025, increasing the per capita income from \$3000 now to \$15,000. To achieve this, the master plan seeks to raise average annual growth to 8-9 per cent between 2015 and 2025, from around 6 per cent at the end of 2011.

While infrastructure and industrial investments have taken most of the headlines, the MP3EI also highlights the importance of moving Indonesia's economy up the value chain and increasing the level of innovation. Through improving education and boosting school and university attendance, as well as expanding the industrial base, Indonesia aims to develop a more high-tech economy, exporting more tertiary goods and becoming less reliant on commodities, the prices for which have fluctuated greatly over the past five years.

1.2 POPULATION OF INDONESIA

According to the preliminary results of 2010 Population Census, the population of Indonesia was 238 million in 2010 which makes Indonesia the fourth most populous country in the world after the People's Republic of China, India, and the United States of America.¹⁴ An estimated 118 million (52 per cent of the population) lived in urban areas in 2007.¹⁵ Indonesia's population growth rate has been declining. Between 1980 and 1990, the average annual population growth rate was 1.98 per cent and decreased to 1.49 per cent between 1990 and 2000.

The country consists of approximately 17,000 islands. The large number of islands and their dispersion over a wide area has given rise to a diverse culture and hundreds of ethnic groups, each with its own language.

According to the 2000 Population Census, the population density varies not only across islands, but also among provinces of the same island. Java, which covers only 7 per cent of the total area of Indonesia, is inhabited by 59 per cent of the country's population, making the population density of Java (951 persons per square kilometre) significantly higher than that of other islands. By comparison, Kalimantan has a density of 20 persons per square kilometre. Within provinces in Java, the population density ranges from 12,700 persons per square kilometre in DKI Jakarta to 726 persons per square kilometre in East Java.

Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey (IDHS) 2007 reported Indonesia as a country with a young population. Thirty-one per cent of the population is under the age of 15; only 6 per cent are aged 65 and older.

¹⁴ Preliminary results of 2010 Population Census accessed on 12 December 2011, http://dds.bps.go.id/eng/tab_sub/view.php?tabel=1&daftar=1&id_subyek=12¬ab=1.

¹⁵ Statistics Indonesia (Badan Pusat Statistik—BPS) and Macro International. : Indonesia Demographic and Health Survey 2007. (Calverton, Maryland, USA: BPS and Macro International, 2008).

The total child population of Indonesia (5-17 years) was 58.9 million in 2009 and 35.8 per cent of the child population lived in the urban areas. The targeted child population in the main age group for this study, those aged 7 to 15 years, account for a total of 40.4 million. Boys constitute a slightly higher proportion (51.1%) of children in this age group.

1.3 GOVERNMENT ATTENTION TO CHILD LABOUR

Indonesia has ratified several important pieces of international legislation relevant to tackling child labour. The government of Indonesia ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1990 and amended its constitution accordingly concerning the basic rights and privileges of children. In 1999, the government ratified ILO Convention No. 138 on Minimum Age of employment and established 15 years as the minimum age for admission to employment.¹⁶ In 2000, the government ratified ILO Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in support of the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour.

Following its ratification of ILO conventions on child labour, the government developed the National Action Plan as a time-bound (three-phase, twenty-year) program to eliminate the worst forms of child labour. Implementation of the NAP is the responsibility of a National Action Committee, which is chaired by the Minister of Manpower and Transmigration, and brings together a range of Government Ministries and civil society representatives.

Towards the end of the NAP first phase, the National Action Committee for the Elimination of Worst Forms of Child Labour (NAC) reviewed progress of programmes which were implemented during the 2002 – 2007 period. Some of the achievements during the first phase were:

- An increased public debate around child labour, the national education budget, school enrolment rates and education costs has led to various new government initiatives to promote education access for the poor.
- One of the NAP's goals is to ensure integration and enforcement of child labour and education policies and programs to provinces and villages. The NAC has supported the establishment of Provincial and District Child Labour Action Committees (CLACs) that determine local policies and programs appropriate to local needs. As of 17 January 2008, such committees had been formed in 21 provinces and 69 districts/municipalities.
- In 2005 the National Action Committee (NAC) produced a comprehensive mid-term review of progress. The review acknowledged that a combination of upstream (activities to create enabling environment such as advocacy, policy and legislation reforms) and downstream (direct activities to reach children, families and communities) approaches

¹⁶ www.ilo.org/ilolex/cgi-lex/ratific.pl?C138.

have been a good strategy for the elimination of child labour. The review recommended the following to ensure effective implementation of the Nation Action Plan:

- Government and other social partners to mainstream child labour issues in government programs and planning;
- To balance direct services to assist children with enforcement of legislation;
- To give more attention to family economic empowerment and education programs for combating child labour.

In January 2012 the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration conducted a further review on the implementation of National Action Plan and considered ways to accelerate the elimination of child labour in the next 10 years. In his keynote speech to a review event the Manpower and Transmigration Minister said that despite the progress made several gaps and challenges remain. Eradicating child labour requires a comprehensive approach including empowerment of families so they can secure jobs to support the families, involving business and industries as well as support from other Ministries and local leaders to achieve the targets.

NATIONAL LEGISLATION ON CHILD LABOUR

Some of the key parts of this legal framework are summarised below.

Act 20/1999 on Ratification of ILO Convention 138 concerning Minimum Age for Admission to Employment. This Act gives effect to ILO Convention 138, specifying the minimum age of 15 for employment, with provision for employment on light work of children from age 13.

Act 1/2000 on Ratification of ILO Convention 182 concerning the Prohibition and Elimination of the worst forms of child labour. This Act gives effect to ILO Convention 182.

Manpower Act 13/2003: The Act prohibits employment of and involving children in the worst forms of child labour, based on the definition contained in ILO Convention No 182. The Act provides that children between the ages of 13 and 15 may be employed for light work providing that the job does not stunt or disrupt their physical, mental and social development.

Ministerial Decree Number 235 year 2003: This regulation, developed alongside the NAP, defines hazardous occupations in which children cannot work. The Decree lists conditions of work where children under 18 years old should not be employed which include 1) works that endanger the health and safety of the children and 2) Work that harms the morals of the child.

Child Protection Act 23/2002: This law is based on the basic principles contained in the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The law has a section on children in need of special protection, which includes, among others, children who are being exploited economically or sexually, and children who are victims of kidnapping, sale and trading. It also lays down penalties for those guilty of exploiting children. The Act provides for establishment of a Commission for the protection of Indonesian Children assigned to monitor and supervise the protection of children's rights and advise the President. Other features of the Act include the responsibility of government to provide birth certification free of charge and the responsibility of the government to provide nine years basic education to all children.

CHAPTER 2: EDUCATION IN INDONESIA

Indonesia has over 46 million students in more than 250,000 schools. It is the world's fourth largest school system behind only China, India and the USA. The number of children enrolled in school is greater than the combined total of Thailand, Malaysia, Philippines and Cambodia.¹⁷ Education has been an increasingly important part of the government's programme. Expenditure on education has reached 3.8 per cent of GDP and 19.7 per cent of government spending.

Under the government's nine year basic education programme children should undertake six years at elementary level and three in junior high school. Two Ministries are responsible for managing the national education system, the Ministry of National Education (MONE) and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA) which manages and regulates public and private Islamic schools, or madrasah.

The education law of 2003 established the basis for a national education system covering all providers, which are subject to standards set and enforced by MONE. Schools in Indonesia may be run either by the government or privately. Public MONE schools are by far the largest education provider. Some private schools refer to themselves as 'national plus schools' meaning that they go beyond the minimum government requirements, especially in relation to the use of English as medium of instruction.

In order to capture the overall progress towards the achievement of The Education for All goals by 2015, UNESCO has developed a measurement tool, the Education Development Index (EDI), which synthesizes the Dakar Framework for Action in four quantifiable goals: universal primary education (UPE); adult literacy; quality of education and gender parity.¹⁸ The higher a country's EDI value, the greater is the extent of its overall EFA achievement and the closer the country is to attaining the EFA goals as whole. According to the EFA report of 2011, from a group of 127 countries that had a complete set of indicators required to calculate the EDI, Indonesia is ranked 69th.

¹⁷ Indonesia 2010-11 Human Development Sector profile, World Bank Indonesia Office.

¹⁸ The World Education Forum in Dakar in the year 2000 established six fundamental goals to be achieved by 2015. These are: (i) Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children; (ii) ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality; (iii) ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programs; (iv) achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for adults; (v) eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality; (vi) improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

2.1 DEPRIVATION AND MARGINALIZATION

The deprivation and marginalization in education data set is a statistical tool of UNESCO that helps chart the dimensions of marginalization and identifies patterns of disadvantage.¹⁹ The data set looks at the population between the ages of 17 and 22. The key marginalization statistics of this data set highlights: (1) education poverty which measures the proportion of population with less than 4 years of education, (2) extreme education poverty which indicates the proportion of population with less than 2 years of education, (3) what proportion of the poorest 20 per cent are also in the bottom 20 per cent of the education distribution, (4) what proportion of 7-16 year olds have never been to school.

Using this tool in 2010, 4.4 per cent of the population was found to have had less than 4 years of education and 1.5 per cent of the population had received less than 2 years of education. The data set indicated that the proportion of children in the 7 to 16 age group who had never had education was 2 per cent.²⁰

Wealth-based inequalities are a universal source of disadvantage in education. Being born into the poorest 20 per cent significantly raises the risk of falling below the four-year threshold. In Indonesia the incidence of less than four-year education among the poor is almost triple the national average. Average years of education tend to rise as income rises. The number of years in education in the poorest group was 6.6 compared to 11.1 among the richest group.

Regional disparities also figure prominently in the profile of educational disadvantage. The share of the population with fewer than four years of school ranges from less than 12.9 per cent in West Kalimantan to 0.7 per cent in Dki Jakarta. Furthermore, the percentage of 7-16 year olds who have never had any form of formal education varies across regions. In Gorontalo, the figure of children in this age group category is 7.9 per cent, whereas in Dki Jakarta the number is significantly lower, at 0.8 per cent. An MDG progress report provided further information on disparities between provinces in Indonesia. The areas that had the lowest primary and junior high school net enrolment ratios in 2006 were the provinces of Papua, West Papua, North Sulawesi and Gorontalo.²¹

¹⁹EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: Reaching the marginalized (Paris, UNESCO/Oxford University Press, 2010).

