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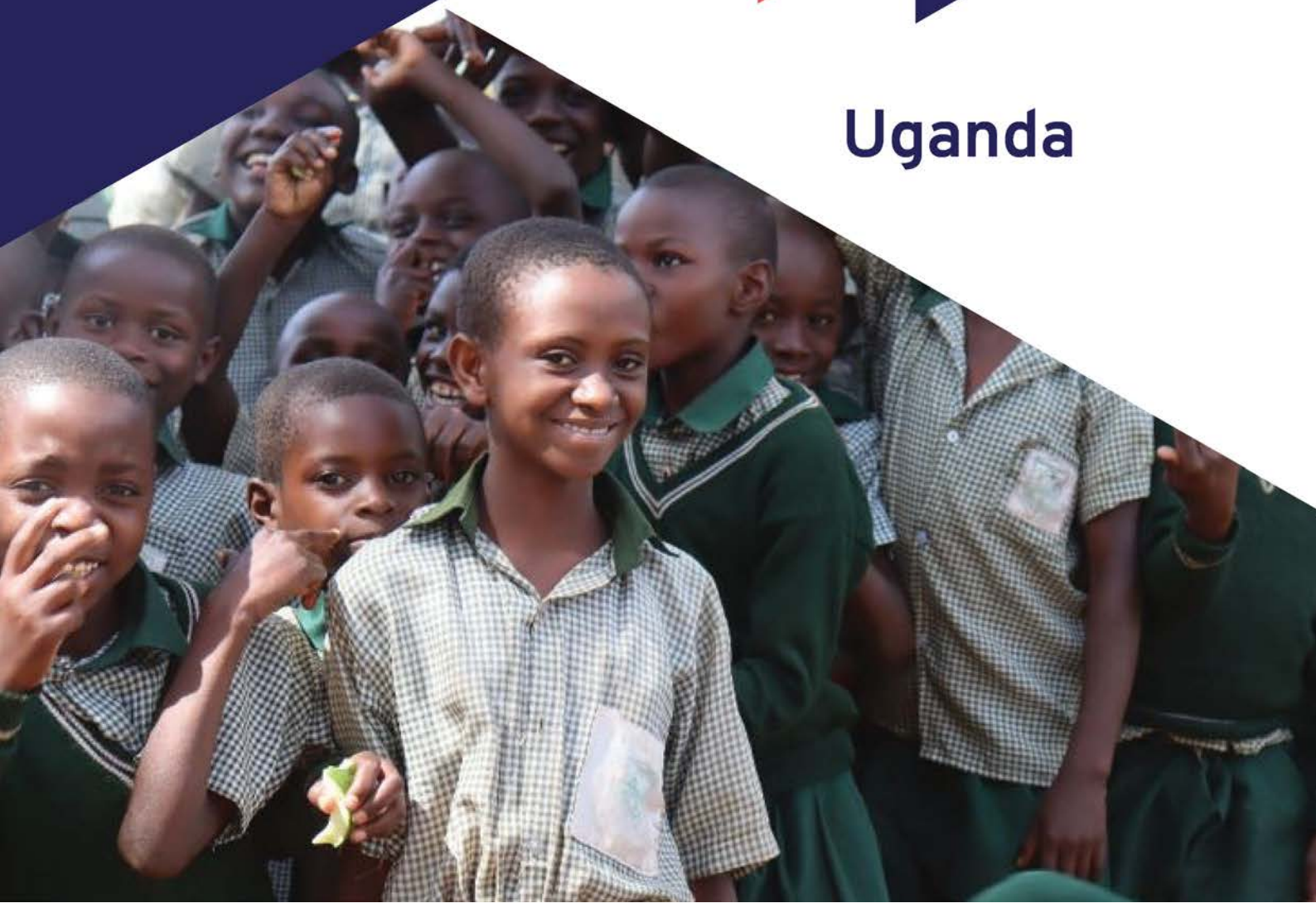
Identifying productive strategies for inclusion and economic empowerment in the eradication and prevention of child labour in Uganda: Mapping and analysis of the coffee and tea supply chains

Uganda



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Abbreviations and acronyms

BCU	Bugisu Cooperative Union
BOU	Bank of Uganda
CAADP	Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
COVID-19	Coronavirus disease 2019
DCDO	District Community Development Officer
DLG	District Local Government
EAC	East African Community
FGD	focus group discussion
FPRW	Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work
GDP	gross domestic product
HFIES	Household Food security and the Food Insecurity Experience Scale
ICO	International Coffee Organisation
IPEC	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour
KII	key informant interview
MAAIF	Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries
MGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
MOFPED	Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development
MT	metric tonnes
NARO	National Agricultural Research Organization
NGO	non-governmental organization
NOTU	National Organisation of Trade Unions
NPA	National Planning Authority
NPC	National Population Council
NUCAFE	National Union of Coffee Agribusinesses and Farm Enterprises
NUPAW	National Union of Plantation and Agricultural Workers
OWC	Operation Wealth Creation

SACCO	Savings and Credit Cooperative Organization
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UCDA	Uganda Coffee Development Authority
UCF	Uganda Coffee Federation
UCFA	Uganda Coffee Farmers Alliance
UCW	Understanding Children's Work (joint project)
UGX	Uganda shillings
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPF	Uganda Police Force
UGCPTA	Uganda Quality Coffee Processors and Traders Association
VHT	Village Health Team/Voluntary Health Team
VSLA	village savings and loan association
WHO	World Health Organization

Executive summary

According to global estimates, in 2020 the agriculture sector accounted for 70 per cent of all child labour worldwide, with 62 million child labourers in African agriculture, the majority in family agriculture (ILO and UNICEF 2021). In Uganda, about two million children aged between five and 17 years are estimated to be engaged in some form of child labour; 20 per cent of rural children are child labourers (UBOS 2018a and b).

Uganda is a predominantly agrarian economy where coffee and tea are grown in many countryside districts. Coffee is grown in over 80 districts and remains the main foreign exchange earner for the country, contributing 15 per cent of total goods exports with forecasts showing a possible 11 per cent increase in production (UCDA and ICO 2019; ICO 2020; UCDA 2021). On the other hand, Uganda is Africa's second largest tea producer and exporter, after Kenya (Munyambonera, Lakuma, and Guloba 2014; Lakal, Kahuda and Munyambonera 2019; Matsiko 2019). However, coffee and tea supply chains are known to use child labour, especially at the production stage and in small-scale farming (UBOS 2018a), hence the need for this study.

The study was commissioned by the International Labour Organization (ILO) to implement a systemic analysis of the tea and coffee supply chains using a market system development approach while integrating the Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW) methodology from the perspective of eradicating child labour. The study was informed by the ILO project "Accelerating Action for the Elimination of Child Labour in Supply Chains in Africa" (ACCEL Africa), which aims to develop targeted interventions to eliminate child labour. ACCEL Africa is a regional project with a national, regional and local level focus in terms of activity implementation. Its interventions are anchored in public policy and good governance, empowerment and representation as well as partnership and knowledge sharing among global supply chain actors working in Africa.

The objectives of this study were to:

- Generate data-driven knowledge on the coffee and tea supply chains in Uganda and foster a better understanding of the root causes of the different forms of child labour and forced labour and other FPRW challenges along the target supply chains.

- Map and analyse the coffee and tea supply chains in Uganda to establish diagnostics on FPRW for men and women in the selected sectors, with a specific focus on the identification of productive inclusion and economic empowerment strategies for the eradication and prevention of child labour.

- Highlight possible interventions that can address the identified child labour, forced labour and FPRW issues in the coffee and tea supply chains. In this respect, enable the project to contribute towards the strengthening of capacities of national partners to promote FPRW in the different tiers of the target supply chains especially where child labour and forced labour are present, by upgrading the current economic activities of the coffee and tea producing communities, and more broadly executing social and economic empowerment strategies.

The study was carried out in Eastern, Central and Western Uganda, the leading producers of coffee (Arabica and Robusta) and tea and where the ACCEL Africa project mainly targets coffee and tea chain interventions on ending child labour. Mbale District was selected in Eastern Uganda; Buikwe in Central region; and in Western region, Kikuube (formerly in Hoima), Kabarole and Bushenyi Districts were selected since the project already had interventions there. The study involved collecting primary data through farmer and trader surveys of households engaged in coffee and tea production, marketing and working on tea and coffee plantations and estates. The household farmer survey involved interviewing parents and children separately. The children were categorized by sex and by age group (5-11 years, 12-15 years, and 15-17 years). Other supply chain actors such as traders, farm/estate and factory workers (young and old), and employers including the tea and coffee companies and cottage/small-scale tea processors, tea and coffee traders, and exporters were also interviewed in a trader survey as well as in key informant interviews.

A total of 371 household interviews were held in the three regions (Eastern, Central and Western Uganda). Qualitative data were collected from 17 key informants while a total of 10 focus group discussions (FGDs) involving 100 children and parents separately were also held. In addition, seven children were identified as child labourers and their own stories and family profiles captured. Explorative and descriptive analysis was employed to analyse the data from household and trader surveys. A market systems development approach was used in the analysis and understanding of the complex interplay of the various coffee and tea supply chain actors and their incentives. Qualitative data were analysed by cataloguing the evidence collected, creating themes and linkages, and rating it in terms of relevance and consistence with the emerging issues related to child labour and FPRW using context analysis.

Key study findings

Child labour clearly exists within the coffee and tea supply chains in Uganda, some of it visible and some hidden and disguised as family work or "children assisting parents". Results indicated that about 65 per cent of children were involved in some form of casual farm work, while about 40 per cent were involved in other jobs. Over 90 per cent of the children were engaged in jobs on the farm while 1 per cent indicated that they work at coffee factories, with none at tea factories. Although both sectors employ children, the coffee supply chain has between 20 and 75 per cent child labour, depending on location, while in the tea sector the percentage of children ranges between 5 and 10 per cent according to key informants. The extent of child labour is also reflected in high school dropouts and child marriages where 4 to 10 per cent of the sampled children aged between five and 17 years were found to be married.

In terms of farm work, children were mainly involved in weeding, harvesting and planting of coffee; over 70 per cent of the children indicated they are involved in such farm activities with higher percentages in coffee than the tea sector. Results also indicated that 31 per cent of coffee farms and 76 per cent of tea farms hire labour on top of using family labour. The children indicated that they spend 3.8 hours a day weeding tea as compared to 3.9 hours weeding coffee while they spend five hours harvesting both crops; yet over 60 per cent of the children indicated that they work for more than five hours a day.

Across the two sectors, there are clearly large wage gaps between children and adults. For instance, on a weekly basis, adults earn five times higher wages than children in coffee and tea while on the very common "piece-work based" system, adults earn 20 times more than children in the coffee sector and 10 times more in the tea sector. Only 1 per cent of the children and 24 per cent (36 per cent in tea and 5 per cent in coffee) of the adults in the coffee and tea sectors had written contracts for the paid work they do at the farm or estate. About 12 per cent of the children showed total dislike for the jobs they do, with 13 per cent of these in the coffee and 11 per cent in the tea sector, while 22 per cent of the children indicated that given an alternative, they wouldn't continue with their current jobs.

A closer look at the two sectors indicated that tea-growing households earn higher and more uniform seasonal incomes than coffee growers. Coffee-growing households earn about 1.5 million Ugandan shillings (UGX) in the main season while tea growers earn about UGX 1.8 million a season. In terms of marketing outlets, coffee-growing households have a diversity of marketing channels that range from factories, traders, collection centres and cooperatives/farmer associations while tea growers on the other hand have mainly two channels that include factories/estates and traders/agents.

Downstream from the coffee and tea supply chains, small- to medium-scale trader businesses are dominant especially in coffee with fewer large-scale aggregators and processors/exporters. Over 85 per cent of these supply chain actors are sole operators of their businesses. Value in terms of incomes earned increases downstream in the tea and coffee supply chains. Tea processors earn an average gross income of about UGX 1.6 billion per season while a coffee processor earns a seasonal gross income of UGX 83 million and a coffee aggregator or cooperative earns about UGX 2.5 billion.

Recommendations

- More sensitization and awareness programmes on child labour should be carried out at village and parish levels, as it seems that awareness, and strictness in enforcement and inspection, exist only at the processing and exportation levels.
- Inspection, monitoring and evaluation of programmes on child labour should be carried out at district, parish and village levels.
- The wage and price gaps along the coffee and tea supply chains need to be narrowed, since children below 14 years are allowed by law to start working at light jobs according to sections 32-34 of the Employment Act 2006.[1]
- There is need to develop and strengthen rehabilitation schools for children withdrawn from child labour and other child abuse cases.
- There is need to address the issue of poverty, vulnerability and social protection at household level, because child labour is a result of poverty. Child labour exists because the life-supporting systems are weak. In relation to this, technology change in the production system needs to be addressed to introduce affordable labour-saving technologies to relieve the need to employ children.

1 The Employment Act in section 32 provides: "A child under the age of 12 years shall not be employed in any business, undertaking or work place"; and "A child shall not be employed in any employment or work, which is injurious to his or her health, dangerous or hazardous or otherwise unsuitable. A child shall not be employed between the hours 7 p.m. and 7 a.m."

- Taking advantage of existing structures in Uganda, the Government and other stakeholders can benefit from the organization structure under the District Local Governments (DLGs), Uganda Police Force (UPF) and Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD), which are well placed to engage with will and skill in the fight against child labour.

- The high will but low skill of the parents and guardians of working children, small-scale traders, cooperatives and Village Health Team (VHT) members and community volunteers to fight child labour in their communities can also be exploited. These only need more training, mentoring and tools to improve their skills and thus become empowered to unlock their potential.

- Strong law enforcement systems should be set in place, for instance where the Government sets up a system in which confidential informers are recruited within the community (as in the case of VHTs) to monitor and report those who are using child labour.

1. Introduction



The latest child labour global estimates indicate that 160 million children aged 5–17 years are engaged in child labour; 70 per cent of them are employed in agriculture while 60 per cent of them are boys (ILO and UNICEF 2021). In addition, the estimates show that the absolute numbers of children in child labour increased between 2016 and 2020: the number of children in child labour aged between 5 and 11 years old increased by 16.8 million, of whom 6.5 million were in hazardous work (ILO and UNICEF 2021). What is worrying is that the numbers of children in child labour may surge to 168.9 million if poverty increases and no mitigation measures are put in place – or, in a worst-case scenario, increase to 206.2 million if social protection safety nets break down as anticipated due to COVID-19.

The latest reports on child labour have shed light on the sub-Saharan Africa region, where the numbers of children in child labour have been increasing since 2012 to 86.6 million at present, accounting for 54.4 per cent of the global child labour numbers. The joint ILO and UNICEF report (2021) revealed that there are now more children in child labour in sub-Saharan Africa than in the rest of the world combined. The report indicates that in 2012, 2016 and 2020, the percentage of children aged 5–17 years in child labour in sub-Saharan Africa increased from 21.4 to 22.4 and 23.9 per cent respectively, while in other regions such as Asia and the Pacific, or Latin America and the Caribbean, the percentages are falling. It is estimated that there are 62 million children in child labour in African agriculture, the majority in family agriculture (ILO and UNICEF 2021).

Child labour in agriculture in Africa thus accounts for 40 per cent of all child labour in all sectors worldwide. Neither Africa nor the wider world will reach SDG target 8.7 unless child labour in African agriculture receives the attention it requires as the sector of highest prevalence and where action to eliminate child labour has had the least impact, due to specific institutional, social and economic challenges. Addressing the factors leading to a dependence of family farms on children's labour will therefore be critical to regional social and economic progress.

In Uganda, child labour is a significant social and economic problem. It constitutes a grave violation of children's rights to education and protection and is putting at risk the country's progress by limiting the potential of its future workforce. An estimated 2,048,000 children (aged 5–17) in Uganda are engaged in child labour according to the Uganda National Household Survey (UNHS) 2016/17 (UBOS 2018b). The educational achievement of these children is at risk because they either do not attend school or their schooling suffers from long hours dedicated to work.

1.1 The ACCEL Africa project

"Accelerating Action for the Elimination of Child Labour in Supply Chains in Africa" (ACCEL Africa) is an ILO regional project with particular focus on specific supply chains: those concerning cocoa, coffee, cotton, gold and tea. The project is currently being implemented in six countries – Côte d'Ivoire, Egypt, Malawi, Mali, Nigeria and Uganda. In Uganda, the ACCEL Africa project focuses on developing targeted interventions to eliminate child labour in the coffee and tea supply chains. Activities in the coffee and tea sectors are implemented at the national, regional and local levels, with a focus on the Western region for tea and the Eastern and Central regions for coffee, as the Eastern region of Uganda is known for aromatic Arabica coffee grown on the slopes of Mt. Elgon and Central Uganda is known for producing Robusta coffee.

Building on lessons learned from over 25 years of the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC) and overall ILO experience, the ACCEL Africa project focuses on public policy and good governance, empowerment and representation as well as partnership and knowledge sharing among global supply chain actors working in Africa. In addition, ACCEL Africa is supported by continuous research and identification of good practices from the project implementation and from other sources.

ACCEL Africa was initiated in November 2018 with a duration of four years. In its inception phase, the project held national consultations in the beneficiary countries to develop the country work plans. The project has been working with different stakeholders and partners to accelerate action against child labour in order to achieve Target 8.7 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on the elimination of child labour in all its forms by 2025.

This study is hence aimed at mapping and analysing the coffee and tea supply chains in Uganda while establishing a diagnostic on FPRW for men and women in the coffee and tea sectors, with a specific focus on the identification of productive inclusion and economic empowerment strategies for the eradication and prevention of child labour within the framework of the ACCEL Africa project. In particular, the study uses a market system development approach as a methodology, which allows analysis and understanding of the complex interplay of the different actors (including poor men, women, youth and other marginalized groups) and their incentives along the supply chain, as well as of market rules, regulations and supporting functions, with the final objective of identifying and tackling obstacles for more and better jobs. The final aim of the study is to specifically address the complex root causes of child labour that relate not only to issues of poverty and lack of income, but also to social norms, discrimination, legal environment, access to education, access to social protection, the state of labour relations and social dialogue at the different tiers of the targeted supply chain, the degree of informality of the different supply chain activities, and many other factors. In addition to the child labour dimension, this research focuses on the main concerns related to forced labour, discrimination, freedom of association and collective bargaining as key aspects of the FPRW.

1.1.1 The objectives of the study

The objectives of this study are thus:

- To generate data-driven knowledge on the coffee and tea supply chains and foster a better understanding of the root causes of the different forms of child labour and forced labour and other FPRW challenges along these supply chains in Uganda.
- To map and analyse the coffee and tea supply chains in Uganda to establish diagnostics on FPRW for men and women in the targeted sectors, with a specific focus on the identification of productive inclusion and economic empowerment strategies for the eradication and prevention of child labour.
- To highlight possible interventions that can address the identified child labour, forced labour and FPRW issues in the coffee and tea supply chains. In this respect, it will enable the project to contribute towards the strengthening of capacities of national partners along the different tiers of the target supply chains to promote FPRW (especially where child labour and forced labour are present), to upgrade the current economic activities of the coffee and tea producing communities, and to implement social and economic empowerment strategies.

1.1.2 Background to the study

Coffee is grown in over 80 districts in Uganda and remains the main foreign exchange earner for the country, contributing 15 per cent of total goods exports (4.8 million 60-kilogram bags were exported in 2017/18 worth US$554 million, representing 2.8 per cent of global coffee exports). Uganda's coffee production was forecast to increase by 10 per cent in the 2018/19 season due to favourable weather and sustained investment in new plants (under the national coffee replanting programme), as well as good agricultural practices that have increased productivity and harvests from newly matured plantations.

Uganda is Africa's second largest tea producer and exporter, after Kenya. Uganda exports at least 95 per cent of its crop, mainly through the world's biggest tea auction in Mombasa, Kenya. Favourable weather conditions and increased investments in tea, including as a result of diversification out of tobacco, have driven the increase in production. However, coffee and tea supply chains are known to use child labour, especially at the production stage and in small-scale farming.

The Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW) are enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of Uganda 1995, which prohibits child labour and sets the minimum age for work at 16 years. The legislative framework of Uganda on elimination of child labour includes the Employment Act 2006 which now sets the minimum age for work at 14 years; and the Education Act 2008 that provides for free and compulsory education from primary one, starting at the age of six years and continuing for seven years. There is therefore a need to harmonize the age for the completion of compulsory education and the minimum age for admission to work or employment. Child labour concerns have also been mainstreamed into the Second National Development Plan (NDP II) 2015/16–2019/20. The Alternative Care Framework promotes family-based care for children and facilitates access to suitable alternative care options for children deprived of parental care. The National Strategy for Youth Employment in Agriculture, launched in 2017, aims to create decent and gainful employment in agriculture. It focuses specific interventions on youth aged 14−17.

Despite these regulatory frameworks there are challenges in the enforcement and implementation of the laws and policies. In Uganda, child labour can be observed in almost all supply chains including agriculture, fishing, manufacturing, mining, services and construction. The 2011/12 National Child Labour Force and Child Activities Survey report shows that a total of two million children aged five to 17 years were in child labour (approximately 16 per cent of the total number of children); the Uganda National Housing Survey (UNHS) 2016/17 showed a total of 2,048,000 children in child labour out of the total 8,973,000. The population disaggregated by sex of the five- to 11-year-olds involved in child labour was almost equal (19 and 16 per cent for boys and girls respectively), but there was a wide variation by residence. The proportion was higher among rural children (20 per cent) compared to those living in urban areas (7 per cent).

Regional disaggregation shows that the Eastern region had the highest proportion of working children aged five to 11 years (31 per cent) compared to less than 1 per cent in Kampala City. The Northern region had the highest proportion of working children aged 12 to13 years who were in non-light work economic activities or hazardous work (17 per cent compared to Kampala City at 1 per cent). According to the UNHS survey of 2016/17 (UBOS 2018b), 289,000 children (17 per cent) aged 12 to 13 years were in hazardous work. The proportion was slightly higher for males (14 per cent) compared to females (11 per cent) and also higher in rural areas (14 per cent) compared to urban areas (5 per cent). The Government is committed to eliminating child labour and has launched the new National Action Plan for the Elimination of Child Labour 2020/2021-2024/2025 with the goal of reducing the incidence of all forms of child labour from 45.6 to 40 per cent.