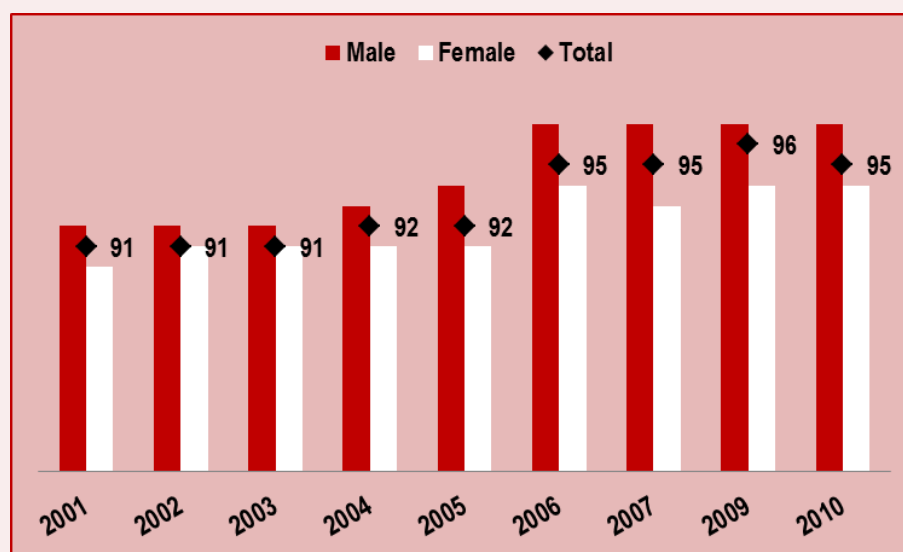
²⁰<http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/GMR/html/dme-4.html> (accessed on 16 January 2012).

²¹United Nations, National Development Planning Agency: Report on the achievements of Millennium Development Goals Indonesia 2007.

2.2 PRIMARY ENROLMENT

Indonesia has made significant progress towards achieving universal primary education. Between 2001 and 2010 the net enrolment rate in primary education increased from 91 per cent to 95 per cent (**Figure 2.1**). Net enrolment rates are higher for boys than girls at the primary school level (97% vs. 94%).

FIGURE 2.1 NET ENROLMENT RATES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION BY SEX (%)



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics database.

2.3 PRIMARY COMPLETION

Although the primary completion rate measured by the gross intake ratio to last grade of primary is high, the repetition rate was recorded as 4 per cent in primary school in 2009 (**Table 2.1**).²² The transition rate from primary to secondary school stood at 92 per cent in 2008.

TABLE 2.1: PROGRESSION AND COMPLETION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

Years	2006	2007	2008
School life expectancy, primary to secondary	11.3	11.1	11.5
Percentage of repeaters, primary (%)	3	3	4
Survival rate to last grade of primary (%)	80	-	-

²² UIS notes that the calculation includes all new entrants to last grade (regardless of age). Therefore, the ratio can exceed 100%, due to over-aged and under-aged children who enter primary school late/early and/or repeat grades.

Years	2006	2007	2008
Gross intake ratio to last grade of primary (%)	102	101	105
Primary to secondary transition rate (%)	90	92	-

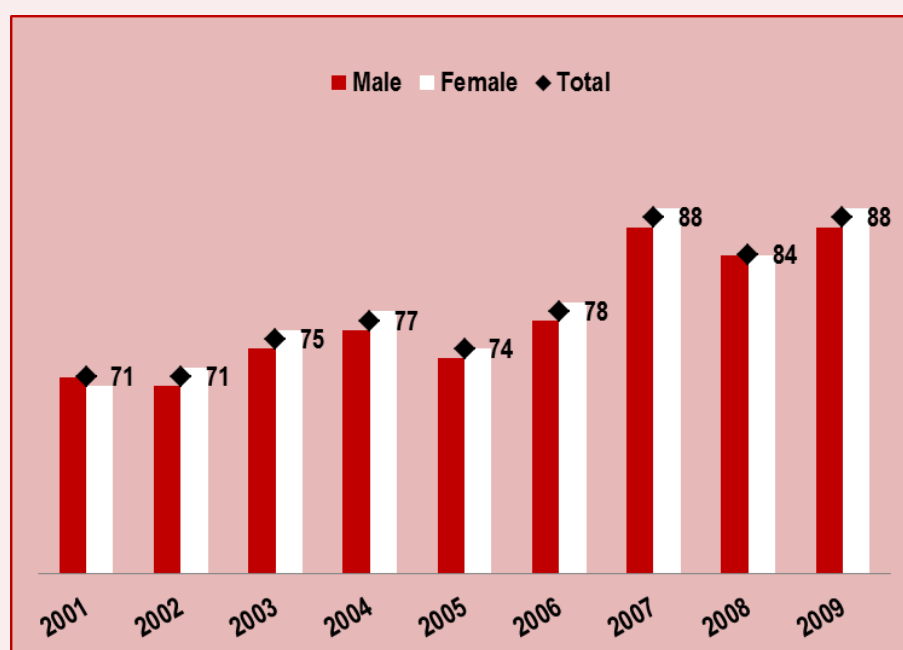
Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics database.

LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL

Figure 2.2 shows the gross enrolment ratios in lower secondary education.²³ This indicates there has been a marked increase in enrolment at the secondary level during the past five years. This may be explained by the impact of the nine years basic education policy which has been supported by various government programmes aimed at increasing accessibility of education to poorer families.

The UIS database shows that 88 per cent of children in this age group were enrolled in lower secondary school in 2009.

FIGURE 2.2: GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS IN LOWER SECONDARY EDUCATION BY SEX (%)



Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics database.

²³ The Gross Enrolment rate presents the percentage of the population enrolled in lower secondary school regardless of age expressed as a percentage of the eligible school aged population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year.

2.4 GIRLS' EDUCATION

The education sector has seen generally positive progress in increasing girls' access to education. However, although there has been a significant increase in primary level NER for girls over the past ten years, the NER still lags behind that of boys. In 2001 the NER for boys was 92% and girls 90 %. In 2010 NER had increased to 97% for boys and 94% for girls.

At the lower secondary level the GER of girls is greater than that of boys (**Figure 2.2**). Progress can also be seen from the literacy ratio of females to male in the 15-24 age group. Between 1990-1992 this ratio was 97.9 per cent, while in 1998 the figure had increased to 99.5 per cent. The literacy rate of females in the 15-24 age group increased from 98.5 per cent in 2004 to 99.4 per cent in 2008.²⁴

2.5 EDUCATION SECTOR POLICY

The government has established a number of policies aimed at improving access to basic education, improving the quality and relevance of education and improving efficiency in the management of education resources.

The Education Sector Plan (RENSTRA 2010-2014) requires nine years of basic education for all children and identifies a number of steps to increase enrolment and improve quality of education.²⁵ The Plan refers to the need for each child to complete basic education and states that the government should pay for basic education. It also refers to the need to ensure that education reaches the poor and those who live in remote areas, and that an inclusive education approach is pursued.

BOS PROGRAMME – OPERATIONAL SCHOOL COSTS

The cost of education can be a significant barrier for poor families. To help overcome this barrier, in 2005 the School Operational Assistance programme (Bantuan Operasional Sekolah) was introduced. The idea of the scheme was to remove direct school costs by disbursing to schools a block grant based on a per student basis. In January 2012 it was also announced that the funding for the programme is to be increased by 40 per cent to 23.5 trillion rupiah. At the same time it was announced that the government would be providing significant new funding in an effort to help poor students stay in school and that measures would be taken to improve the process for paying BOS to schools (removing the regional level and transmitting money directly to provinces).²⁶

²⁴ Unesco Institute for Statistics database.

²⁵ Rencana Strategis Departemen Pendidikan Nasional Tahun 2010-2014.

²⁶ Jakarta Post, January 12 2012.

CONDITIONAL CASH TRANSFER PROGRAM (CCT)

The Government of Indonesia has since 2007 been implementing a programme called “Program Keluarga Harapan”, a Conditional Cash Transfer programme (CCT). The overall objective of this programme is to reduce poverty. The stated aims of the CCT are:

- to improve socio economic conditions of very poor households;
- to improve the education level of children from very poor households;
- to improve the health and nutritional status of pregnant women, *ibunifas* (after childbirth), and children under 6 years in very poor households;
- to increase access to and quality of education and health services, especially for the very poor households.

To increase school participation at elementary and secondary level it has been explicitly stated that the CCT should reach children who are currently not in school, including those in child labour. The reduction of child labour is a performance indicator of CCT, making it one of the few CCT schemes worldwide that specifically addresses child labour.

The CCT was rolled out in July 2007 starting with 49 districts in 7 provinces (West Sumatra, Jakarta, West Java, East Java, Gorontalo and North Sulawesi and East Nusa Tenggara) targeting 500,000 very poor households.

It is expected that by 2015, the CCT could reach 6.5 million very poor households. Each household will be provided with a cash transfer for 4 years. The amount transferred is IDR 400,000 (US\$45) for elementary school level student and IDR 800,000 (\$90) for junior high school level student per year. The cash received by the household varies depending on the household composition

ONE ROOF SCHOOLS

Because of the absence of secondary schools in many rural areas the Ministry of National Education is supporting the expansion of the “*One Roof Schools*”. In these schools, when Elementary school finishes for the day, (around 1.00 pm), the empty building is used in the afternoon to provide classes for secondary aged children. This new initiative can be an important measure for improving access to education and is particularly important for girls’ access in more remote areas, where distance to school may present a real barrier to education access.

BARRIERS TO EDUCATION

Despite the overall progress in increasing access to education many barriers can still hinder access and retention.

Affordability of education. Although progress has been made in tackling school fees, the indirect costs of education can remain a barrier for poor families. In a 2005 ILO study on attitudes to child labour and education it was found that 71 per cent of parents whose children were not attending school cited costs as the main factor and the indirect costs of education represented a major element of these.²⁷

Access to education. A significant factor affecting participation in education at the junior secondary school level is the lack of school facilities in rural areas where children may live a long way from the junior secondary school. The journey to school can be long, and also costly for families on low incomes. Some initiatives have been taken to try to tackle this problem including a major programme of new school construction, and development of one roof schools.

Quality of education. There are a range of factors, which determine quality of education and on many of these aspects there is a widely held view that reform and new policies are needed. Among the issues are:

- insufficient class contact time;
- inadequate training for teachers and issues relating to teachers' conditions of service;
- lack of teaching and learning materials;
- inadequate school facilities.

Relevance of education/parental and cultural attitudes. Parents frequently believe education is irrelevant to their child's potential for income-earning, especially in agricultural areas.

Family reliance on children's work. Children are often required to help their parents with agricultural work causing many children to withdraw from school at certain times of the year.