1.1.3 Scope of the study

The research was carried out in Eastern,[2] Central and Western Uganda, given that the ACCEL Africa project mainly targets these regions for coffee and tea chain interventions respectively. In addition, these regions are the leading Arabica coffee and tea producers in Uganda. According to the Uganda Tea Association, tea is mainly grown on the slopes of Mountain Rwenzori and along the Lake Victoria crescent in the districts of Bushenyi, Hoima, Kabarole, Kanungu, Kibaale, Kisoro, Mbarara, Mukono, Mityana, Rukungiri and Wakiso (see also Munyambonera, Lakuma, and Guloba 2014). Of these 11 districts, eight are from the Western region of Uganda.

In terms of target respondents and subjects, this study covers children and their parents and guardians. The children are categorized by sex and by age group (5–11 years, 12−15 years, and 15–17 years).[3] Respondents included farmers, traders, farm/estate and factory workers (young and old), and employers including the tea and coffee companies and cottage/small scale tea processors, tea and coffee traders, and exporters.

1.2 Uganda's macroeconomic situation

Uganda's real gross domestic product (GDP) growth in 2020 was projected to be between 0.4 and 1.7 per cent compared to 5.6 per cent in 2019 (table 1.1). Exports, tourism, remittances, foreign direct investment and portfolio flows shrunk during the second half of 2019/20 due to international trade disruptions and restrictions on the movement of people. This has created significant fiscal and external imbalance and a deceleration in growth in services, primarily in real estate activities and ICT. It is estimated that the medium-term outlook is also not favourable for Uganda. The decline in Uganda's real GDP growth and the corresponding loss of jobs could be even larger if the country faces a more widespread COVID-19 pandemic in addition to the effects of the locust invasions, further deterring a rapid economic recovery (*The Independent* 2020).

▶ Table 1.1. The economy of Uganda: A summary, 2015–20

	Year					
	2015	**2016**	**2017**	**2018**	**2019**	**2020**
Population (millions)	35.5	36.6	37.7	38.8	39.8	46.21
GDP per capita (US$)	829	835	837	867	912	823
GDP (US$ billions)	29.4	30.5	31.5	33.7	36.3	33.93
Economic growth (GDP, annual variation in %)	6.0	0.6	7.2	6.0	5.6	-4.32
Fiscal balance (% of GDP)	-3.9	-4.1	-3.2	-3.8	-6.7	-39.83
Public debt (% of GDP)	34.3	37.1	39.7	41.4	43.6	40.24
Money (annual variation in %)	5.6	13.5	15.4	6.3	16.2	-
Inflation rate (CPI, annual variation in %, eop)	8.4	5.7	3.3	2.2	3.6	3.9
Inflation rate (CPI, annual variation in %)	5.4	5.5	5.6	2.6	2.9	2.3
Policy interest rate (%)	17.00	12.00	9.50	10.00	9.00	7.00
Exchange rate (vs US$)	3,372	3,610	3,645	3,715	3,670	3,773
Exchange Rate (vs US$, aop)	3,240	3,418	3,612	3,728	3,704	3723
Current account (% of GDP)	-6.2	-2.8	-4.5	-7.2	-9.5	-9.7
Current account balance (US$ billions)	-1.7	-0.8	-1.5	-2.3	-2.3	-3.6
Trade balance (US$ billions)	-2.3	-1.6	-1.7	-2.5	-2.7	-2.45
Exports (US$ billions)	2.7	2.9	3.4	3.6	4.1	2.7
Imports (US$ billions)	5.0	4.5	5.2	6.1	6.8	5.1
Exports (annual variation in %)	-2.1	9.5	18.1	5.6	11.9	-34
Imports (annual variation in %)	-2.8	-8.8	14.3	18.1	11.7	-25
International reserves (US$ billions)	2.8	3.0	3.7	3.2	3.2	
External debt (% of GDP)	32.5	33.0	37.1	36.6	-	

Notes: [1]Population as at 23 October 2020. [2]https://tradingeconomics.com/uganda/indicators. [3]Uganda, MOFPED 2020a.
[4]World Bank 2021. [5]Figures in green are calculated for January 2020 to August 2020. https://tradingeconomics.com/uganda/exports.
Source: Bank of Uganda, 2020.

2 Mbale district was selected in Eastern Uganda and Buikwe in Central region since the project has interventions there.

3 This follows the ILO age classifications and Understanding Children's Work (UCW) – an inter-agency research partnership between the ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank.

1.2.1 Private and non-farm sector

The domestic business community is young, with most businesses (90 per cent) being micro, small and medium-sized enterprises. The majority operate in the informal sector, mainly in light manufacturing and retail. Enterprises are fragmented and weakly integrated into the national, regional and global industrial value chains and markets (FSD 2016). They are further characterized by low and declining productivity, low levels of product, process and organization innovation, low competitiveness (due to high operating costs and unstable product quality), informality, weak governance standards and limited access to finance (UBOS 2011). Over the past decades, growth in non-farm self-employment, and to a lesser extent wage employment, has contributed to raising incomes of the bottom 40 per cent.

1.2.2 Poverty and inequality

Past economic growth contributed to reducing poverty at national poverty lines from 56.4 per cent in 1993 to 24.5 and 19.7 per cent in 2009 and 2013 respectively.[4] Uganda therefore met the 2015 Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 1 target of halving poverty. However, despite this progress, many Ugandans remain vulnerable to slipping back into poverty – for every three Ugandans that escape poverty, two falls back (*The Independent* 2020). The national poverty headcount ratio has worsened in recent years, rising once more to 21.4 per cent in 2016/17, the date of the most recent household survey (UBOS 2018b). Similarly, "extreme poverty", the internationally recognized poverty headcount ratio at US$1.90 per day, increased from 35.9 per cent in 2012 to 41.7 per cent in 2016. The 2018 Human Development Index value for Uganda was 0.528, ranking it 159th out of 189 countries, though below the average for other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Poverty and vulnerability remain primarily a rural phenomenon (where 89 per cent of the poor live with large families and households relying on farming as their main source of income, compared to 11 per cent in urban areas).

In addition, Uganda's poverty reduction and economic growth have not been inclusive, leading to a persistence of inequality. Over the last two decades, the Gini Index – measuring income inequality – has fluctuated between 40 and 45 per cent. Inequality is most pronounced in terms of location (rural versus urban), region (Northern and Eastern regions compared to the rest of the country), age and sex. The three main demographic causes are high annual population growth rates, high fertility rates among low-income households, and a burgeoning youth[5] demographic with almost half Uganda's population below the age of 15 years old and 78 per cent below 30 years old. The resultant drivers of inequality hence include: (i) high unemployment of women and youth; (ii) low access to basic social services and infrastructure; (iii) limited capacity to absorb the large number of youth entering the labour market every year and the gap between their skills and the market's needs; (iv) low savings; (v) declining productivity; (vi) gender discrimination (such as women's rights to land, assets and inheritance); and (vii) lack of and/or insufficient social safety protection services.

1.3 Overview of Uganda's agriculture sector

The Ugandan economy is highly dependent on the agriculture sector, which employs about 64 per cent of the total working population and 72 per cent of all youth in the country; it provides about half of all exports (45 per cent) and about one-quarter of GDP (Uganda, MoFPED 2020b). Overall growth has slowed, with real GDP for the financial year 2019/20 recorded as 3.1 per cent down from 6.1 per cent for 2018/19 and 3.9 per cent in 2016/17, 24 per cent of which is contributed by agriculture (UBOS 2020). However, the gross valued added for agriculture, forestry and fishing activities grew by 4.2 per cent in 2019/20 compared to the growth of 5.3 per cent registered in 2018/19 (UBOS 2020). Between 2011/12 and 2015/16 the agriculture sector contributed between 24.7 and 22.2 per cent of GDP. This is a crucial macroeconomic indicator for the agricultural sector, given that this growth has been driven by growth in exports, more than half of which are agricultural goods, credit to the private sector (some of which is invested in agriculture and agribusiness), good weather and recovery in crop production.

The Government has positioned agriculture as a key economic sector in Uganda's transition into a middle-income country. In this regard, it has emphasized the importance of value addition, commercialization, and building resilience to climate change. The broader agri-food system also has the potential to provide significant employment opportunities for the country's predominantly young population.

The sector, however, is dominated by smallholder farmers (69 per cent of farmers) while women dominate farm employment in a sector that has limited mechanization and is heavily dependent on rain and relatively fertile soils whose productivity is also declining due to over-cultivation and low fertilizer application. Overall per capita agriculture production has been declining due to a high population growth rate of 3.26 per cent leading to annual food production deficits. This

4 The national poverty headcount ratio is the percentage of the population living below the national poverty lines. National estimates are based on population-weighted subgroup estimates from household surveys.

5 Uganda defines its youth as being between 18 and 30 years old. The National Youth Policy refers to 12- to 30-year-olds. The National Strategy for Youth Employment in Agriculture adopts the African Union definition of youth of 15 to 35.

scenario falls short of the minimum 6 per cent annual agricultural sector growth target agreed upon under the Comprehensive Africa Agriculture Development Programme (CAADP) protocol.

Despite having a rich base of land and water resources and a favourable climate in most areas, the agriculture sector is hampered by low productivity and persistent poverty. There are significant crop yield gaps between on-farm yields and those attainable under irrigation. The low crop yield has negative implications for Uganda's food security, especially for subsistence households. The low agricultural productivity is mainly due to low access to extension services and slow adoption of agricultural-enhancing technologies (such as fertilizers, improved seeds and irrigation), as well as uncertainties around the land tenure system. With respect to agricultural incomes, the mean annual agricultural income per household/farmer was estimated at UGX 1,130,000 in 2015/16, significantly lower than the Government's target of ensuring that agricultural households earn an average of UGX 20 million per annum. Whereas crop diversity is high in Uganda, the majority of households are vulnerable to food insecurity and economic shocks.

It is also worth noting that Uganda's economy has experienced a slowdown in growth due to the severe impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, locust invasion and flooding caused by heavy rains (*The Independent* 2020). As mentioned earlier, Uganda's real GDP growth in 2020 was projected to be between 0.4 and 1.7 per cent compared to 5.6 per cent in 2019 (World Bank 2020). This may have dire consequences on food security and the functioning of food and seed systems.

Other challenges faced by Uganda's agricultural sector are similar to those of developing economies worldwide. Despite playing an important role in national economies and providing a link with the global structures of agriculture and trade, many agricultural workers (including subsistence smallholder farmers) engaged in the sector in developing countries are characterized by precarious working conditions and little or no social protection. Nonetheless, the agriculture sector will continue to be a major employer in low-income countries – the decrease in the share of the workforce employed in sub-Saharan African agriculture is still accompanied by an increase in agricultural employment in absolute terms, as the population continues to grow quickly and cultivated land expands. Given the high population growth, the agricultural workforce is projected to continue to swell in the foreseeable future before it starts to decline.

However, wage elasticity in agricultural sectors in developing countries is a source of concern. Even if millions of workers are active in agricultural production worldwide, their wages often place them on the bottom rung of the rural poverty ladder and even below subsistence level. Work in agriculture tends to be seasonal, with labour productivity often low and unpredictable. As countries start to realize that agricultural earnings are generally low, which also contributes to low productivity, their workforces shift out of agriculture into more stable and higher-paying jobs. This pattern of structural transformation is evident historically in high-income countries but is also unfolding in low-income countries.

Moreover, when producers lose income, there is a greater risk of child labour, forced labour and other human rights abuses in global supply chains. This also means that deforestation could be aggravated as farmers seek more fertile land to increase earnings. All these shortcomings are not attractive for a younger generation who are more likely to give up farming altogether. This puts into doubt the long-term viability of supply chains in the agricultural sector (UNCTAD 2020).

1.3.1 Agricultural trade

Uganda is an active member of the East African Community (EAC) and Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). The Government has adopted a common external tariff and free trade agreement within the EAC Common Market Agreement. Membership in these economic blocks is aimed at increasing, and has sharply increased, Uganda's regional trade volumes resulting in both export and import benefits. Agriculture's role in total exports remains high, although it is declining slowly. Over the last decade, agricultural products (primary and processed) have accounted for 54 per cent of total exports, of which coffee contributed 22 per cent, followed by tea; these exports earned the country a combined US$441 million in foreign exchange according to the Uganda Export Promotions Board figures for 2021.6 They also represent about 20 per cent of the country's total foreign exchange earnings from exports of goods and services and transfers. Uganda is a large importer of processed foods and a growing one for fresh food.

1.3.2 The coffee sector

This section gives an overview of the Uganda coffee sector. It spells out the production and market trends as well as the actors within the coffee supply chain. World coffee production for 2018/19 was 174.5 million bags, an increase of 15.6 million bags from 2017/18, although by 2019/20 it had reduced to 169 million bags. In 2011/12, nearly 8.3 million metric tonnes (MT) of coffee were produced globally from over 50 countries in the world. This production was projected to increase by 7.5 per cent in the year 2012/13. According to the International Coffee Organization (ICO), within the twelve months ending November 2020, exports of Arabica totalled about 80 million bags compared to 83 million bags in 2019; whereas Robusta exports amounted to about 49 million bags compared to 48.7 million bags in 2019.[7]

6 https://ugandaexports.go.ug/ and https://tradingeconomics.com/uganda/exports.

7 See http://www.ico.org/.

In Africa, coffee is mainly produced in Angola, Cameroon, Côte d'Ivoire, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Sierra Leone, Uganda, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The leading producer in Africa, Ethiopia, produced 378,000 MT in 2011/12, almost twice that of Uganda (Panhuysen and Pierrot 2018), but Uganda's coffee production has been increasing since 2017. According to the ICO, Uganda posted a 12 per cent increase in coffee production between 2018 and 2019 from 4.7 million bags to about 5.3 million bags in absolute terms.

Uganda has a huge potential for growth in demand for wet-processed Arabica and Robusta, which are described as having an excellent and impressive cup quality. Although at present 62 per cent of Ugandan coffee is exported to the European Union, 13 per cent to Sudan, 6 per cent to India, 4.7 per cent to Algeria and 4.5 per cent to the United States, there is an enormous potential for entry into new markets in countries such as Republic of Korea, Egypt, Russian Federation, Turkey, and Australia which respectively consume; 10.4, 9.8, 5.5, 7.1 and 5.3 of world coffee production (Verter, Bamwesigye, and Darkwah 2015).

It is estimated that 1.7 million households grow coffee on plots of less than one acre. The proportion of female-headed coffee households is about 40 per cent (680,000 females).[8] However, the Uganda Coffee Development Authority (UCDA) estimated the total number of families supported across the coffee supply chain for income security to be about 3.5 million (UCDA 2012). Uganda produces two types of coffee, Robusta and Arabica, in a ratio of 4:1. The major actors in the coffee supply chain include researchers, seed suppliers, nursery operators, farmers (farmer organizations),[9] traders, processors (UQCPTA – Uganda Quality Coffee Processors and Traders Association), exporters (UCF – Uganda Coffee Federation),[10] buyers abroad, and retail markets. In terms of market channels, some farmers do sell to small middlemen while others sell directly to coffee-buying store men. Farmer organizations and cooperatives sell directly to exporters. Around 120 other farmer organizations included 11 exporters in crop year 2016/17.

1.3.3 The tea sector

This section gives a brief overview of the Uganda tea supply chain. It describes the production and market trends as well as the actors within the supply chain. Within the Uganda national development framework, the NDP II and NDP III, tea was and is still positioned as one of the 12 priority crops, given that it is the third largest agricultural export, generating about US$155 million in exports annually. Tea in Uganda is grown by smallholders and tea estates on about 28,000 hectares as of 2014, which was only 14 per cent of the potential arable land suitable for tea production, generating only 50,000 MT in tea exports (Munyambonera, Lakuma, and Guloba 2014). By 2019, the tea land coverage had increased to 44,000 hectares and production increased by about 124 per cent to 112,000 MT of processed tea between 2014 and 2019, which indicated a progressing sector (Matsiko 2019).

It is estimated that the tea sector employs close to 60,000 workers on the farm and factory directly as well as 500,000 persons who are indirectly supported by the sector (BOU 2011). The main actors in the tea supply chain include tea estates that produce about 72 per cent of all tea while the remaining 28 per cent is produced by close to 50,000 out-growers/smallholders. The other actors are the some 28 processors/factories[11] (Lakal, Kahunde, and Munyambonera 2019), traders including tea blenders and packers and supermarkets, auction agents, and consumers. In Western Uganda where tea is predominantly grown, about 10,000 households in five districts grow tea with Bushenyi, Kyenjojo and Kanungu as the leading districts (table 1.2).

8 Quoted from an unpublished report on the Pilot Coffee Farmers Registration exercise in Mukono and Buikwe Districts, 2017.

9 The major organizations are the National Union of Coffee Agribusinesses and Farm Enterprises (NUCAFE) and the Uganda Coffee Farmers Alliance (UCFA).

10 UCF membership also includes banks, insurance companies, forwarders and shippers.

11 Uganda has about 28 tea factories and about 30 tea growers' associations around which smallholders are organized.

Table 1.2. Number of households in Western Uganda planting tea in 2008/09, by district

District	Estimated number of households	Percentage
Bushenyi	5 788	58
Hoima/Kibaale/Kikuube[1]	381	4
Kabarole	437	4
Kanungu	1 478	15
Kyenjojo	1 909	19
Total	**9 993**	**100**

Note: [1] Kikuube is a new district curved out of Hoima district after the latter got a city status and all tea growers are currently located in Kikuube.

Source: Lakal, Kahunde, and Munyambonera 2019.

1.4 Child labour in Uganda

By 2013, the world had an estimated 168 million child labourers, 11 per cent of the global child population; by 2020 the number of child labourers had been reduced to 160 million (ILO 2013a; ILO and UNICEF 2021). Children in hazardous work[12] constituted about half of all child labourers, while sub-Saharan Africa was reported to have more than one in five children (aged 5–17 years) in child labour, 29 million of whom were in hazardous work even after 12 years of ILO progress and campaigns against child labour. The agriculture sector is the largest employer of child labour globally, accounting for 70 per cent, followed by the services sector at 19.7 per cent. Child labour also has a gender dimension in that more boys than girls are reported to be child labourers, with latest statistics showing that 61 per cent of child labourers are boys (ILO and UNICEF 2021). In addition, child labour also has an age dimension, with 5–11-year-old child labourers constituting 44 per cent of the world child labour population, while the 12–14-year-olds made up 20 per cent and the 15–17-year-olds accounted for about 33 per cent by 2012 (ILO 2013a).

In Uganda, involvement in work of the part of children is not uncommon; national child labour legislation allows light work for 12–13-year-olds (UBOS 2008). For instance, UBOS (2008) indicates that 2.5 million children aged 7–14 years were engaged in economic activity in 2005/06, while 1.4 million children under the age of 12 years were engaged in economic activity, and 735,000 children aged less than 10 years were economically active. About 5 per cent of children involved in economic activity are engaged in hazardous work. UBOS (2008) also indicates that 38 per cent of children aged 7–14 years in Western Uganda were involved in some form of economic activity.

By 2014, the National Population and Housing Census (UBOS 2016) indicated that Uganda had 18.9 million children below 18 years, while 30 per cent of the population was aged 5–14 years and 21 per cent aged 10–17 years (see also UBOS 2020). Child labour can be observed in almost all supply chains in the country, including agriculture, fishing, manufacturing, mining, services and construction. However, the statistics vary. According to the inter-agency project "Understanding Children's Work" (UCW, a project between the ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank), Uganda had about 0.39 million child labourers aged 5–17 years in 2012 of whom 0.36 million resided in the rural areas and 87 per cent were engaged in the agriculture sector. On the other hand, the 2011/12 National Child Labour Force and Child Activities Survey report showed that a total of two million children aged 5–17 years were in child labour (approximately 16 per cent of the total number of children). According to the Uganda National Housing Survey (UNHS) 2016/17, a total of 2,048,000 children out of the 8,973,000 aged between 5–17 years were engaged in some form of child labour. The population of 5–11-year-olds involved in child labour was almost equal by sex (19 and 16 per cent for boys and girls respectively), but there was a wide variation by residence. The proportion was higher among rural children (20 per cent) than those living in urban areas (7 per cent).

The regional disaggregation shows that the Eastern region had the highest proportion of working children aged 5–11 years (31 per cent) compared to less than 1 per cent in Kampala City. The Northern region had the highest proportion (17 per cent) of working children aged 12–13 years who were in non-light work economic activities or hazardous work, compared to Kampala City at 1 per cent. According to the UNHS survey 2016/17 (UBOS 2018b), there were 289,000 children aged 12–13 years (17 per cent) in hazardous work. The proportion was slightly higher for males (14 per cent) compared to females (11 per cent) and also higher in rural areas (14 per cent) compared to urban areas (5 per cent).

By 2020, the Ugandan population had hit 42 million people and it is estimated that due to the changing demographics and economy, Uganda today has about 1.2 million child labourers aged 5–17 years.

The Government is committed to eliminating child labour, and has developed the Second National Action Plan (NAP II) for the Elimination of Child Labour 2017/18–2021/22 with the goal to reduce the incidence of all forms of child labour from 45.6 to 40 per cent by 2021/22.

12 The ILO (2013) defines this as work that directly endangers child health, safety and moral development

1.5 Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work (FPRW)

Over the years the ILO has striven to live up to its core mission of social justice and internationally recognized human and labour rights. In its 2008 Declaration on Social Justice for a Fair Globalization, the ILO set out four important strategic objectives: promoting employment; developing and enhancing social protection; promoting social dialogue; and respecting, promoting and realizing the fundamental principles and rights at work (FPRW) with gender equality and non-discrimination as cross-cutting issues (ILO 2017).

The FPRW are contained in eight ILO Conventions[13] and in the Protocol of 2014 to the Forced Labour Convention, 1930. At the centre of the FPRW are four areas of concern: the right to freedom of association and collective bargaining; the effective abolition of all forms of forced or compulsory labour; the elimination of child labour; and the elimination of discrimination in respect of employment and occupation. Therefore, child labour has been and continues to be a key pillar of the FPRW enshrined in the Conventions towards which the ILO has been committed over the years.

The FPRW are viewed in an economic and social context, with a number of factors driving the need for interventions in human and labour rights. Among the major drivers of such concerns are the increasing unemployment globally, estimated to affect 200 million people; slow economic growth among economies that has been exacerbated by the impacts of COVID-19 pandemic (ILO 2020; World Bank 2020); and the widening income gap between the rich and poor (ILO 2017; World Bank 2020). Other inequalities of grave concern are stagnant wages and increasing job insecurity, the concentration of many employees in the informal and rural economic sectors where the ability of workers to organize and have a common and strong voice and strong collective bargaining powers is very challenging. Other issues around FPRW are forced labour, also known as “modern-day slavery”;[14] and various forms of state-imposed compulsory labour such as abuse of conscription, abuse of community work, compulsory development work, compulsory prison labour and forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict (ILO 2017).

Children are an easy target for labour abuse by engaging them in forced, compulsory labour including hazardous work.

13 The Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29); the Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention, 1948 (No. 87); the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98); the Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100); the Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105); the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111); the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138); and the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182).

14 The ILO (2013b) indicated that 21 million people were victims of forced labour, of whom 5.5 million were children.

2. Methodology



2.1 Approach

The study adopted a mixed methods approach in which a combination of methods and approaches comprising both qualitative and quantitative techniques was used to address the objectives of the study. Secondary and primary data in the form of qualitative and quantitative data were collected and used in the study.

2.2 Study design

Primary data were collected through farmer and trader surveys of households engaged in coffee and tea production, marketing and working on tea and coffee plantations and estates. In addition, data were also collected through focus group discussions (FGDs) and key informant interviews (KIIs) at national, regional (district) and local levels. KIIs were held with key players at District Local Governments (DLGs), police in the study districts who are directly involved in child labour and child protection issues, district community development officers (DCDOs), probation officers and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in the area. Other key informants included tea and coffee exporters, buyers and cooperatives as well as workers in estates, plantations, factories and warehouses. A household survey was conducted on a randomly selected sample of households from the five districts indicated in table 1.2 to collect quantitative data from children involved in coffee and tea farm work as well as their parents/guardians.

2.2.1 Document review

The literature regarding the tea and coffee supply chains, child labour and FPRW was reviewed. Grey and subject matter literature was reviewed from peer-reviewed studies conducted previously which explored child labour and FPRW issues in the context of ILO principles on decent work, social protection and elimination of child labour. Data and literature related to children and child labour from line ministries such as the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) and the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MOFPED), *agencies* such as the National Planning Council (NPC), the National Planning Authority (NPA) and the Uganda Bureau of Statistics (UBOS), and other publicly available data, were also used to enhance the rigour of the study. Increasingly, and particularly for Uganda, quality information – and sometimes data – is readily available, but it is not sufficient, hence information that is already available in databases on child labour, including those implemented by the ILO and other UN agencies such as UNICEF, was always used to back up the primary data in this study.

2.3 Quantitative data collection procedures and tools

2.3.1 Sample size determination

Since child labour is a key variable in this study, calculations of sample size were based on the probability of 0.87 (87 per cent) as the chance of finding a household in an agricultural setting in a rural area with a child labourer (ILO 2013a). Adjustments of the samples were made using the known number of tea- and coffee-growing households estimated at about one million in the study areas indicated in table 1.2 following Yamane (1967) in equation (1) and its adjustment as proposed by Glenn (1992) in equation (2), using a 95 per cent confidence level and ±5% precision (e).

The resulting survey sample size is shown in equation (1).

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 p(1-p)}{e^2} = \frac{1.96^2 * 0.87 * 0.13}{0.05^2} = 174 \quad (1)$$

Final samples of households using the finite population correction in equation (2) were then made.

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1+\frac{n_0-1}{N}} = 174 \quad (2)$$

The population numbers of tea-growing households were plugged into equation 2 and the sample generated is 174, which is distributed across the districts indicated in table 2.1 by age group. In each sampled household, two interviews were held, the first with a mature person above 17 years and the second with a child involved in tea- and coffee-growing activities aged between five and 17 years, but following the ILO (2013a) age grouping of 5-11 years, 12-14 years and 15-17 years at the estimated proportions of 30, 30 and 40 percent respectively. This implies that a total of 340 interviews were targeted, although 371 were in fact carried out to account for non-response cases and missing data on some variables. Hence, in

each district, 34 interviews with household heads or older respondents were held, together with an interview with a child involved in tea activities at the farm/estate, aggregation unit or factory, making a total sample of at least 68 per district (table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Final sample of households and interviewees, by age group

District	Number of households	Number of parents/guardians> 18 years to interview	Number of child labourers (5-11 years) to interview	Number of child labourers (12-14 years) to interview	Number of child labourers (15-17 years) to interview
Bushenyi	34	34	10	10	14
Kabarole	34	34	10	10	14
Hoima/ Kikuube	34	34	10	10	14
Mbale	36	36	10	10	16
Buikwe	36	36	10	10	16
Total	**174**	**174**	**51**	**51**	**74**

2.3.2 Survey sampling, data collection methods and instruments

In the household survey where an older person and a child were interviewed, a simple random sampling technique was adopted. The team relied on information and sampling frames offered by the District Local Governments, coffee and tea estates, and companies for lists of tea and coffee farmers that grow for them (out-growers) and sell to them. From these lists, a random sample was drawn and the households were selected and interviewed from the five districts. Since two members were interviewed per household, a total of 371 respondents participated in the household survey. In addition, 10 coffee and tea local traders, aggregators, processors and exporters were sampled per district to collect data related to their role in the supply chain and also their involvement in child labour. A total of 58 were sampled from the three regions of Eastern, Central and Western Uganda. Quantitative survey data were captured electronically, using tablets, onto a cloud server by research assistants in the field. The electronic questionnaires had built-in validation checks to ensure that the data captured were accurate. Data forms were uploaded onto servers daily and daily validation checks were made on data on the server.

2.4 Qualitative data collection procedures and tools

Qualitative data were collected through KIIs at the districts, police and coffee and tea factories and cooperative societies. Focus group discussions with children and parents/guardians were also held as part of the qualitative approaches adopted in the study to gain a deeper understanding of root causes of child labour at household, community and business levels.

2.4.1 Key informant interviews

Using a key informant guide, five DLG officials responsible for social development (DCDOs) and labour matters were interviewed from the five districts, as well as five police probation officers who are responsible for child and family affairs and five managers/in-charges/HRs of tea/coffee estates and factories in the districts. In addition, a small sample of factory workers and farmer organizations at association and cooperative levels were also interviewed to understand more about labour rights, treatment and benefits at work as well as child involvement in the tea and coffee supply chains.

2.4.2 Focus group discussions

Across the five districts, FGDs were also conducted with both the older/mature coffee and tea farmers and the children involved in tea and coffee activities to gain a deeper understanding of the underlying factors driving child labour in the tea and coffee sectors. These data will help to triangulate data from the survey and the KIIs. One FGD for older persons and one for the children, each comprising 10 people, were held in each of the five districts bringing the total to 10 FGDs and 100 participants.

Qualitative data were collected through KII and FGD interview guides with leading questions. Interview and group discussions were recorded; and photographs were taken after seeking consent and later transcribed using ATLAS Ti software.

2.4.3 Family profiles

A total of seven children identified as child labourers on tea and coffee estates and farms were also engaged in deeper interviews to profile them and their families. This was done using a family profile interview guide while protecting the privacy and rights of the child respondents through seeking their consent first.

2.5 Data analysis techniques

2.5.1 Qualitative data (FGDs and KIIs) analysis

Analysis of qualitative information was done concurrently with the data collection. After the day's field work, the research team met to discuss key issues and make adjustments for the following day's data collection process. Preliminary analysis of qualitative data was done together as a research team in the field. A final desk analysis was done after the field data collection and entry. At field level, data were compiled, sorted, edited and classified, and at desk level, data were finally analysed using ATLAS Ti software. The analysis involved cataloguing the evidence collected, creating themes and linkages, rating it in terms of relevance and consistence with the emerging issues related to child labour and the FPRW using context analysis to summarize the discussions. The data analysis focuses on emerging common themes and patterns in the interview recordings.

2.5.2 Quantitative data analysis

For survey data from household and trader interviews, data were uploaded on the server using SurveyCTO and analysis was aided by Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and STATA 14.0. Explorative and descriptive analysis was done with a focus on measures of central tendency (including means, median, mode and standard deviation). Comparisons were made by cross tabulations on background characteristics (age, sex, residence, social and economic indicators) and key variables related to child labour and the FPRW using frequencies and percentages. The results were presented as tables, graphs and charts. In addition, correlation and regression analyses were made to relate child labour and the FPRW to household incomes, food security, education levels and profitability, among others.

A market systems development approach was used in the analysis and understanding of the complex interplay of the different coffee and tea supply chain actors and their incentives, as well as market rules, regulations and supporting functions identifying and tackling obstacles to more and better jobs. To analyse data for the supply chain mapping, the supply chain concept as developed by Michael Porter in 1985 (Feller, Shunk, and Callarman 2006) and later improved by other scholars was adopted. Porter defined value as the amount that buyers are willing to pay for what a firm provides. In this regard therefore, the primary focus in the supply chain is on the benefits that accrue to the chain actors, the interdependent processes that generate value and the resulting demand and fund flows that are created (Devaux et al. 2009; Horton et al. 2016; Morris, Kaplinsky, and Kaplan 2012). At each stage of the supply chains, the value created was estimated using a value addition approach (Tallec and Bockel 2005a and 2005b). The value added by each actor in the chain was determined as the difference between the value of output and the value of inputs the actor used. Finally, supply chain maps were drawn to visualize the interactions of the actors and the products and value created along the coffee and tea supply chains.

3. Study findings



This section presents the findings from the tea and coffee supply chain study on farmers' households as well as other supply chain actors in Central, Eastern and Western regions of Uganda. The findings come from the quantitative and qualitative data collected from various actors in the coffee and tea supply chains, as well as key stakeholders in child labour and welfare matters at national and regional levels.

The report is structured in such a way that the coffee and tea supply chain mapping results are presented first, followed by results from the household survey of parents/guardians and children; the results of analysis of the other supply chain actors such as traders, aggregators, processors and exporters are also presented. Triangulation of the findings from the two surveys using findings from the KIIs, FGDs and secondary data is done throughout the presentation and discussion of results.

3.1 The coffee supply chain and the market system

This section describes how coffee from the farms moves to the processors and exporters and is finally consumed. The market system studied includes the core supply chain functions from production, aggregation, processing and consumption. It also includes supporting functions such as technology, finance and infrastructure as well as rules and regulations governing the coffee and tea sectors. It presents the typology of actors along the supply chain and their functions, and finally presents the support services and the coffee supply chain map to visualize the linkages and relationships among the coffee supply chain actors.

3.1.1 Primary actors along the coffee supply chain

The coffee supply chain is a long supply chain with many actors and stages. It starts with input suppliers to farmers, small- and medium-scale traders, aggregators (large-scale traders) who sometimes are farmer cooperatives and producer associations, and processors and exporters. Along the coffee supply chain, child labour is more prevalent at production level where 77 per cent of children are involved on the family farm or other farms that hire their labour. At the marketing and aggregation level child labour constitutes 2 per cent of all labour hired, while at processing and export levels the actors indicated that they do not hire children. However, through informal talks with coffee store and factory workers, some indicated that children come to work with their parents and this is disguised as "children helping their parents at work".

3.1.1.1 Input access

Coffee farmers mainly use coffee seedlings, fertilizer, herbicides, labour and pesticides as the main inputs in the production process. Many farmers access these inputs through agro-dealers in the main town of Mbale for Arabica coffee, and in Buikwe, Mukono or Lugazi for Robusta coffee farmers in Buikwe district and other smaller towns, while labour is mainly sourced locally. However, for the farmers in groups who constitute 68 per cent in Mbale and 56 per cent in Buikwe district, inputs can be accessed through their cooperative societies such as the Bugisu Cooperative Union (BCU) or coffee-processing companies such as Kyagalanyi Coffee Ltd or the Kawacom coffee company. Seedlings are mainly sourced through the cooperatives or coffee company or the Uganda Coffee Development Authority (UCDA) certified nurseries under Operation Wealth Creation (OWC).

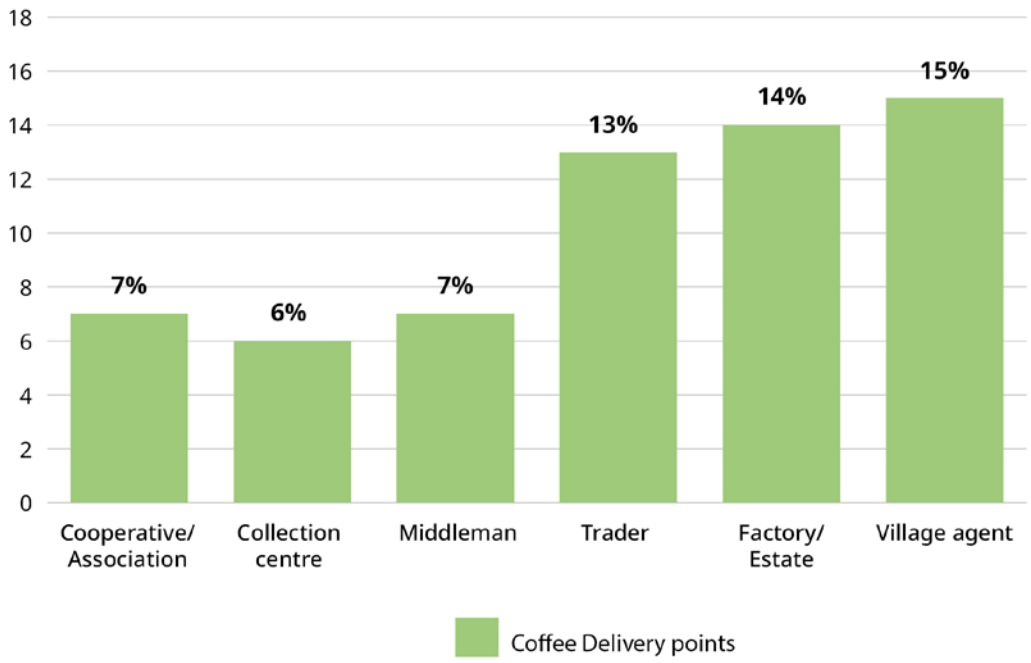
3.1.1.2 Production

Coffee in the two sampled districts is produced by smallholder farmers who cultivate plantations of about one hectare (ha). In Mbale a household manages about two acres of Arabica coffee (about 0.8 ha) where they harvest about 250 kilograms (kg), while in Buikwe the households manage about three acres (about 1.2 ha) of Robusta coffee, harvesting about 500 kg a season. In Mbale, the households earn about UGX 1.5 million per acre from Arabica coffee per season, while in Buikwe they earn about UGX 1 million per acre.

3.1.1.3 Transport, bulking and storage

Farmers that sell individually mainly deliver coffee to the trader's store near them or through a village agent (15 per cent) or sell at farmgate. However, some deliver the coffee to the factory or to the collection centre (6 per cent) or to the cooperative society or farmer association store (figure 3.1). From the stores, the processor or cooperative union transports the coffee to the processing facility.

Figure 3.1. Coffee farmers, by coffee produce delivery point (percentages)



3.1.1.4 Trading (rural and urban traders and brokers)

Some of the coffee processors have agents that buy on their behalf; this is very common in the Central region. However, much of the coffee in the Central and Eastern regions is aggregated by the small and medium traders who buy from farmers and sell to the large-scale traders or processors mainly located in the urban areas. In Eastern Uganda, the Bugishu Cooperative Union (BCU) has a lot of influence through its network of primary cooperatives where farmers bulk their coffee. However, other coffee companies such as Kyagalanyi Coffee Ltd have also adopted a similar model by training and recruiting farmers and organizing them as out-growers.

3.1.1.5 Processing/export and consumption

The processing of Arabica coffee in Mbale and its subsequent export is a preserve of the large coffee companies such as Kyagalanyi Coffee Ltd, Gumutindo and Kawacom Limited and the strong cooperative union BCU. In Buikwe, there are private processors who finally sell to exporters. The processors in Mbale are also in many cases the exporters of the coffee. Domestic coffee consumption in Uganda is still low with a per capita consumption of 1.4 kg per person per year, much of it consumed in coffee shops, hotels and supermarkets for household consumption; Ugandans consume only 5 per cent of the coffee produced (UCDA 2020).

3.1.2 Coffee supply chain support services

Being so lucrative, the coffee supply chain attracts a number of support services including farmer institutional development services where growers are organized around cooperatives and producer associations. The input supply services are mainly provided by agro-dealers, cooperatives, government and the coffee-processing and exporting companies. Credit and other financial services are also available to facilitate transactions along the supply chain.

The level of children's collective action at the farm in the coffee sector is very low, at only 8 per cent of the sampled children, 10 per cent in Mbale and 6 per cent in Buikwe belonging to a farmer group, union, cooperative or savings group. The level of cooperation among adults stands at 62 per cent who belong to groups or cooperatives in the coffee sector, although Mbale had a higher level of cooperation, at 68 per cent, than Buikwe District (figure 3.2).

Coffee farmers also indicated during FGDs that they access extension services both from the Government through the MAAIF extension officers at district and subcounty level as well as extension officers recruited by the coffee trading and processing companies and cooperative unions. Financial services are accessed through savings and credit cooperative organizations (SACCOs), village savings and loan associations (VSLAs), commercial banks and microfinance institutions. It should be noted though that many farmers indicated they could not access such financial services; these are accessed by farmers if they are organized as groups. The actors in the coffee supply chain and their interlinkages are shown in figure 3.3.

Figure 3.2. Children and adults belonging to a group or cooperative in the coffee sector

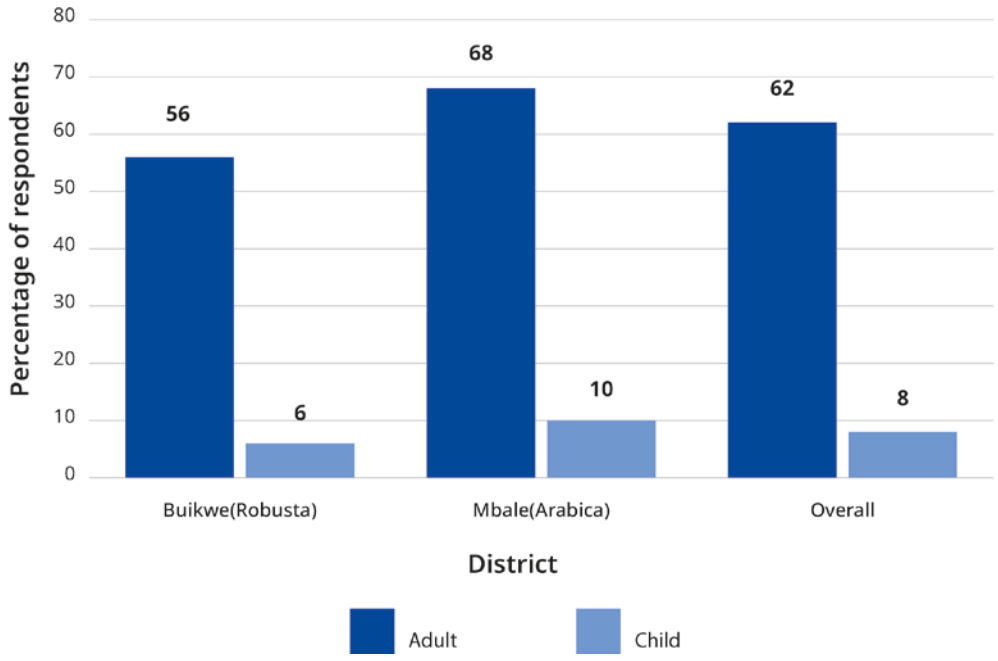
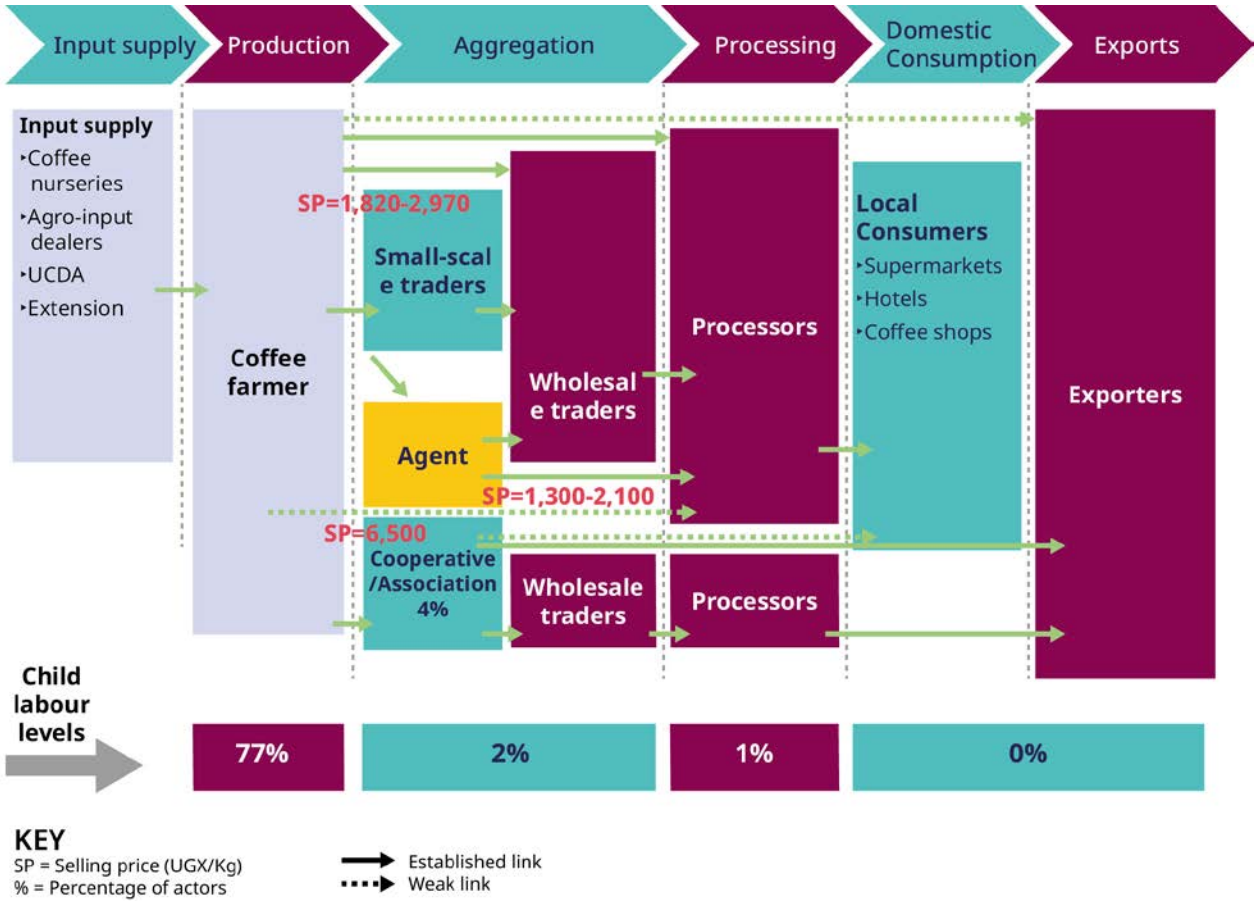


Figure 3.3. The coffee supply chain map: Functions, actors and supporters



3.2 The tea supply chain and the market system

This section describes how green leaf tea from the farms moves to the processors and exporters and how the final product reaches the consumer. It presents the profile of actors along the tea supply chain and their functions, the support services, and the tea supply chain map to visualize the linkages and relationships among the tea supply chain actors.