Lack of awareness and enforcement of labour and education laws. While legislation defines a minimum age of employment and there is a formal requirement to complete nine years basic education, the standards are not effectively enforced, commonly unknown and/or widely disregarded

²⁷International Labour Organization: Attitudes to Child Labour and Education in Indonesia (Jakarta, 2006).

THE EDUCATION WORKFORCE

The pupil/teacher ratio in Indonesia appears from available data to be surprisingly low by international and regional standards. It has been reported that the pupil/teacher ratio in primary school decreased from 20 pupils/ teacher in 2005 and to 17 pupils/ teacher in 2010.²⁸ However, Indonesia's EFA report highlights that there is an imbalanced distribution of teachers across schools in different provinces: there are more teachers than needed in cities, while remote areas do not have enough teachers.²⁹

At the lower secondary level, the ratio between pupils and teachers is reported to be 13 pupils/ teacher. In the EFA country report, this is explained by the fact that teachers at this level are subject-matter teachers, which means that the provision of teachers are determined based on the number of subject matters being taught at this level of schooling.

In Indonesia the qualification level of teachers has tended to be low. Recent initiatives have been taken to improve the qualification levels of teachers, and to provide effective continuing professional development training.

NON FORMAL EDUCATION

Given that there remains a section of school aged children who remain outside education, and a group of adolescents who have not fully benefited from education, ways of providing non formal education support to such children has also been a subject of discussion.

Equivalency Education is a system of compensatory education which has existed in Indonesia since the 1970s and has been promoted as an alternative method to provide basic education for those children outside the school system.³⁰ There is a non-formal education program that includes Package A which is intended to be equivalent to primary education and Package B which is intended to be equivalent to junior secondary education.³¹ It is a Government programme that is designed to enable children to reach primary or junior secondary learning standards even though the children are outside of the formal schooling system. As this education programmes comes with official certification such interventions can in theory provide a route for children to return to formal education.

²⁸ UNESCO Institute for Statistics database.

²⁹ National Coordination Forum, Education for All 2003, Indonesia's Education for All 2003-2015.

³⁰ Forum of Asia Pacific Parliamentarians for education, Lifelong Learning: Non formal education in Indonesia, Hamid Mohammed, Jakarta 24-25 October 2008.

³¹ Package A is non-formal education equivalent to elementary school level (run for maximum of 6 years) and Package B non-formal education equivalent to junior secondary school level (run for maximum of 3 years). Children may start at level in accordance to their capacity of learning. For example, a child who dropped out when he or she was in the third year of junior secondary school, is not required to start from the first year of package B, but could directly be placed as the third year student of package B.

Package A and package B are delivered through various structures including Community Learning Centres (Pusat Kegiatan Belajar Masyarakat, PKBM). These centres, often run by local community based partners, provide a variety of services depending on the local context. In some situations they may provide literacy or numeric skills support, in others the focus is on recreational opportunities for children in a safe environment. Their close proximity to the community means that children do not have to travel far to access the service. Apart from serving as a centre for learning, these buildings can also be the centre for meetings and various activities for the children and the community.

However concerns have been raised about the quality of much non formal education and the performance of Community Learning Centres. Some international donors are no longer supporting non formal education, preferring to focus on formal education access. As the enrolment and retention rates in primary and junior secondary education increase, the relevance of the existing pattern of non-formal education may decline further. However there does remain a group of adolescents who have missed out on basic education and there remains a concern as to how to provide essential learning support for such children.

EDUCATION AND LABOUR MARKETS

In 2003, Indonesia was the first of eleven lead countries to develop a Youth Employment Action Plan under an initiative led by the Secretary General of the UN.³² The ILO is the lead UN agency on youth employment. The Indonesian Youth Employment Network (IYEAP) promotes policies and programs that support young women and men in accessing decent work by improving skills, employability and entrepreneurship for children above the age of fifteen.

Developing young people's employability is a major concern of policy to ensure their successful transition to the labour market and their access to career oriented employment. Findings from a school-to-work transition survey shows that the main obstacle young people face in finding their first job is inadequate education and skills.³³ The importance of appropriate education and training is also the main concern for employers and managers as 61 per cent mentioned the inadequate education and training of the applicants as the biggest problem in the recruitment of young workers. While the main cause of youth employment problems appears to be on the demand side –economic growth is insufficient to create the jobs required in the formal sector, the “employability” of youth is clearly also an important issue.

³²Indonesia Youth Employment Network: Unlocking the Potential of Youth: Indonesia Youth Employment Action Plan 2004-2007.

³³ Sziraczki, G and Reerink, A: “Report of the Survey of School-to-Work in Indonesia”, Series on Gender in the Life Cycle, no. 14, Geneva, ILO.

A recent analysis by the Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Project investigating the youth employment outcomes in Indonesia estimated that 18.6 per cent of youth are unemployed.³⁴ A large share of young Indonesians are neither in the labour force nor in school. Unemployment affects both rural and urban youth. Moreover one third of working youth are underemployed.³⁵ The premature discouragement young people face when attempting to enter the labour market may have long-term consequences on young peoples' further integration into the labour market. Discouraged youth are likely to end up in the informal sector, where quality, productivity and security are low. The UCW study estimated that 56 per cent of working youth are in the informal sector.

³⁴UCW: Understanding children's work and youth employment outcomes in Indonesia, Draft version(Rome, December 2011).

³⁵Underemployment in this study is defined as working less than 35 hours per week.

CHAPTER 3: CHILDREN'S ACTIVITIES

How do children in Indonesia use their time? This chapter provides key information on child labour in 2009 as reported in the National Child labour Survey, and detailed information on the range of children's activities, considering the extent to which children may combine work, schooling, and household chores.

3.1 CHILD LABOUR

Child labour represents a subset of children in employment that includes children employed below the minimum age and children below 18 involved in the worst forms of child labour.³⁶ It does not include children who have reached the minimum age of employment and are employed in acceptable conditions or children below the minimum age involved in 'light work'.

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

TABLE 3: CRITERIA FOR SETTING MINIMUM AGES

	General	For developing countries ³⁷
General minimum age The minimum age for work should not be below the age for finishing compulsory schooling	15 years or more	14 years
Light work Children between the ages of 12 and 14 years old may do light work, as long as it does not threaten their health and safety, or hinder their education or vocational orientation and training	13 years	12 years
Hazardous work Any work which is likely to jeopardize children's physical, mental or moral health, safety or morals should not be undertaken by anyone under the age of 18	18 years (16 years under certain strict conditions)	18 years (16 years under certain strict conditions)

³⁶ International guidelines for defining child labour find their basis in the SNA production boundary. The SNA is the international standard used in the measurement of economic activity. See <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/nationalaccount/sna.asp>.

³⁷ ILO Convention 138 provides that a Member state whose economy and educational facilities are insufficiently developed may initially specify a minimum age of 14.

Based on the international standards and Indonesian law, child labour as reported in the Indonesia national report consists of the following components:³⁸

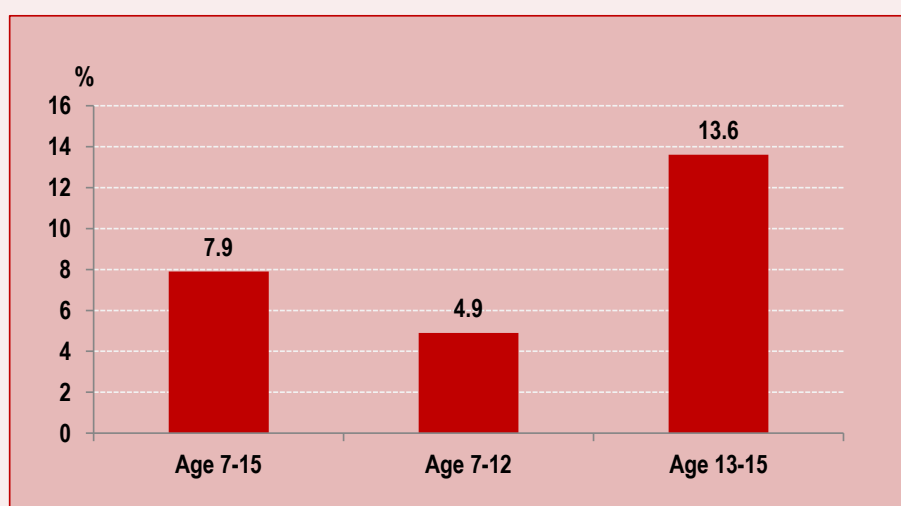
- All working children aged 5-12, regardless of their working hours.
- Working children aged 13-14 that worked more than 15 hours per week. The regulation allows children at this age group to engage in light work. Working hours less than 15 hours per week is used as an indication of light work.
- Working children aged 15-17 that worked more than 40 hours per week. The law establishes 15 as the minimum age for general work. Working more than 40 hours per week is used as a proxy indicator for hazardous work.

With a minimum age of employment of 15, taking the narrower age group of 5-14 the ICLS found that 3 per cent of children in this age group could be categorized as being involved in child labour.

3.2 CHILDREN IN EMPLOYMENT

A total of 3,172,000 children between 7-15 years of age are estimated to be in employment in Indonesia.³⁹ This figure corresponds to 7.9 per cent of all children in this age group. Employment rates among children aged 7-12 and 13-15 are estimated to be 4.9 per cent and 13.6 per cent, respectively (**Figure 3.1**).

FIGURE 3.1: CHILDREN IN EMPLOYMENT BY AGE GROUPS



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

³⁸Statistics Indonesian, International Labour Organization: Working children in Indonesia 2009, BPS Catalogue: 2306003 (Jakarta, February 2010).

³⁹The terms “working children” and “children in employment” are used interchangeably in this report.

The employment rates of boys and girls are slightly different (8.4 % and 7.2%, respectively). Boys account for 55 per cent of all working children and in absolute numbers there are more working boys than girls (**Table 3.2**). In the older age group the employment rate varies considerably between boys and girls: 15.6 per cent of boys compared to 11.7 per cent of girls in this age group are working.