3.2.1 Primary actors along the tea supply chain

The tea supply chain is generally a short and less complex supply chain than coffee, with fewer actors and precise actor roles. The chain starts at the production node where farmers use inputs from suppliers to produce the green leaf tea. Farmers have two options when selling their tea –either sell to the factory accessible to them or to a trader/agent available in their village. Both the out-grower farmer and trader sell to the tea factory, which processes and sells the tea domestically or exports it (figure 3.4). Along the tea supply chain, child labour is more prevalent at production level where 68 per cent of children are involved on either the family farm or other farms that hire them to weed, spray and pluck tea. At the marketing and aggregation level, child labour constitutes of 2 per cent of all labour hired though tea processors, and exporters indicated they do not hire children (figure 3.6).

3.2.1.1 Input access

Tea farmers access inputs through their tea companies of affiliation and through direct purchases from the agro-dealers. All the farmers affiliated to tea factories access seedlings and fertilizer from them in advance, with the costs deducted from their green leaf tea supplies. However, those who sell to traders either get fertilizer from those traders on credit or buy from agro-dealers. Labour for tea production is sourced from all around the Western region and beyond in Rwanda, where workers migrate to tea-growing districts for work on the tea plantations – although this stopped after the Rwanda–Uganda border was closed in 2019.

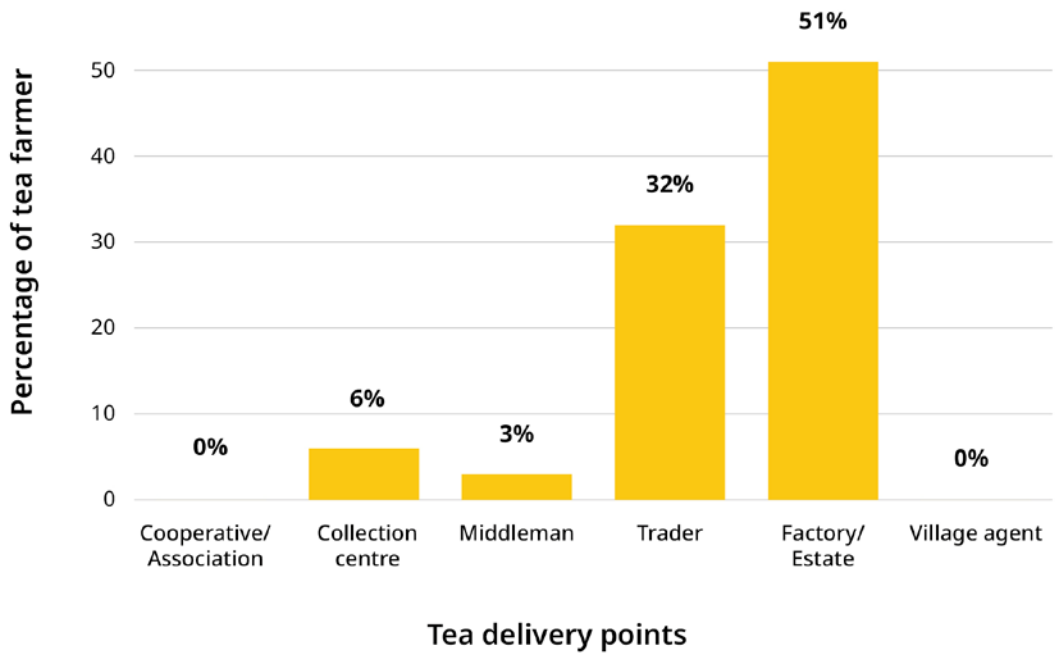
3.2.1.2 Production

Tea in the three sampled districts of Hoima/Kikuube, Kabarole and Bushenyi is produced by individual smallholder farmers, out-grower scheme farmers and on tea estates. which cultivate plantations of about one hectare. The average tea plantation acreages for households are three acres in Hoima/Kikuube, 3.5 in Kabarole and four acres in Bushenyi districts. In Bushenyi, a household harvests about 850 kg of green tea leaves, while in Hoima/Kikuube and Kabarole the harvests are 1,200 and 1,230 kg respectively. In Hoima and Bushenyi, the households earn about UGX 1.1 million per acre from green leaf tea per season, while in Kabarole the incomes are lower at about UGX 0.73 million per acre. This means that tea productivity is lower in Kabarole than in Hoima or Bushenyi by about UGX 0.4 million per acre.

3.2.1.3 Transport, bulking and storage

Green leaf tea from the factory is mainly delivered either directly to the factory (51 per cent) or at a collection centre for the farmers supplying factories or in an out-grower scheme. However, a sizeable proportion of farmers, about 32 per cent, also sell at the farmgate to traders and agents/middlemen (figure 3.4). The large proportion of tea farmers delivering to a factory means that farmers have to transport their green leaf tea to the processor and this creates a gap exploited by traders/agents for farmers that find it hard to transport their produce.

▶ **Figure 3.4. Tea farmers, by produce delivery point**



3.2.1.4 Trading (traders and brokers)

Despite the dominance of the tea supply chain by the tea companies and their out-grower schemes, traders and middlemen exist within the chain. There are some farmers who prefer to sell to traders and agents and these constituted about 36 per cent of the sampled tea farming households. Further inquiry into why farmers sell to traders and agents despite factories existing in their localities revealed that the main reasons are that farmers want quick and prompt cash to solve their problems (54 per cent), yet factories delay to pay them or do not pay promptly (table 3.1). The other reason was that traders and agents are easily accessed (42 per cent), especially when tea is ready yet factories sometimes delay to collect the tea leaves, causing losses to the farmers.

▶ **Table 3.1. Reasons why tea farmers sell to traders and agents, by district**

	Percentage of households			
Why tea growers sell to agents	**Bushenyi**	**Hoima**	**Kabarole**	**Overall**
Pay promptly	54.55	0.00	55.56	54.43
Easily available	33.33	0.00	48.89	41.77
Other reason[1]	30.30	100.00	40.00	36.71
Buy in bulk	15.15	0.00	31.11	24.05
Better price	6.06	0.00	0.00	2.53

Note: [1]Other reasons included: the factory ran bankrupt (in Kabarole, Mpanga, the tea factory still operates but through agents after it failed to collect tea from farmers due to operational difficulties); traders pick tea from farm and transport it; my harvest is small so I can't sell to a factory; I am not registered as a factory supplier; the factory sometimes delays to collect our tea; traders are trustworthy.

3.2.1.5 Processing/export and consumption

The processing of tea is the monopoly of tea companies such as Kayonza Tea company, Kyamuhunga tea company, McLeod Russell and others in Western Uganda. These companies also have their own estates where they carry out mass production, but many of them also have out-grower schemes that involve thousands of farmers. Some of the tea processors operate as cooperatives and to a large extent are farmer-owned, for example Kyamuhunga tea factory. The tea processors sell their final products domestically in Uganda through distributors and retailers, regionally at the Mombasa auction, and internationally to Europe, the Middle East and the United States.

3.2.2 Tea supply chain support services

The tea supply chain actors access a number of support services ranging from farmer institutional development to where out-growers are organized around tea estates and processing factories. The input supply services are mainly provided by agro-dealers and the tea processing and exporting companies. Credit and other financial services are also available to facilitate transactions along the supply chain. Extension services are provided by both the Government through the extension officers at district and subcounty level as well as extension officers recruited by the tea processing companies. Financial services are accessed through SACCOs (for example Kyamuhunga People's SACCO-KAPs in Bushenyi), village savings and loan associations (VSLAs), commercial banks and microfinance institutions that lend to the farmers and traders. The level of children's collective action at work in the tea sector is very low, at only 8 per cent of the sampled children belonging to a farmer group, union, cooperative or savings group. The level of cooperation among adults stands at 60 per cent who belong to groups or cooperatives in the tea sector (Figure 3.5). The actors in the tea supply chain and their interlinkages are shown in figure 3.6.

▶ Figure 3.5. Children and adults/parents belonging to a group or cooperative in the tea sector, by district

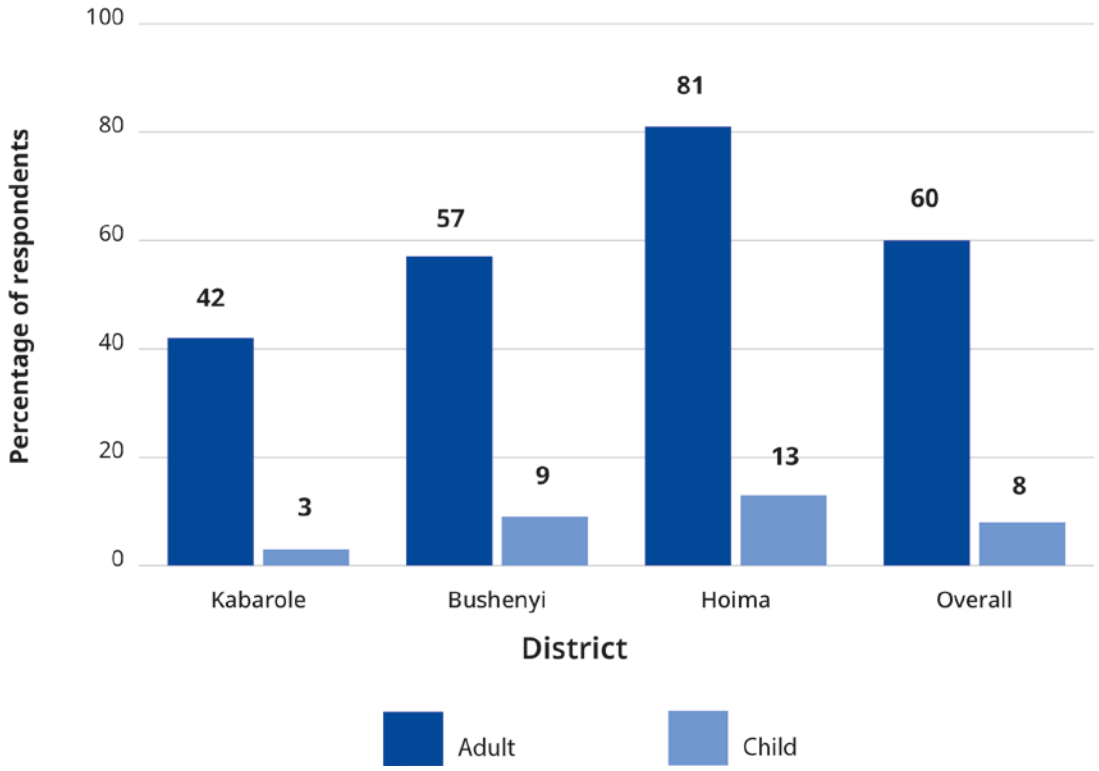
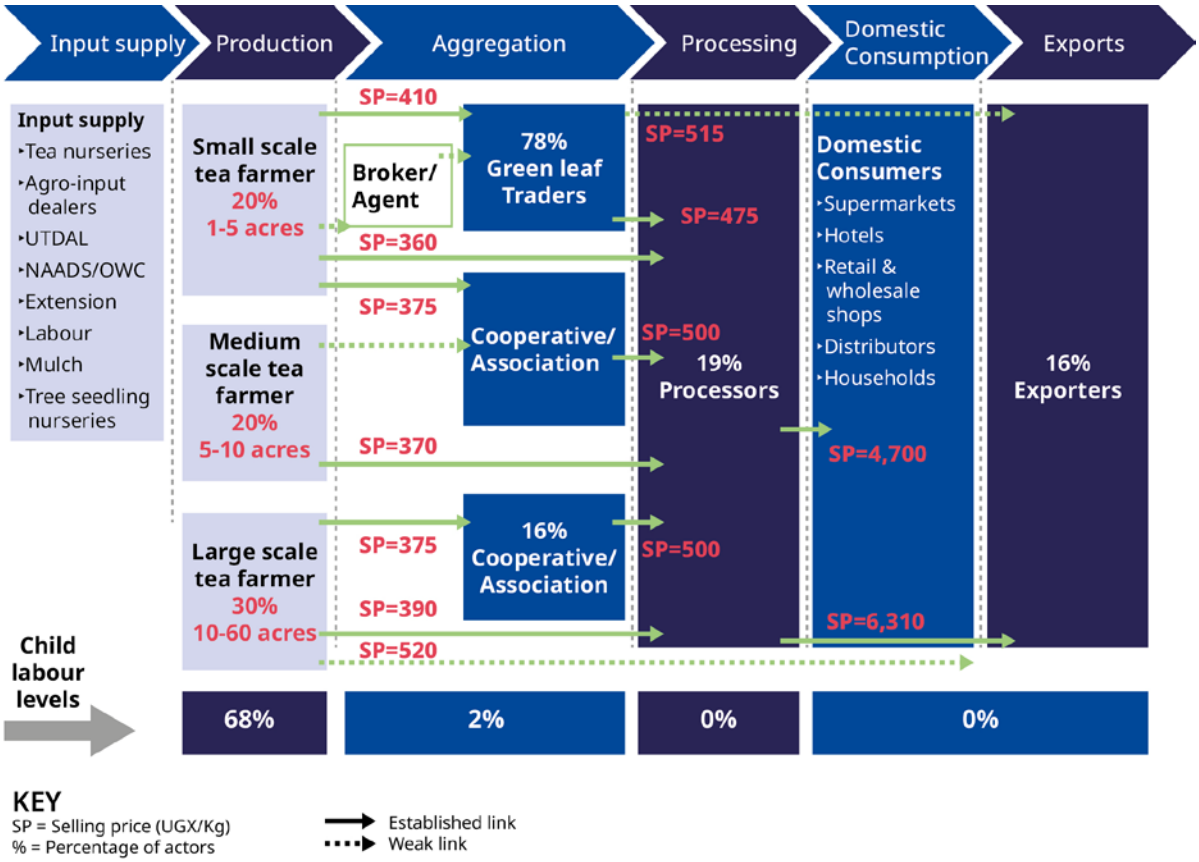


Figure 3.6. The tea supply chain map: Functions, actors and supporters



3.2.3 Technical and financial capacities analysis of the coffee and tea market players

In this section, the technical and financial capacities and potential incentives for change of the identified market players in the coffee and tea supply chains are presented through the "Will-Skill Matrix". This framework ranks the skill and will levels in relation to capacity for change, motivation and incentive to pursue a change. The matrix is a simple tool to assess an individual's performance and provides guidance on how best to manage the different categories. "Individuals with high skill and will should be delegated to; those with high skill but low will should be excited; those with low skill but high will should be guided; and those with low skill and low will should be directed" (World of Work Project, n.d.). For the present study, a Will-Skill Matrix was used to summarize the strengths, weaknesses and potential for change of the identified market actors. Regarding Skill, the participants' experience in the task of handling child labour, training, knowledge, and natural talents was assessed. Under Will, the assessment included the desire, or incentive, to carry out the task (of fighting child labour), security surrounding the job, confidence in abilities, and feelings about the task ("attitude").

3.2.1.2 Technical and financial capacities in the coffee and tea supply chains

From the survey, FGDs and KIIs, a Will-Skill Matrix for the coffee and tea sectors was drawn up, indicating the four quadrants and assigning the coffee and tea market actors to each based on their will and skill to fight child labour. The four quadrants are presented in figure 3.7 with all the supply chain actors assigned. It is worth noting that the tea and coffee supply chains have similar actors operating at various intensities and business sizes; hence the two supply chains are combined here in the Will-Skill Matrix analysis.

Guide quadrant

Higher will and lower skill supply chain actors are also called contributors and often they are good-natured team members who need more training, mentoring and tools to improve their skills. They can typically be empowered for some accountabilities while necessitating more hands-on management for other accountabilities. "Farmers" were the parents and guardians of working children who indicated that they were willing to fight child labour if they had alternatives such as labour-saving technologies or the means to have all their children in school. In the same quadrant are small-scale traders, cooperatives, village health team members (VHTs) and community volunteers who indicated a very high will to fight child labour but lacked the skills to do it.

Delegate quadrant

Team members with higher will and higher skill are high performers who are typically role models who can be delegated more responsibilities and become fully empowered. The District Local Governments (DLGs), Uganda Police Force (UPF) and the MGLSD have organization structures that are well placed to fight child labour. DLGs, for instance, have labour officers, child protection officers and social welfare officers, while the police have family and probation officers who work closely with the judiciary and the MGLSD to handle issues of child rights and child labour litigation. Tea and coffee workers' unions, processors and exporters indicated a high will to fight child labour, as well as having a lot of power, influence and skills at their disposal to influence laws, by-laws and regulations concerning child labour. Private-sector players, especially businesses and employer organizations, are also key in ensuring an end to child labour in the two supply chains since they recruit the work force and have a lot of control over them. The KIIs revealed that employer organizations in the tea supply chain are very willing to cooperate in the fight against child labour and are more compliant with the labour laws and regulations than the coffee supply chain employer organizations, which lacked transparency in their involvement in child labour and willingness to fight it.

Excite quadrant

Lower will and higher skill actors are also called potential detractors – they have the skills to do a great job, but for whatever reason lack the will to put in their best effort. Potential detractors need additional motivation to improve their will, otherwise they can often bring down team morale. Under this quadrant are placed the lawyers in the coffee- and tea-growing communities, as well as religious and cultural leaders who have the skills to engage and influence communities to fight child labour but lack the will to go out and do it.

Direct quadrant

The lower will and lower skill quadrant has actors who are known to be low performers in their current role and have a negative attitude towards the role and often the organization. They need to quickly improve their will and/or skill; otherwise, they should leave the organization. Under this category are listed large-scale traders, coffee and tea aggregators and transporters whom we found to employ children secretly and were not willing to talk about the subject of child labour or disclose the levels to which they hire children (figure 3.7).

▶ **Figure 3.7. Will-Skill Matrix for the coffee and tea supply chain actors**



3.3 Household survey findings

This section presents the results and discussion of the household survey on coffee- and tea-producing households in the rural areas of Eastern, Central and Western Uganda. It presents the results from the parent and guardian interviews as well as the child interviews.

3.3.1 Demographic characteristics of the households

3.3.1.1 Gender composition by sector

Overall (both adults and children), the Arabica coffee sector had more females than males while the Robusta coffee and tea sectors had more males than females. While the Arabica coffee sector had a higher proportion of female children, the Robusta coffee sector had a higher percentage of males across the age groups. The tea sector, on the other hand, had a mixture with a higher proportion of male children in the age group 15–17 years and more females in the age group 5–11 years (table 3.2).

▶ **Table 3.2. Distribution of respondents, by sector and sex**

	Percentage of respondents					
	Arabica coffee		Robusta coffee		Tea	
Respondent age category	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Adult (18 years and above)	60.98	39.02	47.06	52.94	81.82	18.18
Child (5-11 years)	14.29	85.71	63.64	36.36	44.83	55.17
Child (12-14 years)	30.77	69.23	50.00	50.00	50.00	50.00
Child (15-17 years)	45.00	55.00	57.14	42.86	63.04	36.96
Overall	48.15	51.85	52.17	47.83	67.87	32.13

3.2.1.2 Marital status of the respondents

The results revealed that there were child marriages within coffee- and tea-growing households, especially among the age groups 12–14 and 15–17. Table 3.3 shows that 10 per cent of children aged 15–17 in the Arabica coffee-growing households were married, while 10 per cent of children aged 12–14 in the Robusta coffee-growing households were married, and 4 per cent of children aged 15–17 in the tea sector were also married.[15] For adults, although about 95 per cent of coffee-growing households had parents who were married, this was true for only 77 per cent of tea-growing households; 15 per cent in this sector had single guardians or parents.

▶ Table 3.3. Marital status of respondents, by sector and age group

	Marital status (percentage)										
	Arabica			Robusta				Tea			
Respondent age category	**S**	**M**	**W**	**S**	**M**	**D**	**W**	**S**	**M**	**D**	**W**
Adult (18 years and above)	2.44	95.12	2.44	0.00	94.12	2.94	2.94	14.55	77.27	2.73	5.45
Child (5-11 years)	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Child (12-14 years)	100.00	0.00	0.00	90.00	10.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Child (15-17 years)	90.00	10.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	95.65	4.35	0.00	0.00
Overall	48.15	50.62	1.23	49.28	47.83	1.45	1.45	56.56	39.37	1.36	2.71

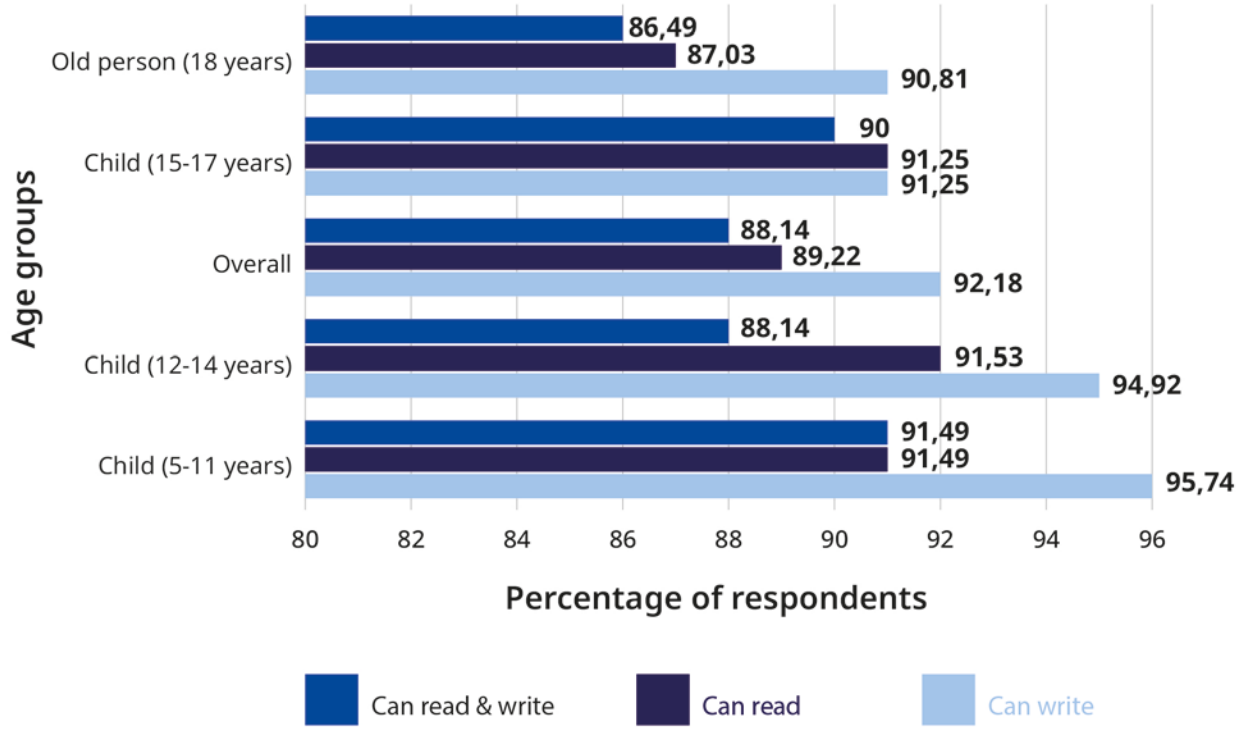
Note: S = single; M = Married; W = Widowed; D = Divorced.

15 During FGDs, older persons in the Eastern and Western regions of Uganda who are coffee and tea growers confirmed the existence of early marriages. Many were quoted as saying: “Early marriage is a challenge that hinders women from getting jobs, they find themselves with a lot of responsibilities at household level that hinders them from looking for jobs.”

3.2.1.3 Ability to read and write

The levels of literacy were found to be high among both children and adults (parents/guardians). Overall, 88 per cent of all respondents (86 per cent of adults /parents and guardians) were able to read and write. The 12–14 age group had the lowest percentage of literacy, at 88 per cent compared to 91 per cent of those aged 5–11(Figure 3.8).

▶ **Figure 3.8. Parents and children who can read or write, by age group**



3.2.1.4 Education levels

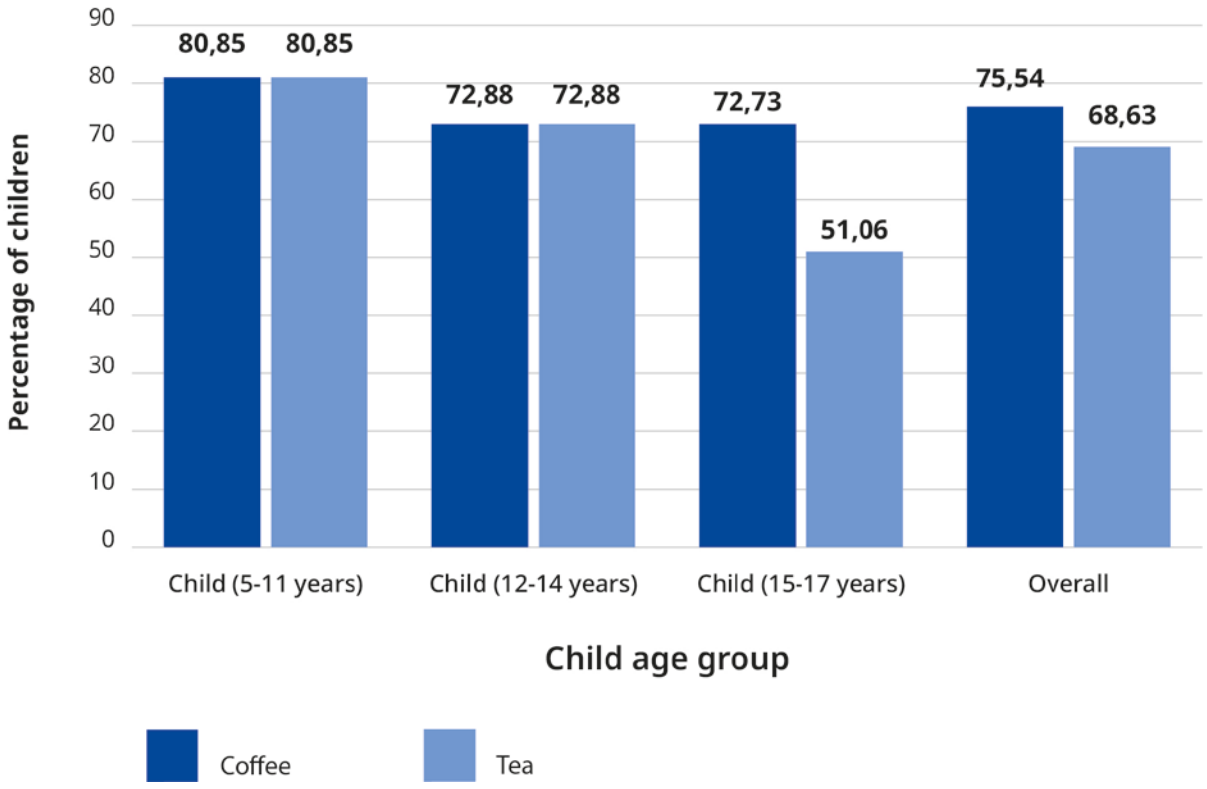
The majority of the household respondents had primary (57 per cent) and “O” level secondary education as their highest levels. However, among the children, the 15–17 age group had more “O” and “A” levels than the rest. Among the age group 5–11, who are expected to be in school, 11 per cent indicated they had never attended school (table 3.4).

▶ **Table 3.4. Education levels of respondents, by age group**

	Percentage of respondents				
Education level	**Adult /parent (18 and above) (n=185)**	**Child (5-11 years) (n=47)**	**Child (12-14 years) (n=59)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=80)**	**Overall (n=186)**
Never in school	8.65	10.64	6.78	7.50	8.36
Primary	48.11	85.11	83.05	42.50	57.14
Secondary 1-4, O’Level	31.35	2.13	10.17	45.00	27.22
Secondary 5-6 A’Level	1.08	2.13	0.00	3.75	1.62
Tertiary 1(Certificate)	5.41	0.00	0.00	1.25	2.96
Tertiary 2 (Diploma)	2.70	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.35
Tertiary 3 (Degree)	2.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.08
Post graduate	0.54	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.27

Overall, 69 per cent of the sampled children in the tea sector were still in school at the time of the survey, compared to 76 per cent of those in the coffee sector. Although over 70 per cent of children in the coffee sector across all the three age groups were still in school, the 15–17 age group in the tea sector had the highest dropout rate with only 51 per cent still in school (figure 3.9).

▶ Figure 3.9. Children still in school, by sector and age group



3.2.1.5 Household size and economy

The majority of the sampled children in both the coffee and tea sectors live in families of about five to ten members. The results showed that about 45 and 35 per cent respectively of the children lived with five to ten, and eight to ten, household members, while about 1 per cent lived by themselves (figure 3.10). However, 80 per cent of the children indicated that two to three of these household members earned some income to support the family (figure 3.11). This means that the level of dependency is high, with few members supporting many by working to earn an income.

Figure 3.10. Number of people living in household, percentage of sampled children, by sector

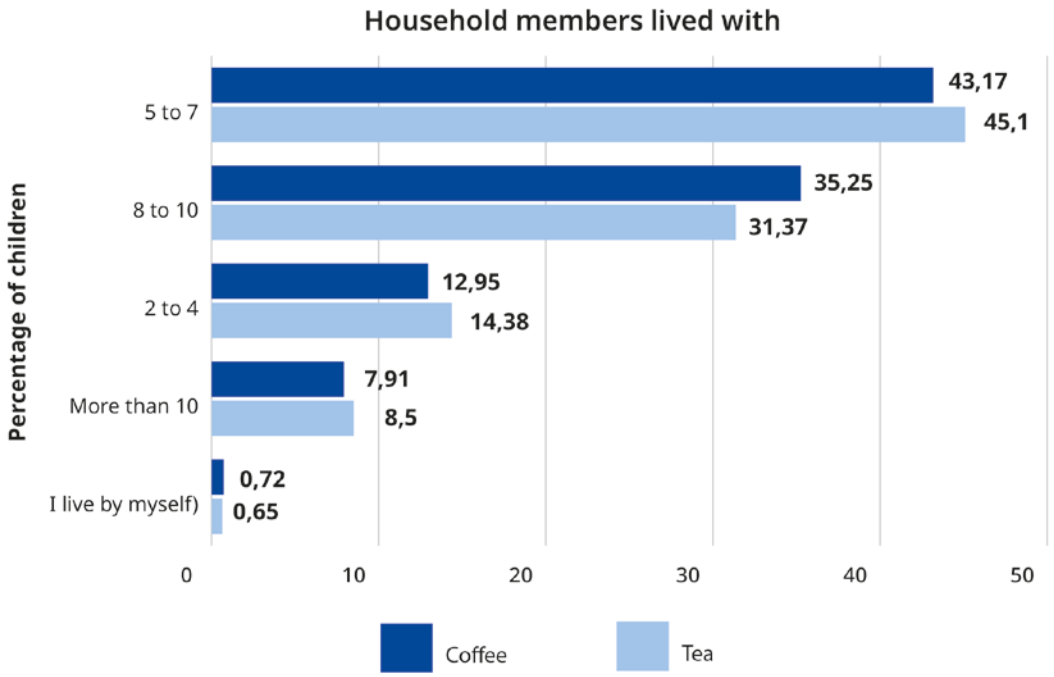
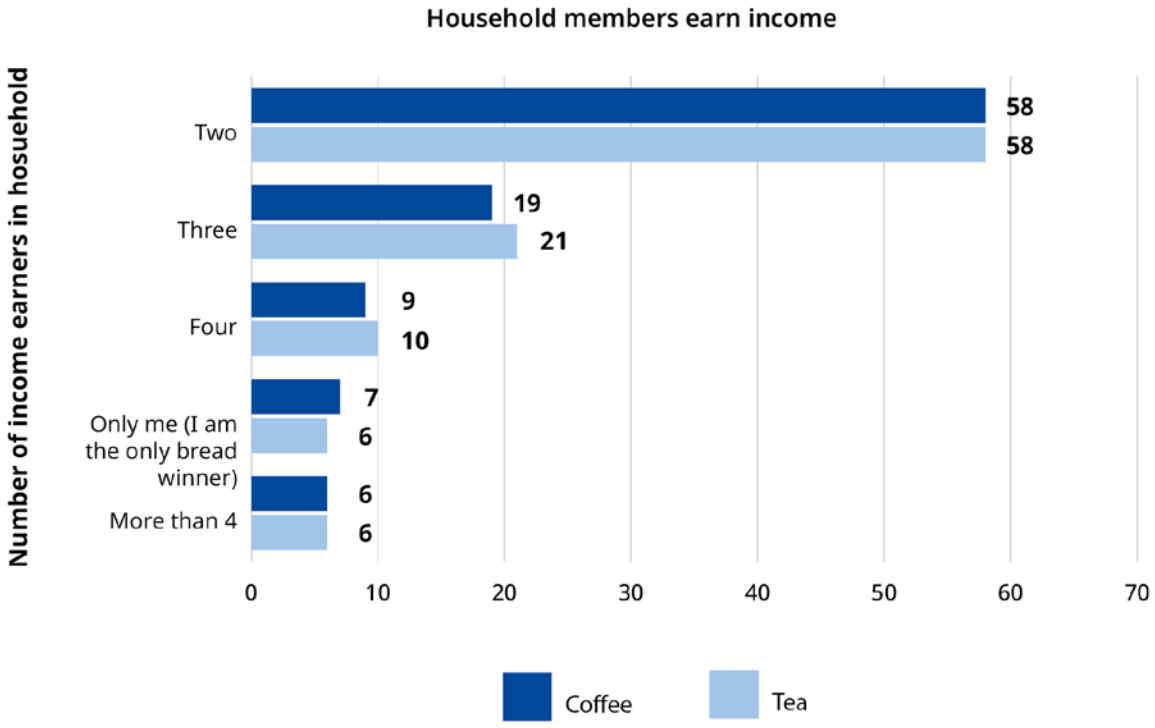


Figure 3.11. Number of household members who earn an income, percentage of sampled children, by sector



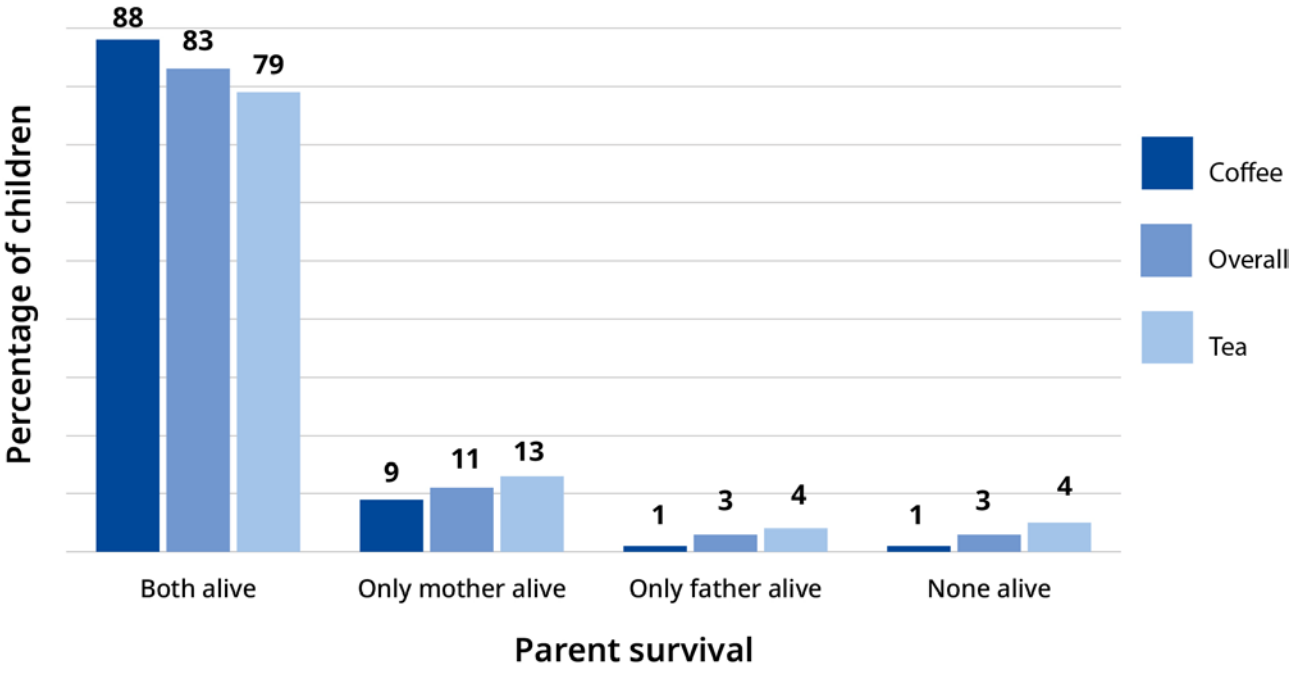
3.2.1.6 Parental status

Generally, the majority of children interviewed (83 per cent) had both biological parents alive and 78 per cent of them were living with at least one of their parents in the family home. However, parental survival and living with a biological parent was highest among the 5–11 age category (table 3.5). The results showed that only 3 per cent of the children interviewed had any form of disability; these were mainly related to eyesight and injured limbs. About 15 per cent of the children were not living with their own families but had come to the areas for work. By sector, 88 per cent of children in the coffee sector and 79 per cent of those in the tea sector had both parents living (figure 3.12).

Table 3.5. Parental survival, child residence, and any disability, by age group

	Percentage of children			
	(5-11 years) (n=47)	(12-14 years) (n=59)	(15-17 years) (n=80)	Overall (n=186
Parent survival status				
Both alive	91.49	81.36	78.75	82.80
Only mother alive	4.26	15.25	12.50	11.29
Only father alive	0.00	1.69	5.00	2.69
Neither alive	4.26	1.69	3.75	3.23
Do you live with either of your parents?				
Yes	80.00	77.59	77.92	78.33
No	20.00	22.41	22.08	21.67
Child disability				
Yes	4.26	1.69	2.50	2.69
No	95.74	98.31	97.50	97.31
Where the family lives				
Here in this location	82.98	89.83	83.54	85.41
Far away	17.02	10.17	16.46	14.59

Figure 3.12. Parental survival status, by sector



3.3.2 Child labour

Among all the children in the sample, the most common jobs done are casual farm work, as well as "other jobs" such as driving, construction and market vending and casual work off the farm. The results indicated that between 60 and 65 per cent of the children were involved in casual farm work, followed by 36–42 per cent in other jobs and 13–29 per cent in casual work off the farm. Children aged 12–14 years are more involved in casual off-farm work (29 per cent) and running their own businesses (5 per cent) as compared to the other age groups (table 3.6). Only 1 per cent of children aged 15–17 years indicated that they do jobs at factories.

▶ **Table 3.6. Types of jobs done by children, by age group**

	Percentage of children			
Job type ever done	**Child (5-11 years) (n=47)**	**Child(12-14 years) (n=59)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=80)**	**Overall (n=186)**
Casual farm work	63.83	55.93	65.00	61.83
Others (brick making, driving, carpentry, construction, market vending, shop attendants. etc.)	36.17	42.37	37.50	38.71
Casual off-farm work	12.77	28.81	18.75	20.43
Artisanal work	0.00	1.69	5.00	2.69
Run own business	0.00	5.08	3.75	3.23
Factory job	0.00	0.00	1.25	0.54

When asked about the jobs their parents do, the majority of the children indicated that they do casual work on farm and farming (75 per cent), while 19 per cent of the children indicated that their parents run their own businesses and 28 per cent said their parents were involved in other work such as brick laying, transport (driving and riding) and market vending. Only 5 per cent of the children indicated that their parents worked at a factory (table 3.7).

▶ **Table 3.7. Types of jobs done by parents and guardians, by age group**

	Percentage of children			
Parents/guardian's job	**Child (5-11 years) (n=47)**	**Child (12-14 years) (n=59)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=80)**	**Overall (n=186**
Casual farm work	65.96	81.36	74.68	74.59
Run own business	17.02	20.34	18.99	18.92
Others (*Brick making, driving, carpentry, construction, market vending, shop attendants*).	29.79	20.34	32.91	28.11
Casual off-farm work	12.77	11.86	3.80	8.65
Civil servant	4.26	8.47	2.53	4.86
Factory job	6.38	3.39	5.06	4.86
Artisanal work	2.13	1.69	0.00	1.08

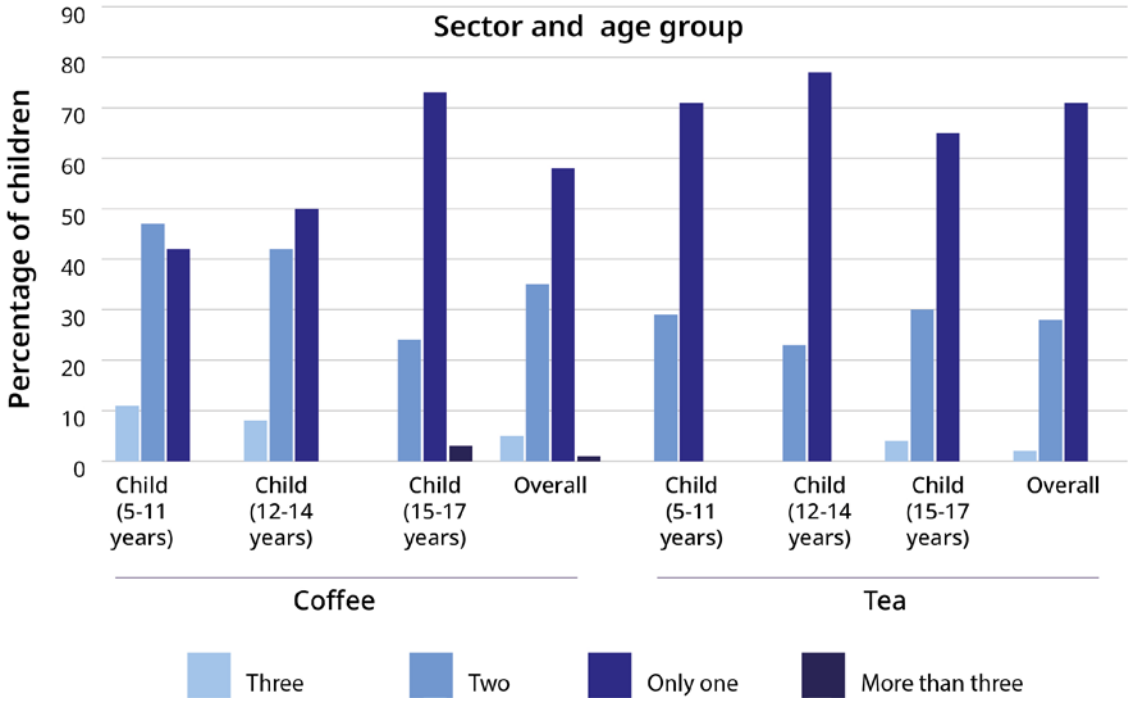
Many of the children interviewed were engaged mainly in agricultural activities: 90 per cent in the coffee and 92 per cent in the tea sectors. However, more males than females were engaged in agriculture in both sectors. Many children were also engaged in other jobs such as market vending, boda-boda motorcycling, and housekeeping. Among the female children, about 5 per cent of them were running their own businesses as compared to only 2 per cent of the male children (table 3.8).

▶ Table 3.8. Types of work children are engaged in, by sector and sex

	Percentage of children					
	Coffee			Tea		
Work type	**Male**	**Female**	**Overall**	**Male**	**Female**	**Overall**
Agriculture	95.31	85.33	89.93	97.44	86.67	92.16
Others (*vending, boda-boda motorcycling, housekeeping, fetch water, etc*.)	23.33	25.71	24.62	21.79	28.17	24.83
Construction/brick laying	9.38	0.00	4.32	8.97	0.00	4.58
Transport	1.56	0.00	0.72	2.56	0.00	1.31
Own business	1.56	6.67	4.32	1.28	5.33	3.27
Shop attendant	0.00	1.33	0.72	0.00	1.33	0.65
Catering/restaurant		1.33	0.72	0.00	1.33	0.65
Tailoring	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.33	0.65

The majority of children in the coffee and tea sectors were mainly engaged in one or two income-generating activities. However, in the coffee sector, 11 per cent of the children aged between 5 and 11 years and 8 per cent of those aged 12–14 years were engaged in three different economic activities (figure 3.13). These results show that in coffee, children are more involved in multiple jobs than in the tea sector, which is also partly an indicator of availability of opportunities for children's work in the Eastern and Central regions as compared to the Western region.