TABLE 3.2: DISTRIBUTION OF CHILD POPULATION BY AGE GROUP, SEX AND WORKING STATUS

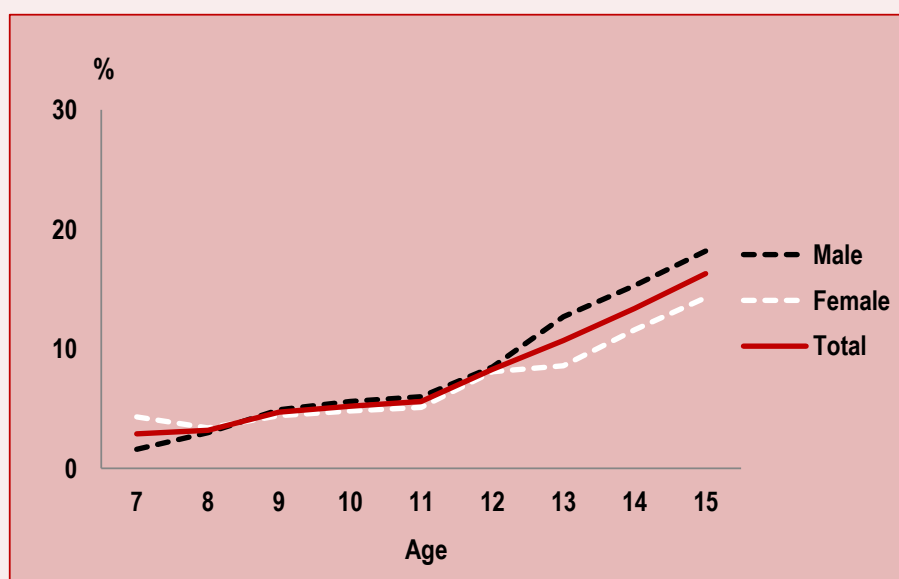
	Age 7-15		Age 7-12		Age 13-15	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total children (,000)	20,652	19,752	13,748	13,034	6,903	6,718
Working (,000)	1,744	1,429	670	645	1,074	784
Working (%)	8.4	7.2	4.9	5	15.6	11.7

Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

WORKING CHILDREN BY AGE

The distribution of working children by age is presented below (**Figure 3.2**). As would be expected, involvement in employment rises steadily with age. However it is worth noting that many young children are found working. Almost 536,000 children aged less than 10 years were already at work in in 2008.

FIGURE 3.2: WORKING CHILDREN BY AGE



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

WORKING CHILDREN BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Approximately 64.8 per cent of children in Indonesia aged 7-15 years old live in rural areas. Children's involvement in work in rural areas is more prevalent than in urban areas: 9.9 per cent compared to 4.2 per cent. 81.4 per cent of all working children in Indonesia reside in rural areas.

Boys are more likely to be working in rural areas, 11 per cent of boys compared to 8.7 per cent of girls. However girls are slightly more likely to work than boys in urban areas; 4.4 per cent of girls are in employment compared to 3.9 per cent of boys.

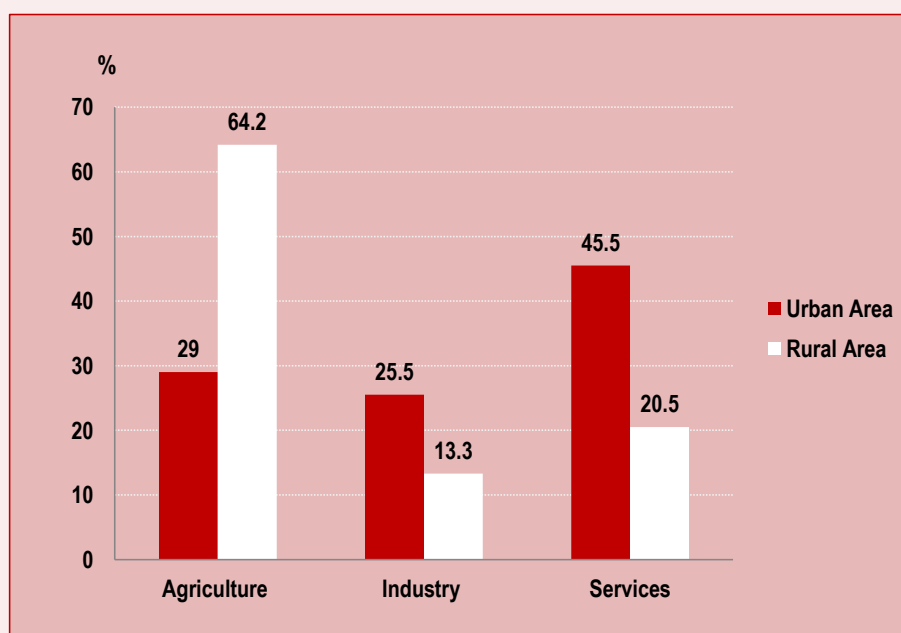
The UCW report highlighted the large differences in children's employment across provinces. Only one per cent of children was engaged in employment in Jakarta against eight and nine per cent of children in Sulawesi and Eastern Indonesia.⁴⁰

WORKING CHILDREN BY SECTOR OF ACTIVITY

A look at the sector of economic activity that children are engaged in by place of residence highlights the dominance of agricultural activities in rural areas (64.2 %) and of the services sector in urban areas (45.5%) (**Figure 3.3**). 65.2 per cent of working children are found in agriculture and 21.8 per cent are in the services sector. When disaggregated by gender, the data shows that boys are working proportionally more in agriculture (65.1%) than girls (48.6%) and girls are more involved in the services sector (31.6%) than boys (19.9%).

⁴⁰ UCW: Understanding children's work and youth employment outcomes in Indonesia, Draft version (Rome, December 2011).

FIGURE 3.3: DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING CHILDREN BY ECONOMIC SECTOR AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT

Working children are mostly unpaid family workers (85.7%), with little variation by sex. 8.6 per cent of working children are paid employees. Girls seem to have a higher probability to be in paid employment and boys have a higher chance to be employed as own/ account-self-employed workers (**Table 3.3**).

TABLE 3.3: STATUS IN EMPLOYMENT OF WORKING CHILDREN

	Total	Boys	Girls
Unpaid family worker (%)	85.7	86.1	85.2
Paid employee (%)	8.6	7.4	9.9
Self-employed/ Own account worker(%)	5.8	6.5	4.8
Total children in employment ('000)	3,172	1,474	1,429

Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

HOURS OF WORK

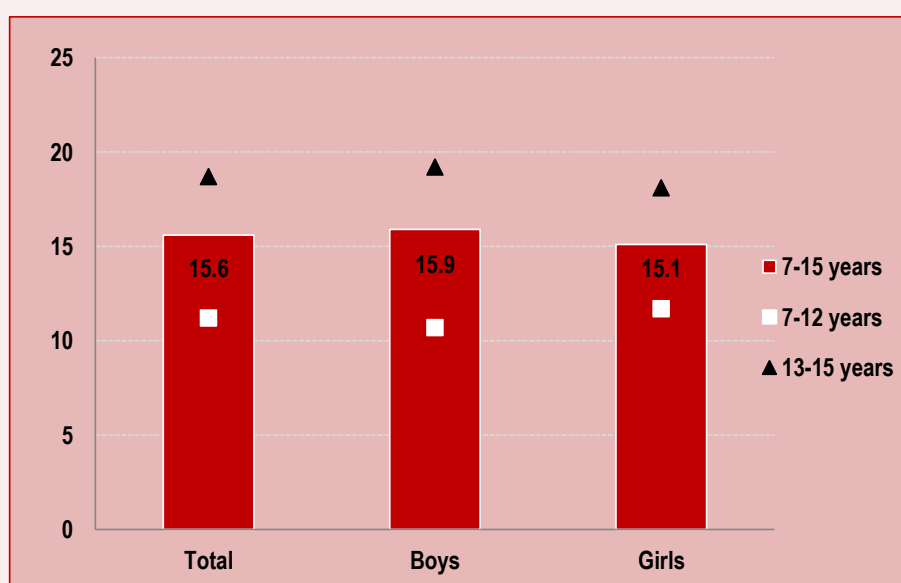
Working children spend on average 15.6 hours per week in employment. The data indicates that the majority (60%) work for less than 15 hours per week. The proportion of children working 29 hours or more accounts for 11.4 per cent of all children in employment.

The distribution of working hours is relatively similar for boys and girls, although on average a smaller proportion of boys work for less than 15 hours. On average, boys are engaged in employment for 15.9 hours per week and girls for 15.1 hours per week. Older children tend to work more than their younger counterparts (**Figure 3.4**). Interestingly, working children living in rural areas were found to work less on average than children in urban areas: 14.7 hours and 19.0 hours per week, respectively.

The data indicates that the majority of working children (51.8%) work six days or more per week.

The impact of working hours on school attendance is explored in section 4.1 of this paper.

FIGURE 3.4: MEAN OF WEEKLY WORKING HOURS OF CHILDREN BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS



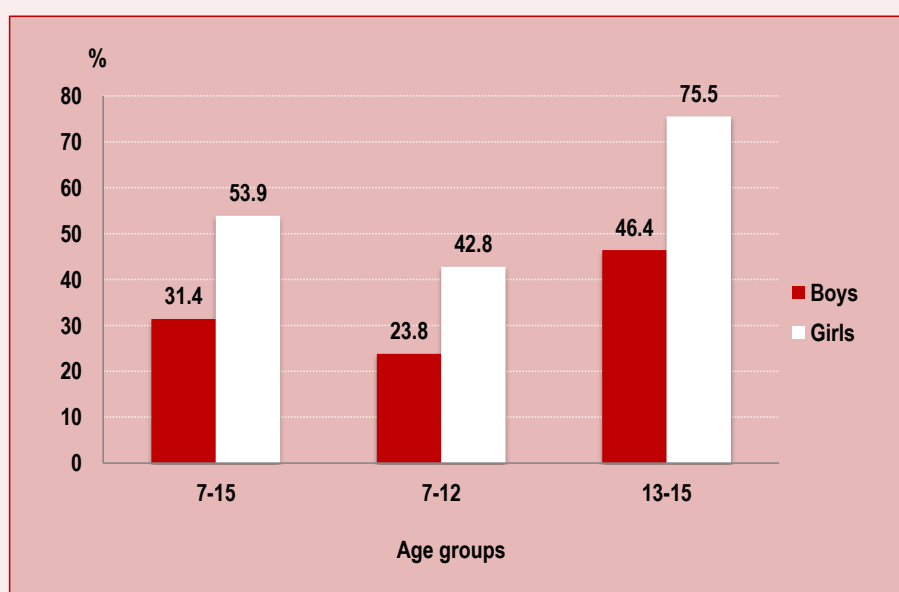
Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

3.3 UNPAID HOUSEHOLD SERVICES ('CHORES')

Employment in economic activity is not the only category of work involving children. Many children are engaged in other productive activities, and specifically unpaid household services (household chores) which fall outside the International System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary and are typically excluded from published estimates of child labour. In Indonesia 42.4 per cent of children aged 7-15 years old are engaged in unpaid household services, i.e., perform 'household chores' for their households.⁴¹ The proportion of girls performing chores is much higher than that of boys, and this difference increases with age (**Figure 3.5**). 54 per cent of girls and 31 per cent of boys are involved in household chores. Among younger children aged 7-12, 43 per cent of girls and 24 per cent of boys perform unpaid household services compared to 76 per cent of girls and 46 per cent of boys in the older age group.⁴²

A slightly higher proportion of children living in rural areas are engaged in household chores (42.9 % versus 41.4% in urban areas).