▶ Figure 3.13. Number of income-generating activities children are involved in, by sector



3.3.3 Children's engagement in work in coffee production

The majority of children in the coffee sector were involved in casual farm work and casual off-farm work, especially those aged 5–14 years. However, those in the 15–17 age group had a diversity of jobs on and off the farm where 7 per cent had run their own business at some time, and 7 per cent had worked at a factory before (table 3.9).

▶ **Table 3.9. Types of jobs done by children in the coffee sector, by age group**

	Percentage of children			
Job type	**Child (5-11 years) (n=19)**	**Child (12-14 years) (n=24)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=33)**	**Overall (n=76**
Casual farm work	96.77	84.62	71.43	86.90
Casual off-farm work	19.35	43.59	28.57	32.14
Run own business	0.00	7.69	7.14	4.76
Factory job	0.00	0.00	7.14	1.19

When we explored who children are working for in coffee, the results indicated that 77 per cent were working at their household farms for their parents while 18 per cent worked for other adults and only 5 per cent worked in their own businesses or farms. The results in table 3.10 indicate that a sizeable percentage of those aged 15–17 years were working for other adults (21 per cent) and running their own businesses or farms (18 per cent).

▶ **Table 3.10. Who children work for in the coffee sector, by age group**

	Percentage of children			
Who children work for	**Child (5-11 years) (n=19)**	**Child (12-14 years) (n=24)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=33)**	**Overall (n=76)**
Parents	80.85	83.05	60.61	76.98
Other adults	17.02	16.95	21.21	17.99
On own farm/business	2.13	0.00	18.18	5.04

3.3.4 Children's engagement in work in tea production

The majority of the children in the tea sector were involved in casual farm work (91 per cent) and casual off-farm work (30 per cent) across all age groups. However, those in the 12–14 and 15–17 age groups had a diversity of jobs on and off the farm, where 8 and 4 per cent respectively had run their own business at some time (table 3.11).

▶ **Table 3.11. Types of jobs done by children in the tea sector, by age group**

	Percentage of children in the tea sector			
Job type	**Child (5-11 years) (n=28)**	**Child (12-14 years) (n=35)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=47)**	**Overall (n=110)**
Casual farm work	96.77	84.62	93.33	91.30
Casual off-farm work	19.35	43.59	24.44	29.57
Run own business	0.00	7.69	4.44	4.35
Factory job	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Children in the tea sector mainly work for their parents at the farm (79 per cent) and for other adults (17 per cent) with a few of them (4 per cent) having their own farms and businesses. Although the 5–11 age group indicated that they also own production and business, a higher percentage of the 15–17 age group (11 per cent) own production at the farm or their own business (table 3.12).

▶ **Table 3.12. Who children work for in the tea sector, by age group**

	Percentage of children			
Who children work for	**Child (5-11 years) (n=28)**	**Child (12-14 years) (n=35)**	**Child (15-17 years) (n=47)**	**Overall (n=110)**
Parents	80.85	83.05	71.74	78.95
Other adults	17.02	16.95	17.39	17.11
On own farm/business	2.13	0.00	10.87	3.95

3.3.5 Safety in the workplace

Among the unpleasant work conditions on the farm to which children are exposed in the coffee and tea sectors were dangerous tools, extreme coldness or heat, dust and fumes, and fire and flame. These affected 85, 61, 30 and 28 per cent respectively of the children in the sample. There were however differences in levels of exposure: children in the coffee sector were more exposed to coldness/heat and dust/fumes, while children in the tea sector were more exposed to fire, gas and flames (38 per cent) (table 3.13).

▶ **Table 3.13. Children exposed to dangerous work conditions, by sector**

	Percentage of children		
Work condition	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Overall**
Dangerous tools (knives, etc.)	87.50	83.33	85.21
Extreme cold or heat	64.06	57.69	60.56
Dust/fumes	48.44	14.10	29.58
Fire, gas, flames	15.63	38.46	28.17
Work in water/lake/pond/river	18.75	15.38	16.90
Chemicals (pesticides, glues, etc.)	17.19	12.82	14.79
Loud noise or vibration	14.06	2.56	7.75
Work at heights	12.50	1.28	6.34
Other things, processes or conditions bad for your health or safety	1.56	1.28	1.41
Insufficient ventilation	0.00	1.28	0.70
Work underground	0.00	0.00	0.00
Workplace too dark or confined	0.00	0.00	0.00
Explosives	0.00	0.00	0.00

Although 28 per cent of the children carried heavy loads at work and 30 per cent had had an accident at work, only 21 per cent of them thought their work was dangerous. About 73 per cent of the children indicated that their employer or parents or other adults supervising them at work had trained them about safety at work, while 87 per cent believed that their supervisors ensured their safety (table 3.14).

Table 3.14. Perceptions of workplace safety, by sector

	Percentage of children		
Aspects of workplace safety	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Do you think your employer or parents or other adults take care to make sure you are safe?	81.58	90.00	86.56
Has your employer or parents or other adults ever tried to teach you how to be safe at work?	64.47	78.18	72.58
Have you ever had an accident at work?	27.63	30.91	29.57
Do you carry heavy loads at work?	28.95	27.27	27.96
Do you think your work is dangerous?	18.42	22.73	20.97
Does your work ever make you or other workers ill?	23.68	18.18	20.43

3.3.6 The extent of child labour in the coffee and tea sectors

All the authorities, from local government officials including labour officers and social workers, to police probation officers and managers and extension officers at tea and coffee estates, agreed and attested to the existence of child labour in the ACCEL project coffee- and tea-growing areas. What was very clear is that there is a lack of data and clarity on the extent of child labour, even though it is visible and evident that children are involved in a wide range of commercial and non-commercial activities.

From the various KIIs it emerged that coffee has the highest rates of child labour among the many activities along its supply chain (box 3.1). Although the coffee supply chain has seasonal fluctuations, it is a longer supply chain with a number of actors downstream, and tends to create a lot of gaps in labour demand and supply, especially during the peak harvest seasons. The tea supply chain, on the other hand, is short with few actors, and runs throughout the year. This means that it has even fewer activities where labour is engaged, mainly needed at weeding and harvesting times. Although both supply chains employ children, the coffee supply chain has about 20–75 per cent child labour, while in tea the percentage of children ranges between 5 and 10 per cent according to key informants.

Box 3.1. The variety of children's work: Comments by child protection actors

Coffee

- In Eastern and Central Uganda, children are involved in working in agro-processing, agro-business, picking of bottles for recycling, serving of foods in restaurants, as housemaids, carrying of coffee and onions[1] and on construction sites.[2] Child labour is also common in fishing at the lake (since Buikwe has a lake boundary), casual work especially in the planting of sugarcanes, application of manure, weeding and digging in sugarcane plantations, brick laying, market vending of agro-produce such as selling tomatoes and green vegetables.
- Child labour among children in Buikwe is estimated at 50 per cent, with children involved in various commercial and non-commercial activities. The Surgent Child Protection Officer (Buikwe Police Station) Ms. Asaba Rosemary, and the Probation Officer Buikwe, Ms. Naigara Lydia, were quoted as saying: "Child labour in Buikwe is very high especially because of COVID-19. Here children do a lot of agro-produce business like tomatoes and in weeding and digging in sugarcane plantations, while at landing sites most children are involved in fishing and drying of Mukene."
- In Mbale, it was mentioned that 2–6 in every 10 children (20-60 per cent) are involved in some form of child labour such as carrying of coffee or sorting coffee at stores during the season. Some key informants however noted that some children come with their parents to work.
- "Child labour has been high with about 75 per cent of children selling pineapples, picking bottles, selling vegetables and serving foods in the hotels and being given only 2,000 shillings. We managed to grab 138 and we kept them at Namakwekwe child rehabilitation centre during the COVID-19 pandemic" (Mukhokha Mutoto, Probation Officer, Mbale District).

Tea

In the tea-growing districts, children are involved in many activities. The main activities by district are:

- Kikuube & Hoima Districts: Selling of agricultural produce, domestic work, fishing, bar attendants, home gardens, sugarcane growing, rice plantations, tobacco growing and tea plucking. “In Hoima and Kikuube, child labour is there to a large extent and 4,000 children have been protected and integrated back to school and others to technical training institutions. However, about 10,000 children (5 per cent) are engaged in child labour each year especially in tea plucking during seasons” (Antonio Ayesiga, Senior Labour officer, Hoima District).
- Kabarole District: Mechanics and motor repairs, mairungi growing, housemaids, fetching of water, agro-produce business, transport business, carrying of firewood, working in home gardens, tea plucking and stone quarrying. “The extent of child labour is high in Kabarole, in tea plucking the most noted subcounty is Akibale and Kubura town council. However, other kinds of child labour are in stone quarrying noticed in Kanungura and Bukuku while the majority of girls are employed as housemaids” (Monday Christopher, DCDO, Kabarole District).
- Bushenyi District: Tea plucking, construction, transportation of milk from farm to market, bar attendants, chapatti-making business, sand mining, stone quarrying, house maids, weeding in banana plantations, grazing of cattle, serve food in restaurants.

Notes: [1]“Child labour is noticed in the carrying of coffee and onions, especially in the highland districts of Namisindwa and Bududa from the garden homes” (Said Mr. Umar, District Commercial Officer, Mbale district). [2]“The urban development has provided many opportunities to casual labourers and the majority of the children are involved in carrying of water, bricks and mixing of sand at construction sites” (Mr. Sewanyana Kiganda Sam, Acting Labour officer, Buikwe District).

3.3.7 Child worker rights, benefits and freedom of association in coffee and tea production

Child worker rights, benefits and freedoms were analysed in terms of workloads, work hours, payments, contracts and the nature of work children are engaged in.

3.3.7.1 Nature of children’s home and factory work

At home, over 50 per cent of the children were engaged in a number of activities, the leading ones being fetching water (95 per cent), collecting firewood (86 per cent), cooking (71 per cent), tea/coffee weeding (69 per cent) and tea/coffee picking (65 per cent) (table 3.15). In terms of farm work and tasks, children are mainly involved in weeding, harvesting and planting coffee. About 89 per cent of the children indicated they were involved in weeding and harvesting coffee, and 71 per cent in tea, with more children in coffee than tea. About 14 per cent of the children were found to be involved in spraying coffee and tea (table 3.16).

▶ Table 3.15. Children’s tasks working at home, by sector

	Percentage of children		
Work tasks at home	**Coffee (n=76)**	**Tea (n=110)**	**Total (n=186)**
Fetching water	92.11	97.25	95.14
Collecting firewood	82.89	88.07	85.95
Cooking	72.37	70.64	71.35
Childcare	55.26	60.00	58.06
Tea/coffee transportation (garden to home)	42.11	17.43	27.57
Tea/coffee transportation (home to selling point)	3.95	7.34	5.95

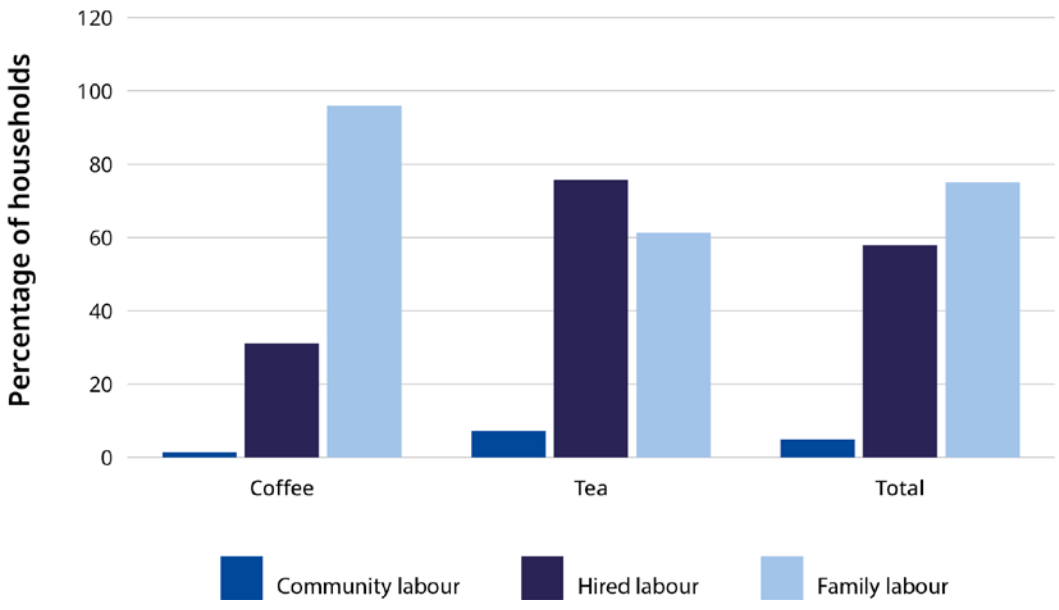
▶ **Table 3.16. Children's tasks working on farms, by sector**

	Percentage of children		
Farm activity	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Weeding	89.47	88.07	88.65
Harvesting	96.05	54.13	71.35
Planting	59.21	33.94	44.32
Land preparation	61.84	23.85	39.46
Transporting	48.68	30.28	37.84
Spraying	14.47	12.84	13.51

3.2.1.2 Sources of farm labour

Overall, the households sampled mainly obtained their farm labour from using family members (75 per cent); some (58 per cent) hired labour too to supplement the family labour. A higher proportion of households in the tea sector (76 per cent) than the coffee sector (31 per cent) hired farm labour. In addition, the use of community labour was more common among tea-growing households than in coffee (figure 3.14).

▶ **Figure 3.14. Types of farm labour in the coffee and tea sectors**



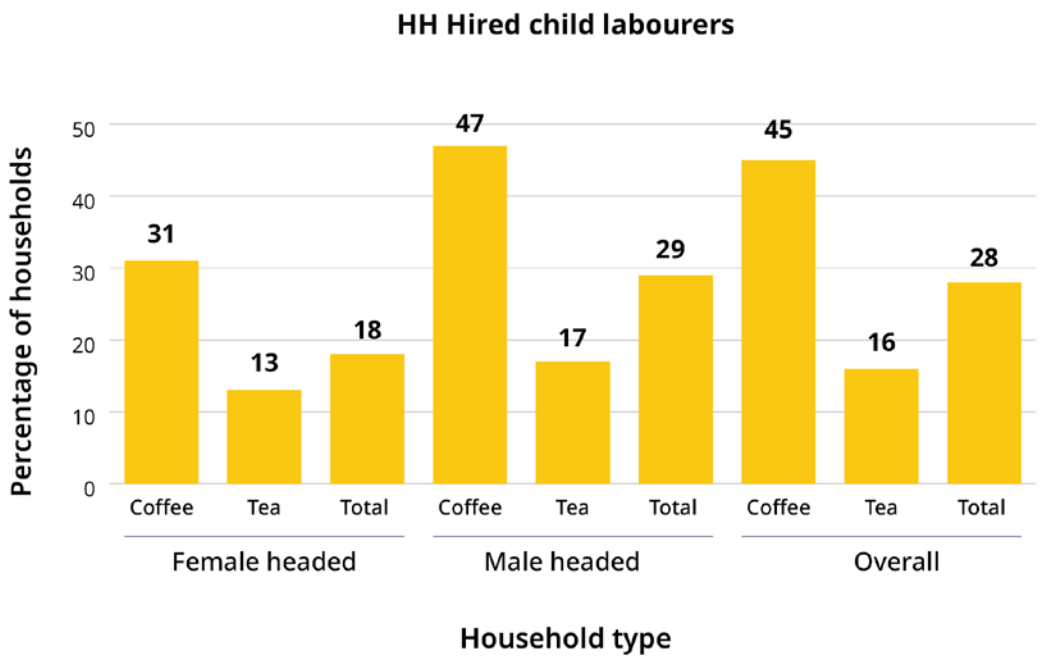
Among those households that hired labour, about 95 per cent hired it from within the village, and 11 per cent outside the village but within their district (table 3.17). It was only tea-growing households that indicated that they hired labour from outside the districts and from outside Uganda.[16] Child labour hiring on tea and coffee farms and estates was very pronounced, with 28 per cent of the sampled households indicating that they hired children aged 5–17 years: 45 per cent of coffee-growing households and 16 per cent of tea-growing households. Disaggregation by sex indicated that more male-headed than female-headed households hired children for farm labour (figure 3.15).

16 Some FGD participants indicated that many workers used to come from Rwanda to work in tea plantations in Western Uganda, but this had stopped with the closure of borders between the two countries in 2019.

Table 3.17. Sources of hired labour on coffee and tea farms

	Percentage of households		
Hired labour sources	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Within village	95.65	95.24	95.33
Within district	13.04	10.71	11.21
Outside district	0.00	1.19	0.93
Outside Uganda	0.00	1.19	0.93

Figure 3.15. Percentage of households that hired child labour, by sector and sex



Note: A chi square test indicated no significant differences between male- and female-headed households.

Across all farm activities, children in the tea sector worked longer hours than in the coffee sector. Although there was no significant difference between sectors, children spent four hours spraying in tea compared to 3.6 hours in coffee, and 3.8 hours weeding tea as compared to 3.9 hours weeding coffee (table 3.18).

Table 3.18. Hours worked by children on coffee and tea farms

	Average hours worked per day		
Farm activity	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Harvesting	4.92	5.24	5.06
Land preparation	3.98	4.19	4.05
Weeding	3.90	3.82	3.85
Spraying	3.64	4.00	3.84
Planting	3.64	3.97	3.79
Transporting	1.55	1.29	1.42

Note: A test at 5 per cent showed no significant difference between sectors.

In the coffee sector, a high proportion of the children indicated that the heaviest tasks were spraying (60 per cent), land preparation (43 per cent) and harvesting (39 per cent). On the other hand, children in the tea sector felt that the heaviest tasks were transportation (59 per cent), spraying (50 per cent) and land preparation (38 per cent) (table 3.19).

▶ **Table 3.19. Children's ratings of heaviness of work on coffee and tea farms**

	Percentage of children					
Work done	**Coffee**			**Tea**		
	Light	**Somehow light**	**Heavy**	**Light**	**Somehow light**	**Heavy**
Transporting	36.67	26.67	36.67	12.50	28.13	59.38
Spraying	30.00	10.00	60.00	35.71	14.29	50.00
Land preparation	36.17	21.28	42.55	23.08	38.46	38.46
Harvesting	31.88	28.99	39.13	33.90	37.29	28.81
Weeding	45.59	32.35	22.06	35.35	42.42	22.22
Planting	33.33	45.83	20.83	46.51	41.86	11.63

3.3.7.3 Nature of children's casual labour

A majority of the sampled children (61 per cent) were engaged in part-time work, although this was most common in the coffee sector where 77 per cent of the children were involved in such work; in the tea sector 49 per cent were on a part-time basis and 35 per cent were engaged in spontaneous/ad hoc work (table 3.20).

▶ **Table 3.20. Nature of children's casual labour, by sector**

	Percentage of children		
Nature of casual jobs	**Coffee(n=70)**	**Tea(n=91)**	**Overall(n=161)**
Part-time (on a regular basis)	77.14	49.45	61.49
Spontaneous (ad hoc/when necessary or needed)	12.86	35.16	25.47
Seasonal for a certain period of time	10.00	15.38	13.04

3.3.7.4 Why children work

Over 60 per cent of the children interviewed engaged in working because they were helping with household farm work where other family members were also working to sustain the family; others (61 per cent) wanted to earn money, get food (56 per cent) or supplement family income (43 per cent). Working to get food was however higher among children in the coffee sector (84 per cent) than in the tea sector (34 per cent) (table 3.21).

▶ **Table 3.21. Reasons why children work, by sector**

Percentage of children			
Reasons for working	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Overall**
Help in household enterprise/farm	67	68	68
Because everyone in the family joins in with the work that needs to be done	60	64	62
To earn money	61	60	61
Get something else like food	84	34	56
Supplement family income	53	35	43
To learn new skills	30	44	38

Percentage of children			
Get clothes	24	38	32
Get a chance to go to school	33	27	30
Other	20	3	11
Take care of my parents	4	9	7
Take care of my siblings	3	4	4
Get a place to stay	1	1	1

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021a.

3.3.7.5 Children's pay and workload

Overall, 66 per cent of the sampled children were paid on a daily basis, as they work on farms or estates (51 per cent in the tea and 86 per cent in the coffee sectors). About 17 per cent of the children in tea are paid weekly compared to only 3 per cent in the coffee sector. However, 11 per cent of the child workers in coffee are paid on a monthly basis compared to 32 per cent in the tea sector (table 3.22).

A higher percentage of children in the coffee (61 per cent) than in the tea (41 per cent) sectors indicated that they work every day. However, among the children in the coffee sector, more 5–11-year-olds (65 per cent) and 15–17-year-olds work daily. In the tea sector, 50 per cent of the children aged 15–17 indicated they work daily compared to 30 per cent of those aged 5–11 (figure 3.16). This indicates that children in the coffee sector are more overworked than those in the tea sector and that the age group 15–17 years is more overworked across the two sectors.