FIGURE 3.5: CHILDREN PERFORMING UNPAID HOUSEHOLD SERVICES



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

⁴¹ Unpaid household services include household activities such as cooking, washing up, indoor cleaning and upkeep of abode, care of textiles, installation, servicing and repair of personal and household goods, outdoor cleaning and upkeep of surroundings, minor home improvements, maintenance and repair. Also includes care of family members and procurement of household goods and services.

⁴² 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, Geneva, 24 November–5 December 2008, Report III, Child Labour Statistics, ICLS/18/2008/III.

HOURS SPENT IN UNPAID HOUSEHOLD SERVICES

On average, children spend 7.9 hours per week performing unpaid household services. Girls spend more time than boys: 8.9 and 6.2 hours per week, respectively. Older girls spend longer hours in household chores (**Table 3.4**). There is a small difference in the time spent in household chores between rural (8.2 hours per week) and urban areas (7.3 hours per week).

TABLE 3.4: MEAN OF WEEKLY HOURS SPENT IN HOUSEHOLD CHORES

	7-15 years	7-12 years	13-15 years
Total	7.9	6.7	9.2
Male	6.2	5.8	6.4
Female	8.9	7.2	10.8

Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

3.4 CHILDREN ATTENDING SCHOOL

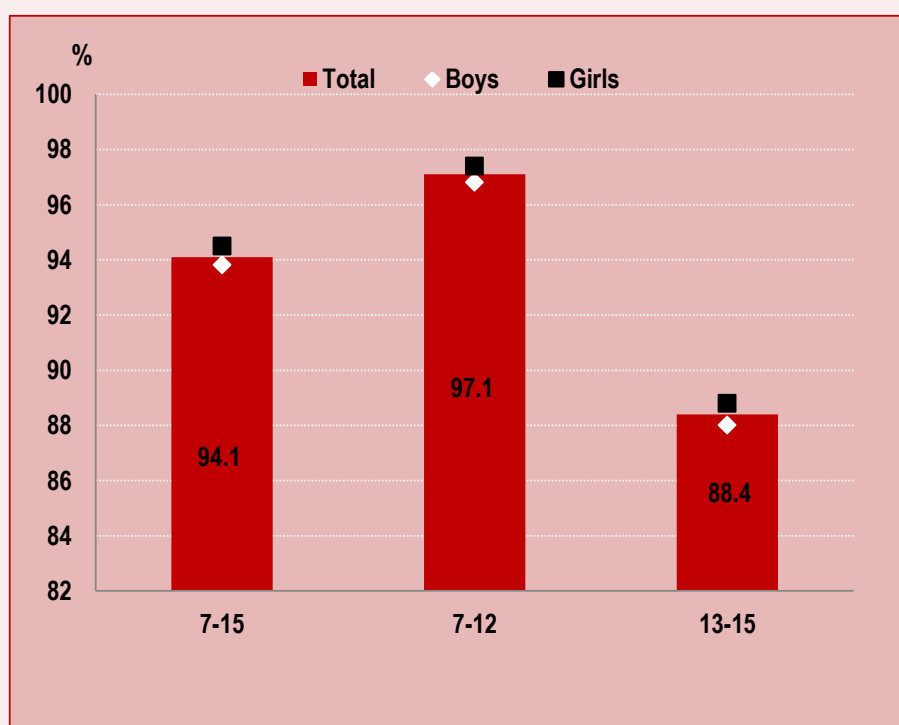
Whilst available data from education sources provides information on enrolment rates there is much less information available on attendance. The National Child Labour Survey includes the following question to measure the current school attendance rate:

Is (NAME) attending school or pre-school during the current school year?

Compulsory education in Indonesia covers children aged 7-15.⁴³ Based on responses to the question above, it is estimated that nearly 94 per cent of children in this age group are attending school (**Figure 3.6**). The school attendance rate of children in the lower secondary school age (13-15) in Indonesia is estimated at 88.4 per cent. The school attendance rate of girls is slightly higher than that of boys; 94.5 per cent of girls and 93.8 per cent of boys aged 7-15 are attending school.

⁴³ UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

FIGURE 3.6: SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATES OF CHILDREN BY SEX AND AGE



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

School attendance among children aged 7-15 is slightly higher in urban areas than in rural areas: 96.1 per cent and 93.1 per cent respectively.

The data suggests that 1.4 per cent of children in the compulsory school age group have never attended school. Table 3.5 shows the reasons given and reveals four main reasons for never attending. The main reason stated is disabilities or illness of the children which applies for around 34 per cent of children concerned. Another 16.2 per cent of children have never attended school because their parents cannot afford to send them to school. Around 15 per cent of children who have never attended school are considered too young to go to school suggesting these children are likely to enter. Lack of a school close to their households is one of the other main reasons for children not participating in education (13.4 %).

TABLE 3.5 REASONS WHY CHILDREN HAVE NEVER ATTENDED SCHOOL

Reasons for not attending school (7-15 yrs.)	All children
Too young	15.4
Disabilities/ illness	33.8
No school/ school too far	13.4
Cannot afford the school	16.2

Reasons for not attending school (7-15 yrs.)	All children
Families do not allow for the school*	2.3
Not interested in school*	3.3
Education is not important*	1.9
School is not safe*	0
Apprentice/ internship*	0.3
Working for a wage*	0
Working as unpaid workers in family business/ farm*	3.4
Housework help at home*	3.4
Others*	6.7
Total children not attending school (,000)	577

*Due to the small number of observations, this figure should be interpreted with caution.
Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

3.5 CHILDREN IN MULTIPLE ACTIVITIES

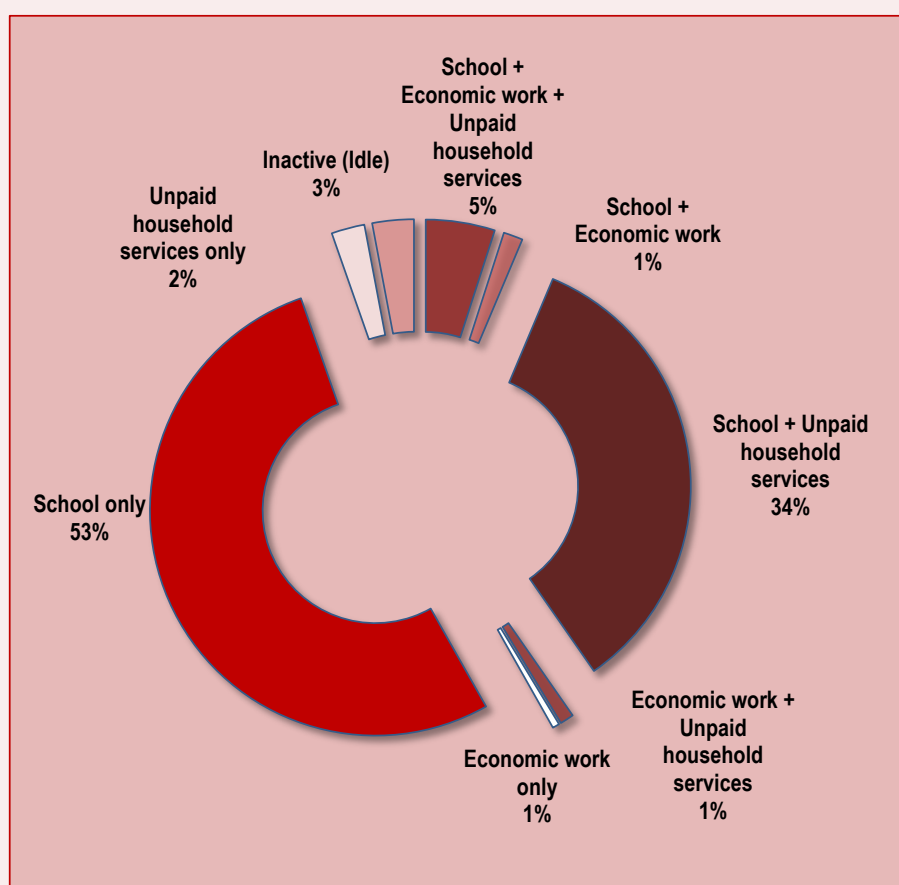
The majority of children (53%) aged 7-15 are engaged in the single activity of school attendance (**Figure 3.7**). The next most common time use pattern involves attending school and performing household chores, with this group representing 34 per cent of all children aged 7-15.

5 per cent of all children are spending part of their week in employment, part of it in school, and part of it performing household chores.

Few children aged 7-15 are considered to be 'inactive' or 'idle', i.e., they do not attend school, are not employed and do not provide unpaid household services. Inactive children account for only 3 per cent of all 7-15 year-olds.

Among children aged 7-15 years old only 1 per cent are engaged solely in employment. The proportion of children engaged only in unpaid household services is low, at around 2 per cent.

FIGURE 3.7: ACTIVITY STATUS OF CHILDREN 7-15 YEARS OLD



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

ACTIVITY STATUS BY SEX

Time-use patterns differ somewhat between boys and girls. Boys are more likely to be solely engaged in school than girls whereas more girls (44.9%) than boys (24.4%) combine school with household chores (**Table 3.6**).

TABLE 3.6: DISTRIBUTION OF CHILDREN BY ACTIVITIES AND SEX

	Boys	Girls
School + Economic work + Unpaid household services	4.6	5.4
School + Economic work	2	0.8
School + Unpaid household services	24.4	44.9
Economic work + Unpaid household services	1.1	0.9
Economic work only	0.8	0.1*
School only	62.9	43.4
Unpaid household services only	1.3	2.7
Inactive (Idle)	3	3

*Due to the small number of observations, this figure should be interpreted with caution.

Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

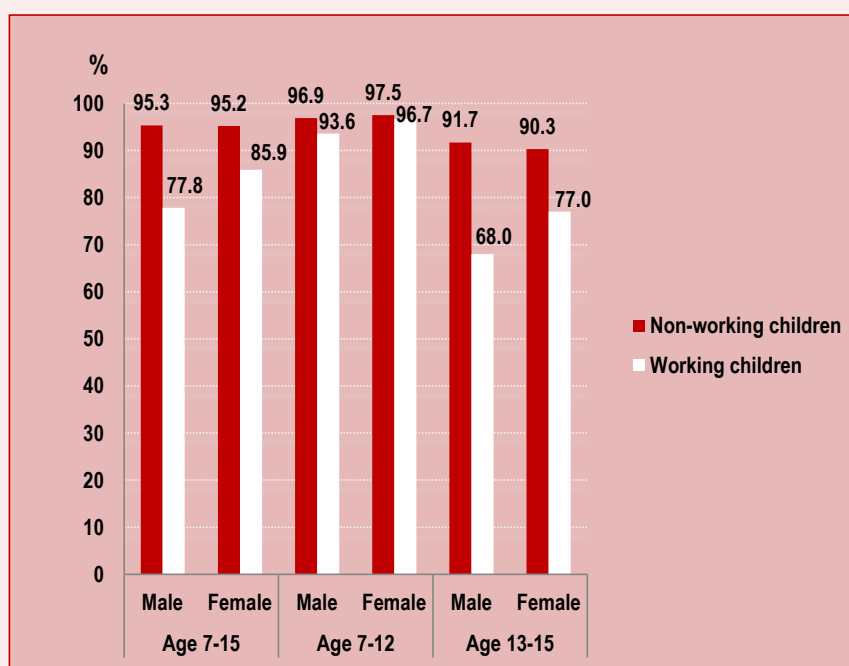
CHAPTER 4: IMPACT OF CHILDREN'S ACTIVITIES ON SCHOOLING

In this chapter the impact of children's work and unpaid household services and the hours spent in these activities on school attendance are examined.

4.1 SCHOOL ATTENDANCE: WORKING CHILDREN VS. NON-WORKING CHILDREN

The school attendance rates of working children are considerably lower than those of non-working children. Among children aged 7-15, the school attendance rate is 95.2 per cent for non-working children, but decreases to 81.5 per cent for working children. This gap in education between working and non-working children is particularly marked among older children. Among children of primary school age, the school attendance rate is 97.2 per cent for children not in employment and drops to 95.1 per cent among working children. However the school attendance rate among children aged 13-15 who are not in employment is 91 per cent, and lowers significantly to 71.8 per cent among working children. The difference is most marked among older boys with 91.7 per cent attendance by non-working children compared to 68.0 per cent by working children (**Figure 4.1**).

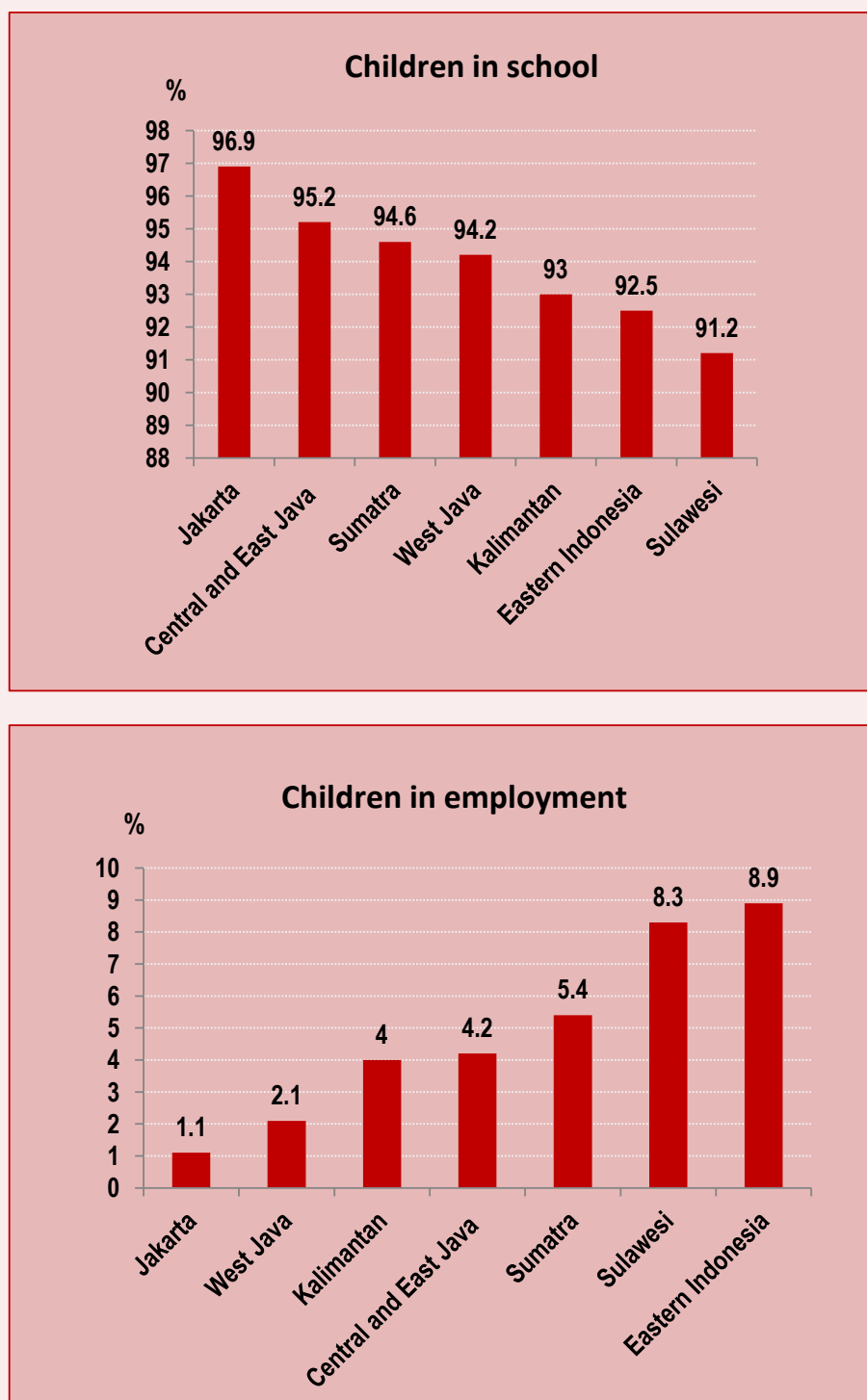
FIGURE 4.1: SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATES BY SEX, AGE GROUP AND WORKING STATUS



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

The recent study of UCW has shown the strong relationship between access to education and levels of children in employment for children aged 10 to 14 years old by provinces, highlighting particular challenges in the eastern part of Indonesia.⁴⁴

FIGURE 4.2: PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN IN SCHOOL AND IN EMPLOYMENT



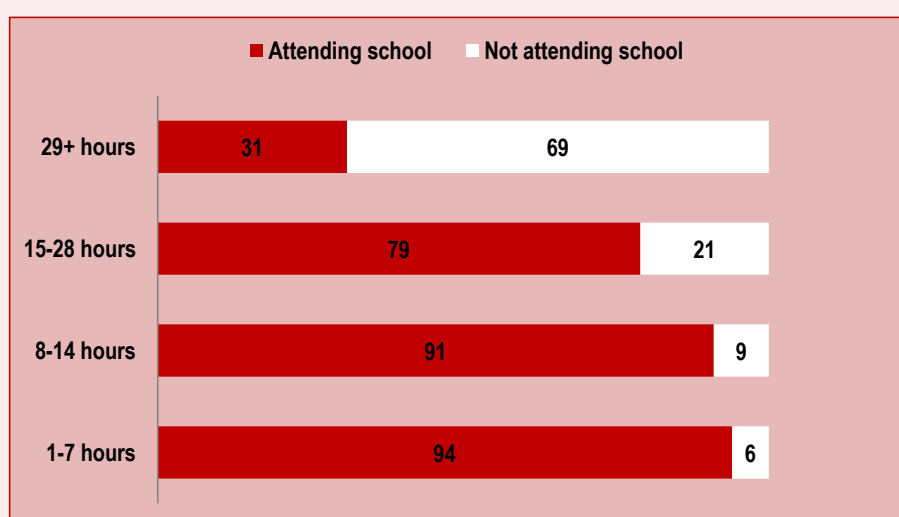
Source: UCW Report.

⁴⁴ UCW: Understanding children's work and youth employment outcomes in Indonesia, Draft version (Rome, December 2011).

THE ROLE OF WORKING HOURS ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Children who work long hours are less likely to attend school. On average working children who attend school spend 12.2 hours per week in employment. **Figure 4.3** below shows the school attendance rate of working children by grouped hours of work each week. The negative effect of long working hours on children's school attendance can be seen. Whereas, 94 per cent of children working between 1 and 7 hours per week are attending school, as hours increase to 15 hours and more per week 79 per cent of working children are attending school. Only 31 per cent of children working more than 29 hours per week are attending school.

FIGURE 4.3: SCHOOL ATTENDANCE RATES OF WORKING CHILDREN 7-15 YEARS OLD BY GROUPED HOURS OF WORK PER WEEK

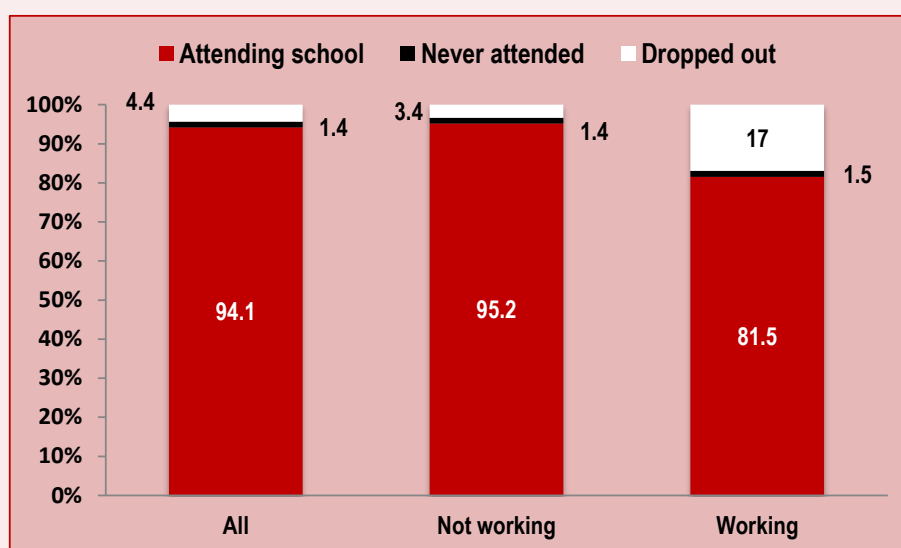


Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

SCHOOL EXPOSURE OF CHILDREN BY WORKING STATUS

Overall, 1.4 per cent of children in the compulsory school age group have never attended school in Indonesia and 4.4 per cent have dropped out (**Figure 4.4**). The school exposure of children by working status shows that the engagement of the child in economic activity negatively influences school attendance rates. Children who are not working are more likely to attend school (95.2%) than their non-working counterparts (81.5%). Children who have attended school but are not in school any more are categorized as drop-outs. Children who are working have a higher risk of dropping out (17%) compared to non-working children (3.4%).