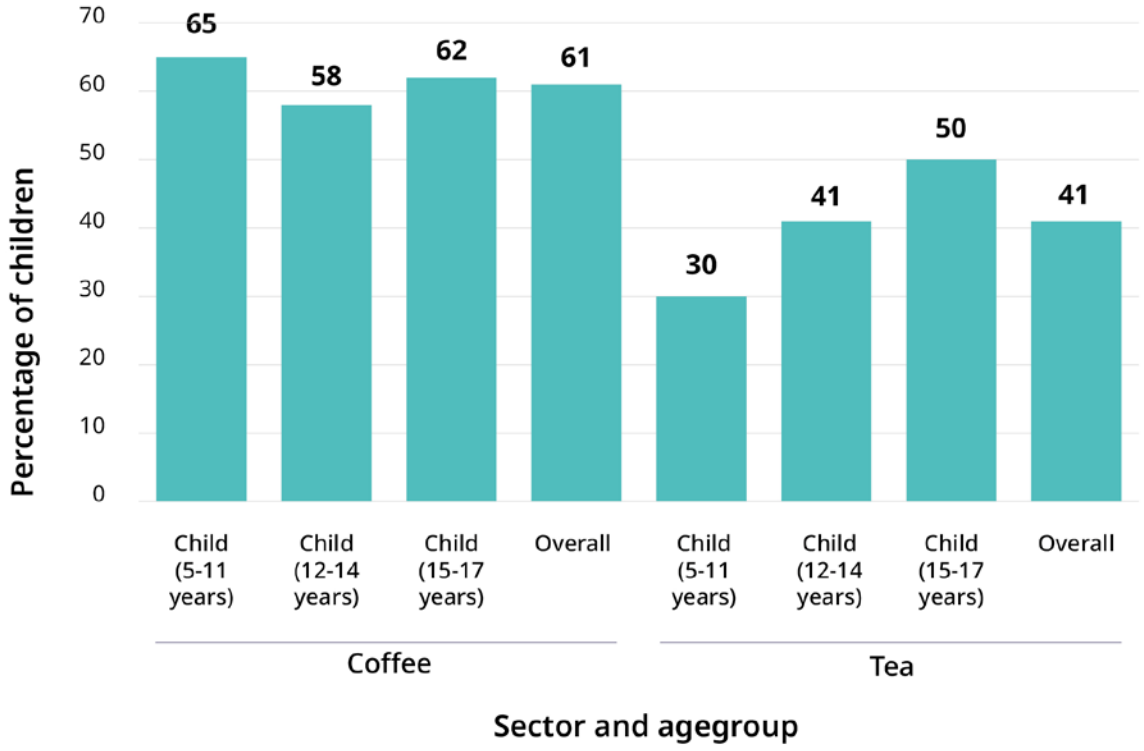


Children working at a tea estate and leaf collection centre
Photo credit: Lydia Namakula (Research Assistant)

Table 3.22. Payments to children, by period and sector

	Coffee (%) (n=70)				Tea (%) (n=91)				Overall (%) (n=161)			
Payment period	**5-11 years**	**12-14 years**	**15-17 years**	**Overall**	**5-11 years**	**12-14 years**	**15-17 years**	**Overall**	**5-11 years**	**12-14 years**	**15-17 years**	**Overall**
Daily	94.12	87.50	79.31	85.71	48.15	46.88	56.25	50.55	65.91	64.29	67.21	65.84
Weekly	0.00	4.17	3.45	2.86	14.81	25.00	12.50	17.58	9.09	16.07	8.20	11.18
Monthly	5.88	8.33	17.24	11.43	37.04	28.13	31.25	31.87	25.00	19.64	24.59	22.98

Figure 3.16. Children who work daily, by sector and age group



3.3.7.6 Children's working time

Overall, the majority of the sampled children worked each year for four to six months or above, for six to seven days a week and for five hours a day and above. The results indicate that about 72 per cent of the children worked for four months and above per year, with 52 per cent of them working for 6–7 days a week and 5–9 hours a day; 12 per cent indicated that they worked for more than nine hours a day. Although 67 per cent of children in the coffee sector worked for 5–7 days a week, 100 per cent of those in tea worked for the same period. Additionally, a higher proportion of children in the coffee sector (83 per cent) than the tea sector (58 per cent) worked for five or more hours a day (table 3.23). This indicates that more children in coffee have heavy daily workloads than in tea. This can be partly attributed to the lack of spread of the coffee season, in that activities have to be carried out on a limited schedule, as compared to tea which has a widely spread season.

▶ **Table 3.23. Children's working time, by sector**

	Percentage of children		
	Coffee	**Tea**	**Overall**
Months worked annually			
Less than 1 month	0.00	5.45	3.23
1–3 months	22.37	26.36	24.73
4–6 months	25.00	40.91	34.41
More than 6 months	52.63	27.27	37.63
Days worked weekly			
Three to four days a week	33.33	0.00	8.00
Five days a week	16.67	47.37	40.00
Six days a week	33.33	31.58	32.00
Seven days a week	16.67	21.05	20.00
Hours worked per day			
3–4 hours	16.67	21.05	20.00
Less than 5 hours	0.00	21.05	16.00
5–7 hours	33.33	31.58	32.00
8–9 hours	16.67	21.05	20.00
More than 9 hours	33.33	5.26	12.00

In both sectors there are clearly large remuneration gaps between children and adults. Although there may be differences of skill and effort of work between adults and children that may contribute to these gaps, the results indicate that on a weekly basis adults earn five times higher wages than children in coffee and tea, while on piece-work-based work (which is very common), adults earn 20 times higher than children in the coffee sector and 10 times higher in the tea sector (table 3.24). The estimated average village wage rates per worker per hour in coffee and tea indicate that female children were paid slightly higher than males or even adults, although workers in the coffee sector earned higher hourly wages than those in the tea sector (table 3.25).

Table 3.24. Average wages earned by children and adults/parents/guardians, by sector (in UGX)

	Average earnings (UGX)			
	Children		Adults	
Payment time	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Coffee**	**Tea**
Hourly	-	-	5 000.00	-
Daily	10 692.31	5 712.00	27 633.33	8 166.67
Weekly	22 250.00	19 050.00	104 666.70	110 000.00
Monthly	95 000.00	51 823.81	588 000.00	629 012.70
Piece-work-based	15 375.00	5 376.52	310 000.00	50 000.00
Seasonal	135 785.70	38 666.67	1 365 946.00	1 339 286.00
Total	53 235.29	20 259.27	823 171.60	627 000.00

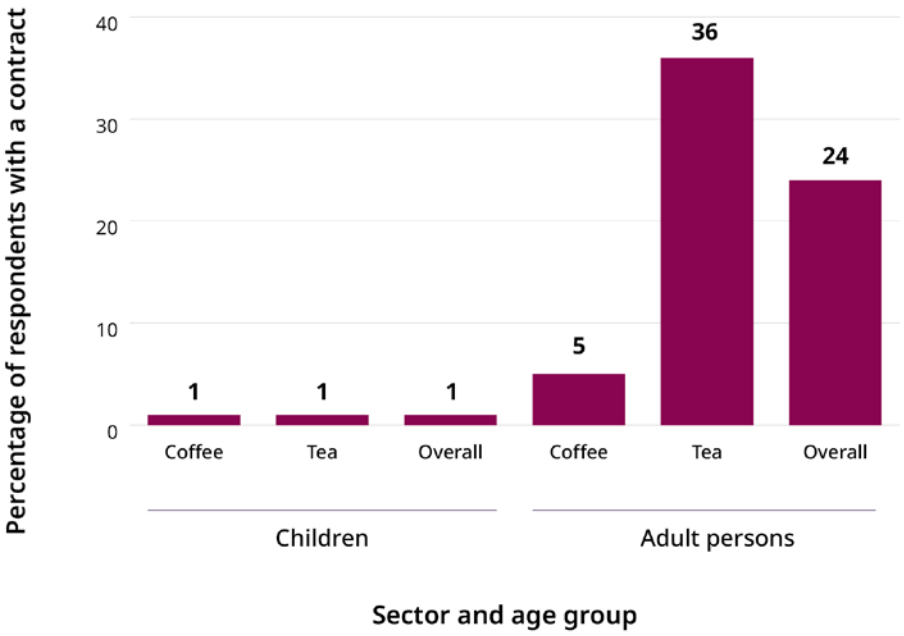
Table 3.25. Average village-level wages earned by children and adults, by sector and sex (in UGX)

	Average hourly wages (UGX)					
Sector	**Male (5-11 years)**	**Female (5-11 years)**	**Male (12-17 years)**	**Female (12-17 years)**	**Male 18+Years (adult)**	**Female 18+Years (adult)**
Coffee	2 980.85	3 007.47	1 074.77	2 469.25	2 239.48	2 270.74
Tea	1 463.91	1 067.50	1 222.33	843.60	1 454.29	1 173.73
Total	2 442.58	2 670.09	1 130.10	2 082.19	1 765.66	1 854.15

3.3.7.7 Work contracts

The results indicate that only 1 per cent of children in the coffee and tea sectors had written contracts for the paid work they do at the farm or estate. In contrast, 24 per cent of adults have contracts, but mainly for those in the tea sector, where 36 per cent have contracts compared to only 5 per cent in the coffee sector (figure 3.17). This is partly an indication of the level of informal worker engagement and the ad hoc nature of the work (workers are only hired when necessary and convenient) in the coffee sector compared to the tea sector. These differences are partly caused by the seasonal nature of coffee as compared to tea.

▶ **Figure 3.17. Children and adults with a contract, by sector**



Although over 80 per cent of all the adults indicated that they liked their jobs, only 59 per cent of the children did. About 12 per cent of the children expressed total dislike for the jobs they did, 13 per cent of these in the coffee sector and 11 per cent in the tea sector (figure 3.18). In fact, 22 per cent of the children indicated that, given an alternative, they wouldn't continue with their current jobs; 30 per cent of these were in the tea sector and 11 per cent in the coffee sector. In contrast, 21 per cent of the adults indicated that they wouldn't want to continue their current job; 29 per cent of these were in the tea sector and 8 per cent in the coffee sector (figure 3.19). These results show that dislike of the job is higher among children than adults and also that it is higher among children in tea than in coffee.

▶ **Figure 3.18. Children and adults who like their job, by sector**

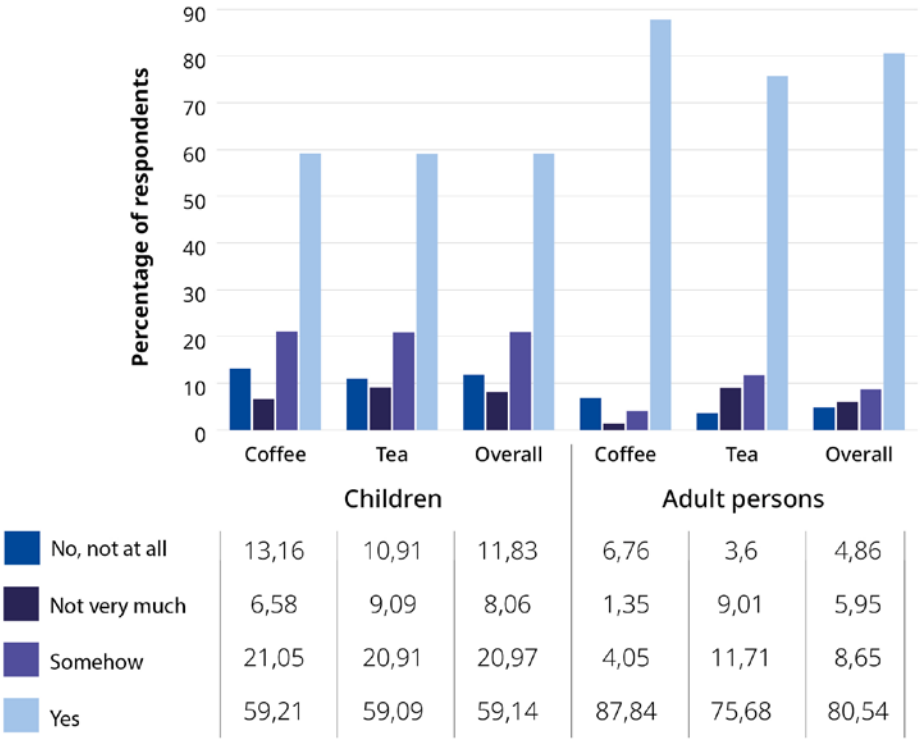
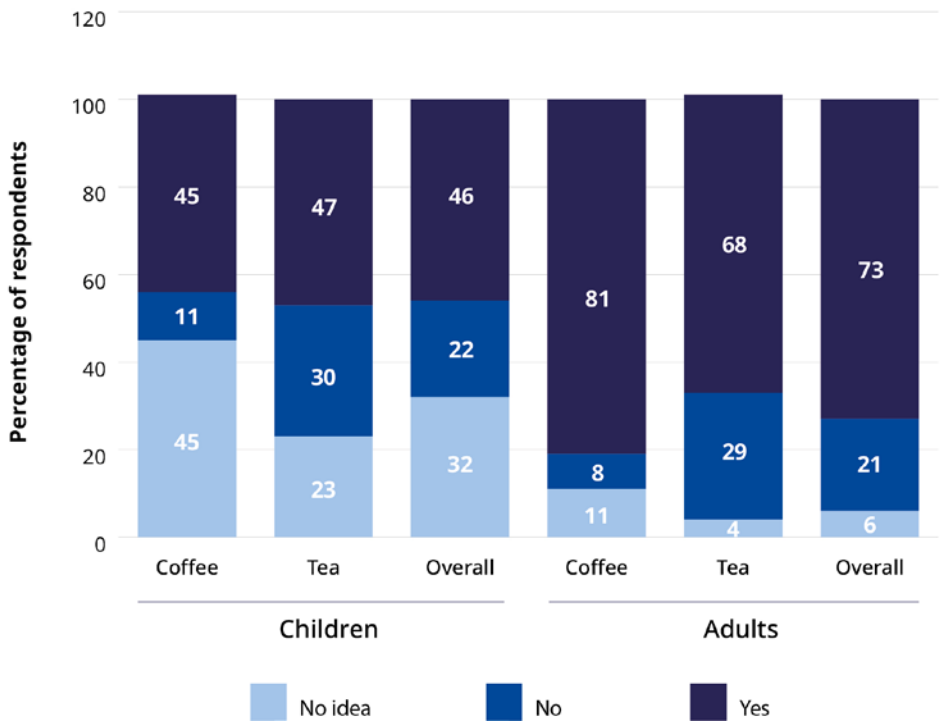


Figure 3.19. Children and adults who would like to continue in their current job, by sector



For those children who did not like their current jobs, the alternatives available were in various sectors. About a third (31 per cent) of the children indicated that they would choose agri-business at various nodes of the supply chain. The majority of these preferred primary production of crops (75 per cent) while 15 per cent chose distribution, aggregation and marketing of agricultural produce, while 13 per cent pointed at livestock rearing (table 3.26). Other jobs considered as alternatives were in retail shops, tailoring, transport (taxi and boda-boda), starting their own business, or "Other".[17]

Table 3.26. Alternative jobs indicated by children who do not like their current job, by sector

	Percentage of children		
Sector	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Overall**
Agriculture	30.88	30.69	30.77
Primary production	66.67	80.65	75.00
Aggregation/distribution/marketing	19.05	12.9	15.38
Processing	4.76	3.23	3.85
Others (livestock rearing)	19.05	9.68	13.46
Running a small shop	4.41	15.84	11.24
Catering/restaurant	1.47	0.99	1.18
Tailoring	8.82	9.90	9.47
Construction work	4.41	3.96	4.14
Transport business	8.82	17.82	14.20

17 This category includes many jobs in various sectors, such as nursing, medical doctor (after going back to or finishing school), hairdressing, carpentry, mechanics, horticulture, poultry and rabbitry, trading in produce, etc.

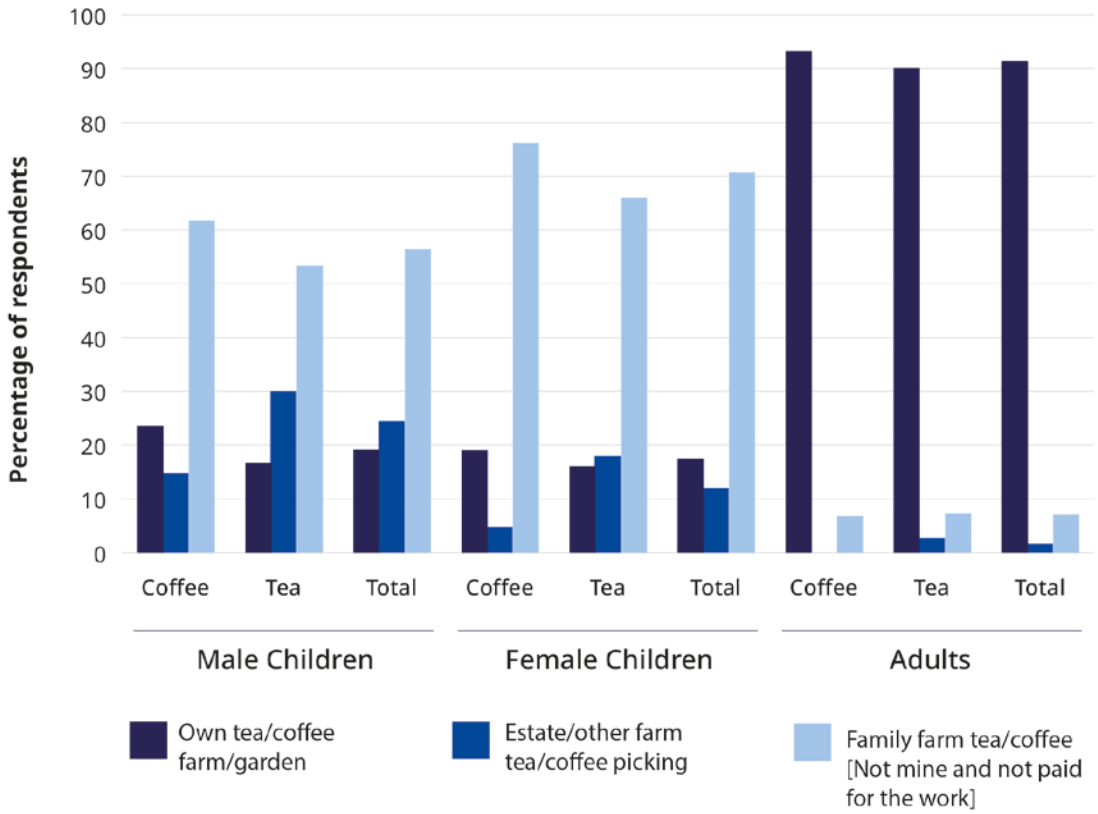
	Percentage of children		
Education work	11.76	18.81	15.98
Start own business	17.65	12.87	14.79
Other (*Nursing, medicine, hair dressing, carpentry, mechanic, horticulture, poultry and rabbitry, trading in produce, etc.)*	50.00	58.42	55.03

3.4 Coffee and tea production on family farms

3.4.1 Participation in coffee and tea production

The majority of the sampled children (63 per cent) were engaged unpaid at the family farms and gardens, although more female (71 per cent) than male children (56 per cent) were involved. In contrast, a higher proportion of male children (24 per cent) than females (12 per cent) indicated that they worked on other farms and estates; this was more common in the tea than the coffee sectors (figure 3.20). Although 91 per cent of the adults indicated that they worked on their own farms/gardens, 19 per cent of male children and 17 per cent of female children had their own gardens.

▶ **Figure 3.20. Places of work and farm ownership**



3.4.2 Acreage and harvests in coffee and tea

There has been a slight increase in coffee and tea acreages among households in the ACCEL project areas. The results show that acreage had slightly risen changed from two acres in the season 2019B to 2.1 acres in 2020B (table 3.27).

▶ **Table 3.27. Household coffee and tea acreage, 2019–20**

	Acreage of household farms, by season		
Sector	**2019B**	**2020A**	**2020B**
Coffee	1.98	2.04	2.07
Tea	2.02	2.09	2.09
Total	2.01	2.07	2.08

Although tea is harvested all year round, coffee, as previously mentioned, is seasonal with the second season (season B) being the main one. Coffee-growing households have experienced increments in harvests from 372 kg in 2019B to 442 kg in 2020B, while tea-growing households consistently harvest an average of 4,000 kg per season (table 3.28).

▶ **Table 3.28. Household coffee and tea harvests, 2019–20**

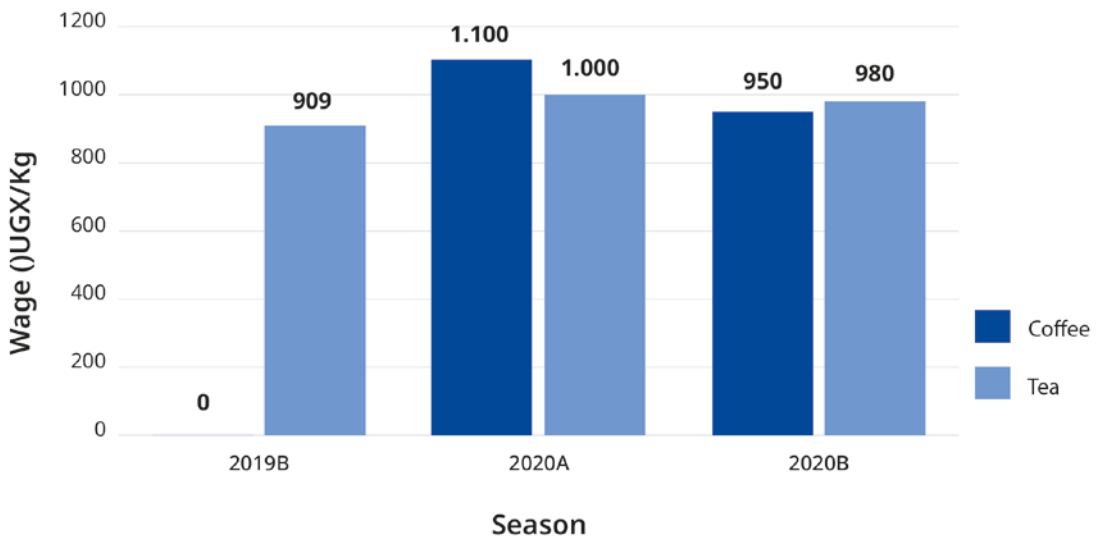
	Mean harvest (kg)					
	2019B		**2020A**		**2020B**	
Sector	**Mean**	**Standard deviation (SD)**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation (SD)**	**Mean**	**Standard deviation (SD)**
Coffee	372.53	216.66	186.23	147.56	442.08	403.26
Tea	4 016.14	3 504.28	3 254.72	2 850.00	4 003.48	3 604.74

The results indicate that children working on farms for pay by harvesting coffee and tea have differing workloads. Children in the tea sector harvested between 2 and 2.5 MT each per season. In contrast, children in the coffee sector harvested between 0.1 and 0.4 MT per season (table 3.29). In terms of wages, there seems to be small differences between tea and coffee, since children are paid about UGX 1,000 per kilogram harvested in the two sectors (figure 3.21).