FIGURE 4.4: SCHOOL EXPOSURE OF CHILDREN BY WORKING STATUS

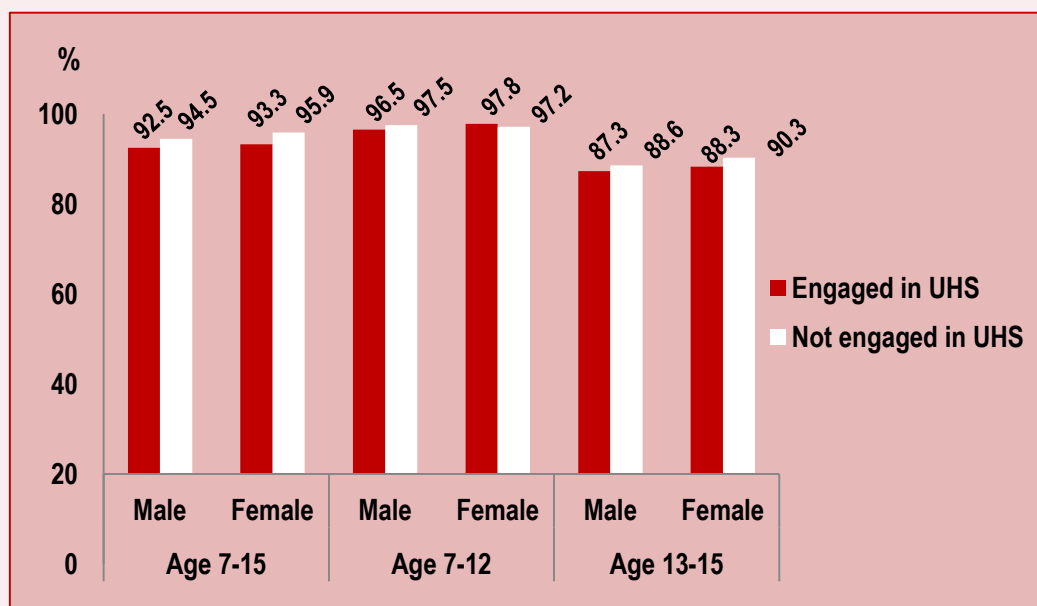


Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

4.2 IMPACT OF UNPAID HOUSEHOLD SERVICES ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

When examining school attendance rates of children in terms of involvement in unpaid household activities, little variation in boy's and girl's school attendance was observed (**Figure 4.5**). 92.5 per cent of boys aged 7-15 years old performing unpaid household services are attending school compared to 94.5 per cent of boys who are not engaged in this type of work. Among girls, these rates are 93.3 per cent and 95.9 per cent, respectively. The difference in school attendance rates is slightly more pronounced for girls aged 13-15 years old. Probably, due to the relatively small number of hours spent in it, the unpaid household services do not appear to have a large effect on school attendance.

FIGURE 4.5: SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY UNPAID HOUSEHOLD SERVICES ACTIVITIES



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

CHAPTER 5: OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

In this chapter we focus on the out of school children population. Who are the children that are excluded from schooling? A clearer picture of this group is important for design of policy and programme interventions.

5.1 DEFINITION OF OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AND REASON FOR FOCUS

The previous sections of this report indicated that involvement in work in Indonesia appears to interfere with the ability of children to attend and benefit from schooling. There is growing interest in learning more about the out of school children. How many children are out of school? Who are these out of school children? Why are they out of school? What do they do with their time? Whilst we cannot answer all of these questions, analysis of the ICLS does allow us to learn more about how these children spend their time, how much time they are working, and where they are. The answer to these questions could be important in the design of policies that address this issue and, in practice, to bring out of school children into the classroom. In order to help consider these issues, the ICLS data has been further examined, looking at information on the situation of out of school children in the ICLS.

Out of school children are considered by UNESCO to be those who had no exposure to school during the school year in question. All other children are considered to be participating in school if they attended at any point during the reference period, no matter to what extent they were absent or whether they later dropped out. According to the UNESCO 2005 report on “Children out of school: Measuring exclusion from primary school” primary school age children are counted as being in school when they are participating either in primary or secondary education; however, primary school age children in pre-primary education are counted as out of school. The numbers of out of school children who are part of the lower secondary school age category are counted in the same way thus including children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school.⁴⁵

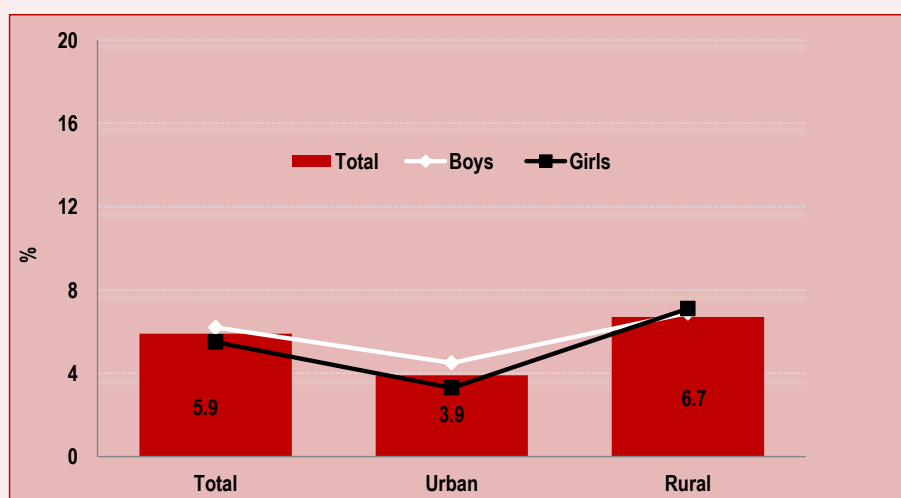
The total population of children out of school is the sum of primary school age and lower secondary school age children out of school.

⁴⁵ UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children- Conceptual and Methodological Framework, March 2011.

5.2 TOTAL POPULATION OF CHILDREN OUT OF SCHOOL

Based on ICLS 2009 data, it is estimated that a total of 2,365,700 children aged 7-15 were out of school in Indonesia in 2009. This represents 5.9 per cent of the total child population in this age group (**Figure 5.1**). The rate is 6.2 per cent among boys and 5.5 per cent among girls. The rate of children out-of-school is higher in rural Indonesia, where 6.7 per cent of all primary and lower secondary school-age children are not in education

FIGURE 5.1: OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN BY SEX AND PLACE OF RESIDENCE



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

The estimates above are broadly consistent with recent estimates produced by the UNICEF-UIS Out of School Children Initiative, which reported that 2.5 million children aged 7-15 are out of school (1.4 million of boys and 1.1 million of girls), based on SUSENAS 2009 data⁴⁶.

It should however be noted that using a narrower age group of 10-14, the UCW report provides a figure for out of school children of 1,652,000.

5.3 PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN OUT OF SCHOOL

783,000 primary aged children were estimated to be out of school in 2009 using ICLS data (**Table 5.1**). This represents around 2.9 per cent of children. (2.6 per cent 3.3 per cent boys). In absolute terms this represents 337,000 girls and 446,000 boys. Boys make up, 57 per cent of Indonesia's out of school children.

⁴⁶ Out of School Children Global Initiative, Indonesia Country Study, Seminar Riset Kebijakan Pendidikan Anak di Indonesia, Tangerang 17 November 2011.

There is a significant difference between the prevalence of out of school children in urban (1.9%) and rural (3.4%) areas. 79.5 per cent of all children of primary school age who are out of school live in rural areas.

TABLE 5.1: DISTRIBUTION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN OUT-OF-SCHOOL BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Primary school age children	Total	Boys	Girls
Urban children out of school (,000)	161	109*	51*
<i>The rate of children out of school in urban areas</i>	(1.9 %)	(2.4 %)	(1.8 %)
Rural children out of school (,000)	622	337	286
<i>The rate of children out of school in rural areas</i>	(3.4 %)	(3.7 %)	(3.2 %)
Total children out of school (,000)	783	446	337

*Due to the small number of observations, this figure should be interpreted with caution.
Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

5.4 LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN OUT OF SCHOOL

The total number of children of lower secondary school age who are out of school is estimated to be around 1,583,000, which is 11.6 per cent of the total child population aged between 13-15 years. In absolute terms this represents 753,000 girls (11.2%) and 830,000 boys (12%). Boys constitute 52.4 per cent of the lower secondary school age children who are out of school.

The table 5.2 presents the rates of out-of-school children by place of residence. Among children of lower secondary school age who are out of school, 75.1 per cent live in rural areas. In urban areas, 6.2 per cent of eligible girls are not in school, compared to 8 per cent of boys. In rural areas, the proportion of children of lower secondary age that are not in school is 14.7 per cent and in absolute numbers, the out of school children in rural areas is higher among boys than girls. The percentage of excluded children from lower secondary school in rural areas is nearly identical among boys and girls.

TABLE 5.2: DISTRIBUTION OF LOWER SECONDARY SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN OUT-OF-SCHOOL BY PLACE OF RESIDENCE

Lower secondary age children	Total	Boys	Girls
Urban children out of school (,000)	394	222	171
<i>The rate of children out of school in urban areas</i>	(7.1 %)	(8 %)	(6.2 %)
Rural children out of school (,000)	1,190	608	582
<i>The rate of children out of school in rural areas</i>	(14.7 %)	(14.8)	(14.7 %)
Total children out of school (,000)	1,583	830	753

Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

The Out of School Children Initiative reports that the highest percentage of out of school children in Indonesia is found in Papua, West Papua, NTT, Gorontalo and West Sulawesi and highest absolute numbers are found in provinces of Java⁴⁷.

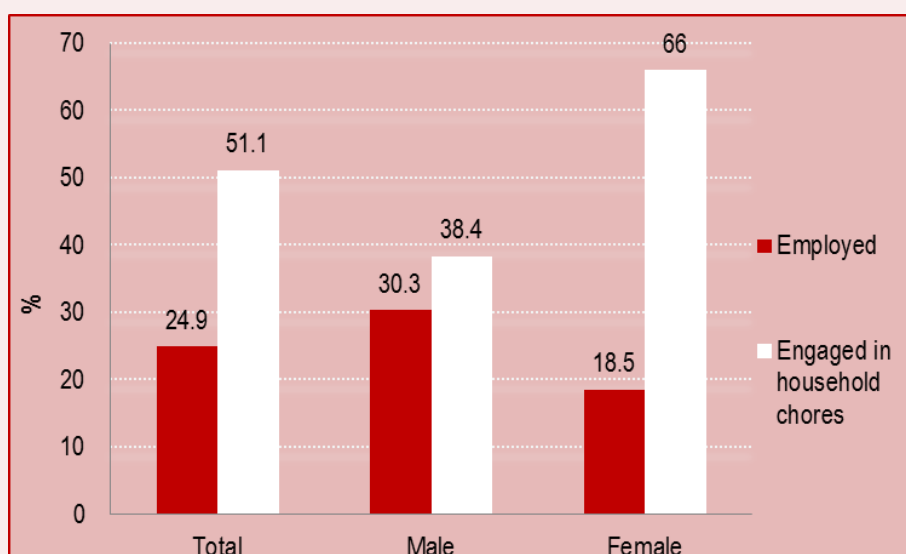
5.5 ACTIVITIES OF CHILDREN OUT OF SCHOOL

The figure below presents the proportion of children out of school who are engaged in employment and who are engaged in unpaid household services (**Figure 5.2**). Around one out of four children excluded from school are working. Boys who are out of school are more engaged in economic activities (30.3%) compared to girls in the same group (18.5%).

When engagement in household chores is observed, a total of 51.1 per cent of children who are out of school are found performing household chores. The gender difference is marked: 66 per cent of girls compared to 38.4 of boys who are out of school are engaged in unpaid household services.

⁴⁷ Out of School Children Global Initiative, Indonesia Country Study, Seminar Riset Kebijakan Pendidikan Anak di Indonesia, Tangerang, 17 November 2011.

FIGURE 5.2: ACTIVITY STATUS OF OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

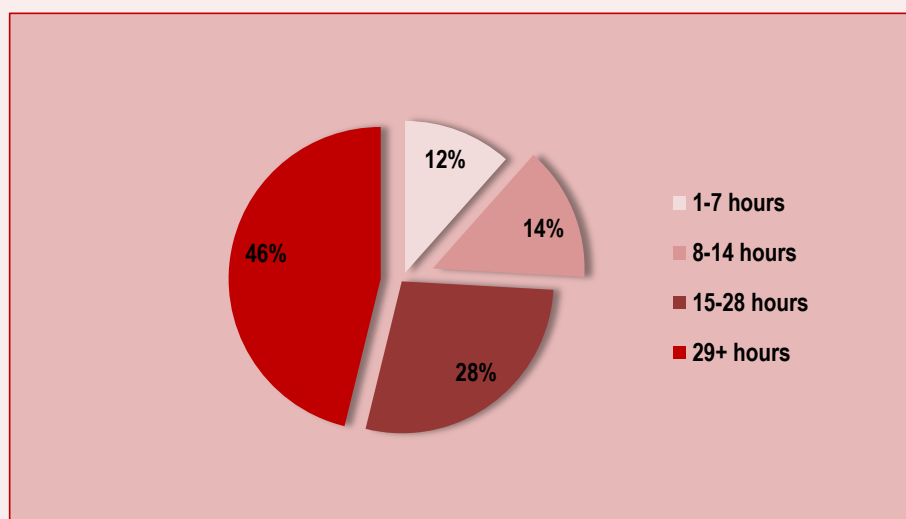


Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN BY WORKING HOURS

Employment is particularly time intensive for out of school children. Only 12 per cent of children excluded from school spend between 1-7 hours at their job. Around 46 per cent of children who are out of school work more than 29 hours a week (**Figure 5.3**).

FIGURE 5.3: DISTRIBUTION OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL WORKING CHILDREN BY WORKING HOURS

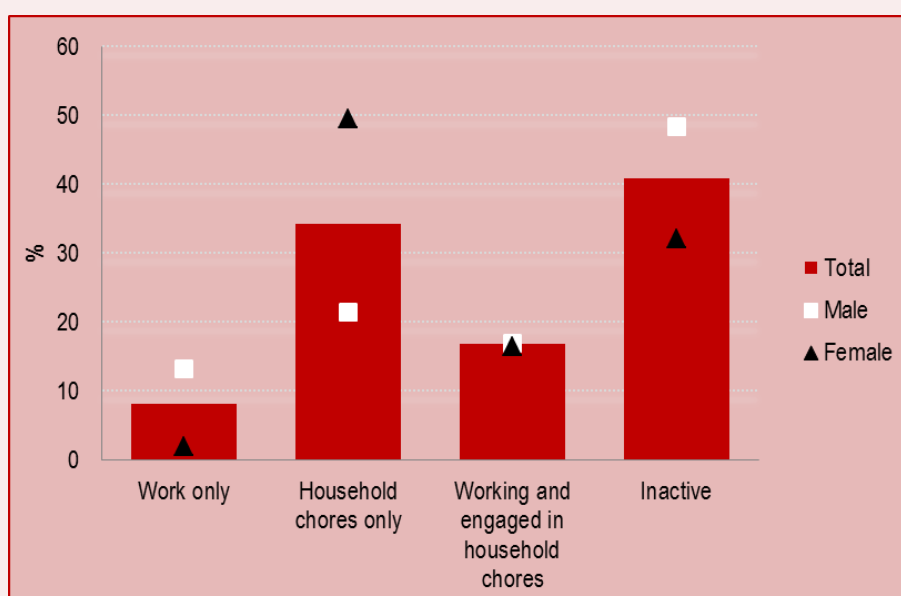


Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

The figure below (Figure 5.4) indicates the involvement of children who are out of school in combinations of household chores and economic activity. The gender difference appears clearly in the figure below. Girls are overrepresented in non-economic activities such as work in their 'own household'. Boys and girls often work both outside and inside the house. Around 17 per cent of children out of school are engaged in both activities. Very few girls are in employment without helping out in their own household.

Interestingly, around 41 per cent of children out of school are neither engaged in an economic activity nor performing household chores. They appear to be inactive, and the proportion of boys in this group of children is much higher than that of girls: 48 per cent and 32 per cent, respectively

FIGURE 5.4: MULTIPLE ACTIVITIES OF OUT OF SCHOOL CHILDREN BY SEX



Source: Calculation based on micro-data from ICLS 2009.

CONCLUSIONS

KEY FINDINGS

Indonesia has made significant progress in ensuring that children have access to education and in reducing child labour. Since the 1970s, Indonesia's school enrolment rates have increased steadily. Net enrolment at primary level now stands at 95 per cent and gross enrolment ratio at lower secondary level is 88 per cent. Government programmes introduced in the recent past, including the BOS programme, the conditional cash transfer programme and school building programmes have all contributed to this progress.

However whilst the general picture of progress is very positive, there remain areas of disadvantage. There are some significant disparities between and within provinces, with provinces in the eastern part of Indonesia showing least progress.

There is a clear correlation between the concentration of working children and child labour with progress in education. Provinces with the highest number of children enrolled have the lowest rate of child labour.

Based on the findings of the 2009 ICLS, a total of 3,172,000 children between 7-15 years of age are estimated to be working in Indonesia. This number corresponds to 7.9 per cent of all children in this age group. Not all of the work undertaken by children would be regarded as child labour. With a minimum age of employment of 15, taking the narrower age group of 5-14 the ICLS found that 3 per cent of children in this age group could be categorized as being involved in child labour.

It is important to understand more about the nature of children's activities outside school and the extent to which they may act as a barrier to their attendance or achievement in education. Some of the key points are:

- While many children combine school with work, the difference in school attendance between working and non-working children is marked. Among children aged 7-15 the school attendance rate is 95.2 per cent for non-working children but decreases to 81.5 per cent for working children. Among children aged 13-15 who are not working attendance is 91 per cent, but falls to 71.8 per cent among working children. The difference is most marked among older boys, which shows 91.7 per cent attendance by non-working children compared to 68.0 per cent by working children.
- The correlation between the drop-out rates of children according to working status is significant. The drop-out rate is 17 per cent for working children compared to 3.4 per cent for non-working children.

- The negative effect of long working hours on school attendance is clear. Whereas, 94 per cent of children working between 1 and 7 hours per week are attending school, as hours increase to 15 hours and more per week 79 per cent of working children are attending school. Only 31 per cent of children working more than 29 hours per week attend school.
- 79.5 per cent of all children primary school age who are out of school live in rural areas.
- Children's involvement in work is more prevalent in rural areas than in urban areas. 81.4 per cent of all working children in Indonesia reside in rural areas.
- Most children that work (85.7 per cent of those working) are working as unpaid family workers.
- Children who work spend on average 15.6 hours per week working. For more than half (51.8%), work is an activity that is performed every day of the week, it is a part of the daily life of the children.
- 42.4 per cent of children between 7-15 are performing household chores. The proportion of girls performing chores is much higher than that of boys, and this difference increases with age.
- Among out of school children who are out of school 66 per cent of girls compared to 38.4 per cent of boys are found performing household chores.

POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This report has its primary focus on data – using data to see what we know about what children are doing with their time and how this may be relevant for planning to boost education and tackle child labour. The report does not examine the broader issues related to school attendance and child labour - the root causes that relate to poverty, social exclusion, broader social norms and inadequate education infrastructure. However drawing on the picture of child labour and education and recent developments in Indonesia there are some important messages.

- Whilst very important progress has been made in increasing access to education there remain areas of disadvantage between and within provinces. In these areas much still needs to be done to increase enrolment and retention. A renewed effort to target children and families is required in these areas.
- The governments' new master plan for Economic Development envisages a major "leap forward" by Indonesia's economy. This is unlikely be achieved without enhancing the quality of basic education and development of effective tertiary and vocational education. Therefore there is a strong economic motive for prioritizing education and skills on the national agenda.

- It is evident that as children work longer, attendance at school falls. A public awareness campaign focusing on the difference between light work which does not disrupt education, and excessive hours that do, could play a useful role. This broad advocacy and awareness raising work can play an important part in changing public attitudes.
- There is a group of children that have never attended school. Leaving aside children too young to have entered, there are three primary reasons, disability, costs, and availability of a school. These three factors need to be addressed through policy and programme interventions.
- One Roof schools appear to have gone from being a minor part of the education strategy, to playing a more prominent role in the effort to achieve education for all. This is a welcome development helping to reach previously unreached children. The impact of One Roof schools on out of school children and child labour should be closely monitored.
- Working children have a considerable risk of dropping out from schools. Efforts to identify why children are dropping out and prevent dropout should be considered a priority. A review of how the Education management Information system could be used to identify districts or schools requiring particular attention could be valuable. In this connection it would also be valuable to consider how teacher training programmes could include greater attention to monitoring of children vulnerable to drop out.
- There is a mixed picture on non-formal education for out of school children, with serious concerns about quality standards. A review of “second chance” education and broader education for youth interventions could assist in developing future strategy in this area.

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