▶ **Table 3.29. Quantity of coffee and tea harvested by children for pay on farms/estates, 2019–20**

	Mean seasonal harvest (kg)		
Sector	**2019B**	**2020A**	**2020B**
Coffee	123.75	405.83	349.44
Tea	2 673.04	1 843.46	2 448.42

▶ **Figure 3.21. Wages earned by children while harvesting tea and coffee on farms/estates**



3.4.3 Types of produce sold on farms, and incomes

Tea growers sell only green leaf tea from their farms. Coffee-growing households, on the other hand, sell a variety of coffee forms ranging from flowers, red cherries, parchment (mainly Arabica coffee) and Kiboko[18] (mainly Robusta coffee). The majority of coffee growers indicated that they sold red cherries and parchment across the seasons. For instance, 38 per cent sold red cherries while 31 per cent sold parchment coffee and 27 per cent sold Kiboko (table 3.30). The form of produce sold has a bearing on its value and final income earned, so that in the tea sector where 100 per cent of farmers sell green leaf, the leverage to increase incomes comes only from selling more, while in coffee, households could earn more through value addition, for instance by converting the red cherries to parchment, or Kiboko to clean coffee (FAQ).[19]

▶ **Table 3.30. Forms of coffee and tea products sold by households, by season, 2019–20**

	Percentage of households								
	2019B			2020A			2020B		
Form of coffee sold	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Green leaf tea/flower	2.00	100.00	59.84	4.00	100.00	59.92	2.00	100.00	61.19
Red cherries coffee	36.67	0.00	15.09	38.00	0.00	15.63	38.00	0.00	15.36
Parchment coffee	34.00	0.00	14.02	31.33	0.00	12.67	31.33	0.00	12.67
Kiboko	27.33	0.00	11.05	26.67	0.00	10.78	26.67	0.00	10.78

Seasonal incomes for coffee-growing households are highest in the second season of the year (such as 2019B and 2020B) which runs from June to December. In the last two seasons Arabica coffee-growing households have earned higher average incomes than Robusta coffee growers (table 3.31). A closer look at the two sectors indicates that tea-growing households earn higher and more uniform seasonal incomes than coffee growers, hence tea growers have less volatile incomes than coffee growers.

18 The Robusta Coffee Handbook defines Kiboko thus:"Dry processing involves direct drying, after picking the coffee cherry. Dry processing is a natural process and is simple. The cherries are dried with the seeds still in the fruit or in their entirety and mostly using the sun to produce dried coffee locally known as Kiboko" (UCDA 2019, 91).

19 The ripe coffee fruits (cherries) go through a number of operations aimed at extracting the beans from their covering of pulp, mucilage, parchment and film to improve their appearance. The resulting clean coffee (FAQ) can then be roasted and ground to obtain the coffee powder which is fit for human consumption.

Table 3.31. Household incomes from coffee and tea harvests, by season, 2019–20

			Seasonal household coffee and tea income (UGX)			
	2019B		2020A		2020B	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Arabica coffee	1 273 481	1 545 161	489 150	766 535.20	1 524 069	2 341 857
Robusta coffee	1 708 432	2 935 465	426 505.40	579 598.10	1 329 480	2 035 309
Tea	2 181 280	2 820 382	1 602 827	2 249 646.00	1 843 700	2 081 898
Overall	1 904 993	2 661 672	1 203 187.	1 935 530.00	1 677 166	2 122 632

3.4.4 Marketing channels for households' tea and coffee

Coffee-growing households use a diversity of marketing channels that range from factories, traders, collection centres and cooperatives/farmer associations. Tea growers on the other hand use mainly two channels: factories/estates and traders/agents (table 3.32). In many cases diversity in marketing outlets creates competition that results in higher prices and higher household incomes, while few channels lead to a monopoly by the few buyers which may result in low prices and an unpleasant transactional atmosphere with a low bargaining power for the sellers (farmers).

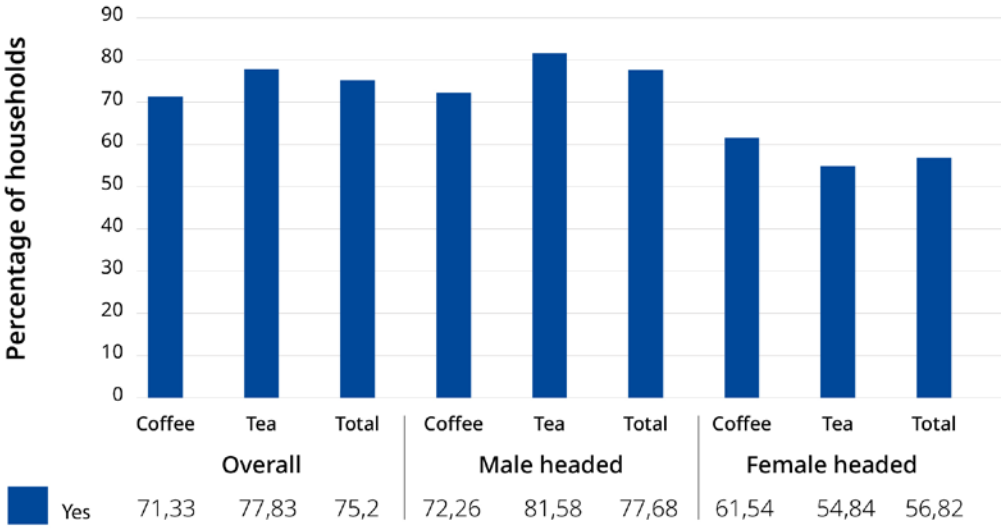
Table 3.32. Households by marketing channel and sector

	Percentage of households		
Marketing channel	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Factory/Estate	22	57	47
Traders & through agents	51	39	42
Collection centre	11	4	6
Cooperative/Association	16	0	5

3.5 Household food security

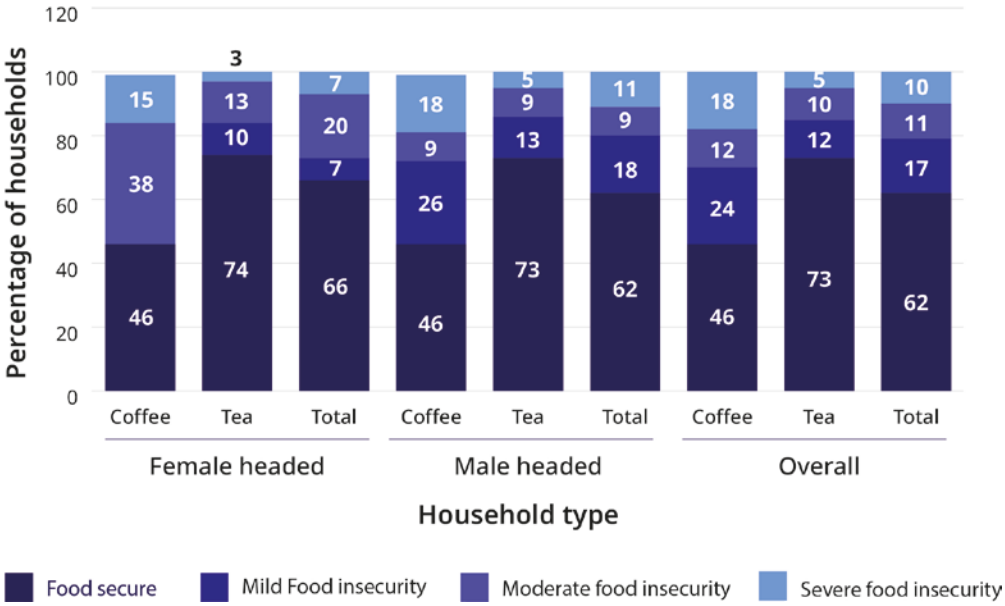
Of all the sampled households, 75 per cent felt they were food secure; 78 per cent of these were tea growers and 71 per cent coffee growers. However, a higher proportion of male-headed than female-headed households felt they were food secure across the tea and coffee sectors. The results indicated that although 82 per cent of male-headed tea growers had a perception of being food secure, only 55 per cent of the female-headed tea-growing households felt the same, with a similar trend observed in the coffee sector (figure 3.22).

▶ **Figure 3.22. Households that feel they are food secure, by sector**



Based on the Food Insecurity Experience Scale of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO 2020) which measures food insecurity through experiences of households of moments of food insecurity and hunger, the HFIES scale was calculated and compared across the tea and coffee sectors and between male- and female-headed households. The findings show that 62 per cent of the households were food secure, with more tea-growing households (73 per cent) than coffee-growing households (46 per cent). More male-headed households (11 per cent) experienced severe food insecurity compared to 7 per cent of the female-headed households with more of these among coffee-growing than tea-growing households (figure 3.23).

▶ **Figure 3.23. The food insecurity experience scale, by sector and household**



3.6 Effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on coffee- and tea-growing households

Since the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic, households have been going through a number of distresses that have affected production, marketing and consumption. Among the coffee- and tea-producing households, 92 per cent indicated that they suffered loss of income, 43 per cent suffered post-harvest losses due to failure to access the market, and 41 per cent indicated that they had to use fewer inputs due to lack of money to buy them (table 3.33). The results however show that a higher percentage of coffee-growing households than tea-growing households experienced such effects. For instance, while 54 per cent of coffee growers used fewer inputs because they did not have enough money, only 27 per cent of tea growers reported this. In addition, 23 per cent of the coffee growers failed to produce other crops, due to fear that the markets would remain closed, in contrast to only 3 per cent of the tea growers.

▶ **Table 3.33. Effects of COVID-19 on households, by sector**

	Percentage of households		
COVID-19 effect	**Coffee**	**Tea**	**Total**
Loss of income/salary	91.67	92.00	91.82
Produce was spoilt due to inability to access the markets	47.62	38.67	43.40
Used fewer inputs because they did not have enough money	53.57	26.67	40.88
Produced less because they did not get the needed inputs	47.62	30.67	39.62
Inability to purchase inputs due to restricted movements	42.86	32.00	37.74
Inability to purchase inputs because the shops are closed/cannot move	41.67	24.00	33.33
Closed small business due to COVID-19	48.81	12.00	31.45
Produced less because they feared they could not sell all the produce	26.19	12.00	19.50
Did not produce other crops at all because they feared the markets would remain closed	22.62	2.67	13.21
Household member infected by COVID	3.57	1.33	2.52
Household member died due to COVID	0.00	0.00	0.00

3.7 Trader, processor and exporter survey results

3.7.1 Characteristics of coffee and tea businesses

The coffee and tea supply chain actors sampled were composed mainly of small-scale traders who act as village collectors of green leaf tea and coffee (81 per cent of actors in coffee and 66 per cent of the tea businesses). Aggregators made up 4 and 16 per cent respectively of the actors in coffee and tea (table 3.34). Although processors made up 3 per cent of the actors and exporters 16 per cent in the tea sector, it should be noted that the two are almost the same since the processing companies also do the exporting of tea.

▶ Table 3.34. Supply chain actors, by type of business and sector

	Percentage of actors		
Actor category	**Coffee (n=26)**	**Tea (n=32)**	**Total (n=58)**
Small-medium scale trader	80.77	65.63	72.41
Aggregator/cooperative	3.85	15.63	10.34
Processor	15.38	3.13	8.62
Exporter	0.00	15.63	8.62
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

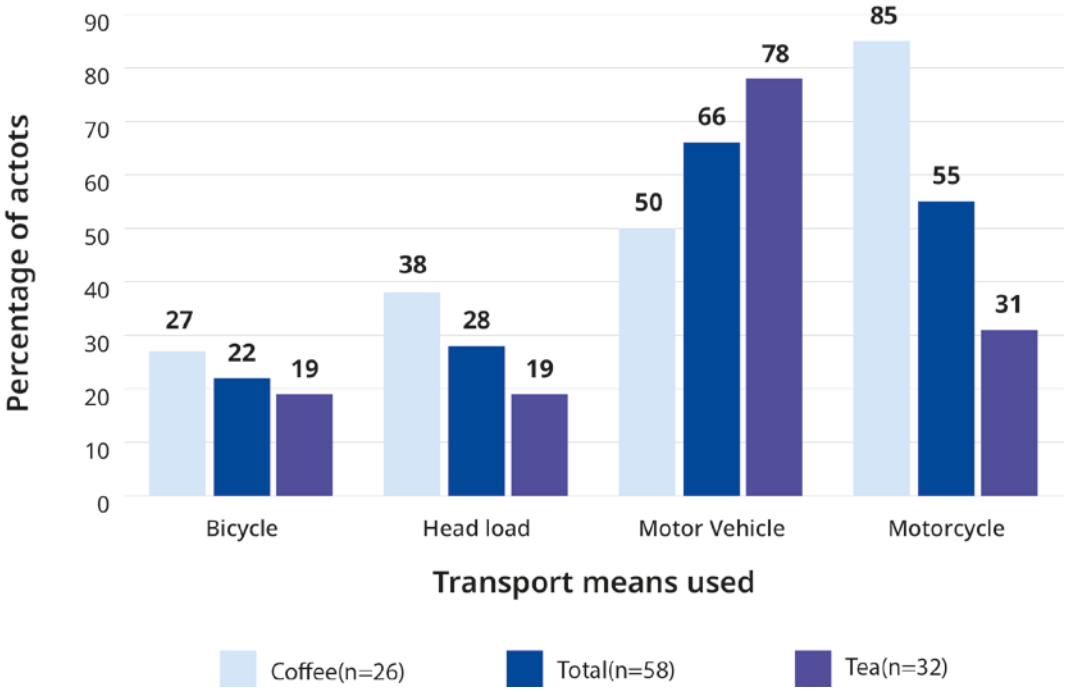
The majority of the businesses were sole proprietorships operated by their owners, assisted by their employees (over 90 per cent of the actors in coffee with 86 per cent in tea). There were more formal companies in tea (19 per cent) than in coffee (8 per cent) (table 3.35). The implication of these results is that the actors operating informal businesses are in many cases not bound by legal frameworks on worker contracting, remuneration and social security.

▶ Table 3.35. Supply chain actors, by business ownership and sector

	Percentage of actors		
Business ownership	**Coffee (n=26)**	**Tea (n=32)**	**Total (n=58)**
Sole proprietor	92.31	81.25	86.21
Limited company	7.69	18.75	13.79
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**

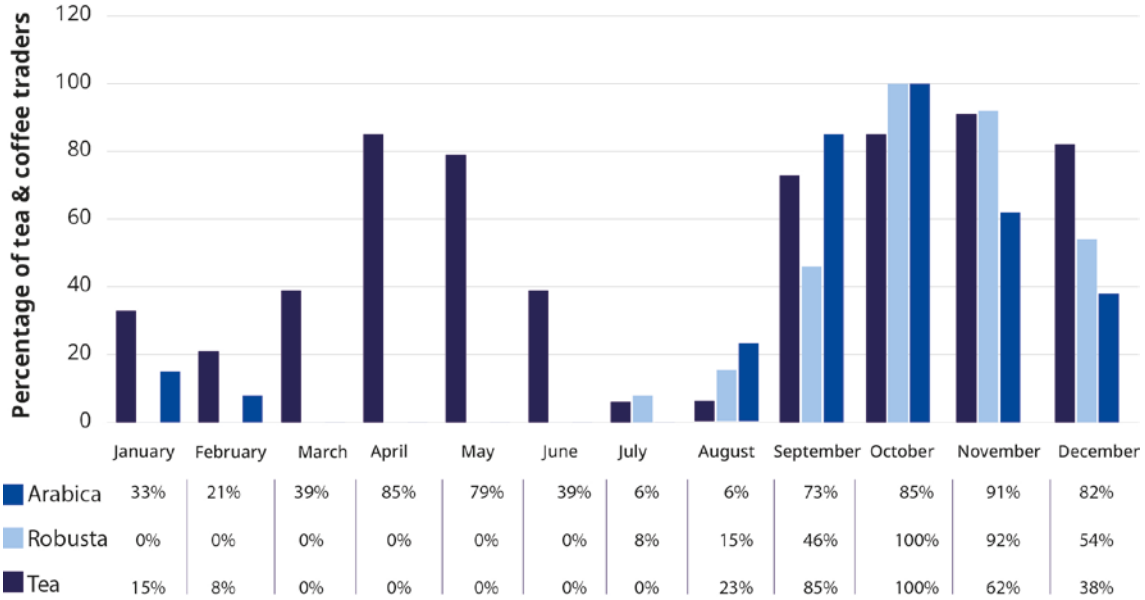
Traders, processors and aggregators of coffee and tea mainly use motorcycles and other motor vehicles to transport the produce from rural areas to the processing and aggregation stores. Coffee traders and the other actors in coffee mainly use motorcycles (85 per cent), motor vehicles (50 per cent) and headloads (38 per cent). Tea actors on the other hand mainly use more motor vehicles (78 per cent) as well as motorcycles (31 per cent), with about 20 per cent using bicycles and headloads (figure 3.24). The implication of these findings for child labour is that where means of transport other than headloads are available and used by actors, children are less involved in transportation of coffee or tea produce. However, children are involved in loading and offloading, as well as driving and riding the vehicles and motorcycles, as many of them indicated during the FGDs. A high proportion of those actors using headloads are in the coffee sector, especially in the mountain areas of Mt. Elgon where the roads are less motorable. During the KIIs, the production officer for Kabarole District was quoted as saying: “About 70 per cent of children from 10 to 17 years are seen to be involved in child labour in the form of the boda-boda (commercial motorcycle transporters) business, carrying of firewood and planting of food crops on farms.”

Figure 3.24. Means of transport used, by sector



Actors in the tea sector indicated that they operated almost throughout the year except in July and August where there is little tea leaf from farms and estates. This means that workers and labour are demanded all year round. Coffee on the other hand is seasonal, with the main seasons running from August to December, although Arabica coffee in the Mt. Elgon area has a second shorter season between January and February (figure 3.25).

Figure 3.25. Coffee and tea trading seasons



3.7.2 Value creation at trader and processor level

Within the tea supply chain, the processors (who in many cases are also the exporters) aggregate the largest volumes of green leaf tea. The results indicated that processors aggregated about 3,600 MT in a season. The cooperatives and large-scale aggregators indicated that they aggregated an average of 198 MT per season, while small- and medium-scale traders aggregated about 110 MT. It should be noted that the tea processors/exporters have tea estates as well as out-grower schemes which supply them with tea. In the coffee supply chain, the aggregators/cooperatives (mainly for Arabica coffee) and small- to medium-scale traders aggregated the largest volumes – up to 294 MT and 28 MT per season each (table 3.36).

▶ **Table 3.36. Average quantities aggregated per season, by actor category and sector**

	Mean quantity aggregated per season (MT)		
Actor category	**Tea**	**Robusta**	**Arabica**
Small-to-medium scale trader	106.90	22.71	28.41
Aggregator/cooperative	198.40	-	294.00
Processor	3 600.00	14.30	-
Exporter	8 896.00	-	-
Overall	1 603.66	20.12	48.84

Value in terms of income earned is seen to increase downstream in the tea and coffee supply chains. The level of investment notwithstanding, processors and exporters earn substantially higher incomes than the other supply chain actors including farmers. For instance, table 3.37 shows that tea processors earn an average gross income of about UGX 1.6 billion per season; and when they export, the incomes jump to UGX 2.2 billion. Compared to a tea processor, a coffee processor earns a seasonal gross income of UGX 83 million and an aggregator or cooperative earns about UGX 2.5 billion. A Robusta coffee small or medium trader earns gross incomes that are only 21 per cent of what the processor gets, while in Arabica coffee, a small or medium trader earns about 14 per cent of what a cooperative or wholesale aggregator earns in a season.

▶ **Table 3.37. Average incomes earned per season, by actor category and sector**

	Mean gross income per season (UGX millions)		
Actor category	**Tea**	**Robusta**	**Arabica**
Small-to-medium scale trader	18.60	17.10	359.00
Aggregator/cooperative	43.80	-	2 500.00
Processor	1 600.00	83.00	-
Exporter	2 210.00	-	-
Overall	414.00	37.40	524.00

3.7.3 Child labour in the coffee and tea supply chains

The results from the household survey indicated that majority of the children are involved in work on the farm, carrying out activities such as planting, weeding and plucking tea or harvesting coffee. This was the case in about 68 per cent of the households. However, coffee and tea picking, the most common activity where children are employed, involved 72 and 29 per cent of children working on their home coffee and tea farms respectively (tables 3.38 and 3.39). Working by picking and harvesting produce on other farms apart from the home farm involved 3 per cent of children in coffee and 31 per cent in tea sectors, with only 1 per cent involved in work at the aggregation or marketing level. These findings were corroborated by the other actors such as small- and medium-scale traders, aggregators and processors, where 29 per cent of the small- and medium-scale traders had hired children in coffee (table 3.40) and 20 per cent of the aggregators had hired children in tea (table 3.41).

Among the key informants there were mixed views and perspectives on child labour. Although the majority agreed that child labour exists, especially at the production stages, many traders, aggregators, processors and exporters denied employing children. The coffee supply chain has a wide range of activities where child labour is involved, unlike the tea supply chain where weeding, tea plucking and spraying of fields are the key activities. Some of the most visible and commonest activities where child labour is involved are shown in box 3.2.

▶ **Table 3.38. Children's involvement along the coffee supply chain**

Supply chain	Percentage of children
Farming	77
Coffee picking on own farm	72
Other (livestock rearing, other crops, selling milk, etc.)	13
Tending own garden	6
Farm casual work	6
Coffee picking on other farm	3
Other person's trading/aggregation business	3
Processing	2
Own trading business	2
Aggregation/Marketing	0

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021a.

▶ **Table 3.39. Children's involvement along the tea supply chain**

Supply chain level	Percentage of children
Farming	68
Tea picking on another farm	31
Tea picking on own farm	29
Other	19
Farm casual work	13
Tending own garden	8
Aggregation/Marketing	1
Own trading business	1
Processing	0
Other person's trading/aggregation business	0

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021a.

▶ Table 3.40. Hirers of children in the coffee supply chain

	Percentage that hired children (5-17 years)
Small-medium scale trader	28.57
Aggregator/cooperative	0.00
Processor/exporter	0.00
Total	**23.08**

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021b.

▶ Table 3.41. Hirers of children in the tea supply chain

	Percentage that hired children (5-17 years)
Small-medium scale trader	0.00
Aggregator/cooperative	20.00
Processor/exporter	0.00
Total	**3.13**

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021b.

Box 3.2. Activities where child labour is involved in the coffee and tea sectors

Coffee

- Planting: Planting of the coffee seedlings is done hand in hand with the parents, in the context of training children to be hardworking.
- Weeding: This is the major activity where both female and male children are involved. “Although we have begun to see children getting involved in this stage of the coffee supply chain, the parents look at it differently, they think it is not child labour but just help in the coffee plantations. The question of how many hours a child weeds in coffee is the major concern; drawing the line between light work and child labour is the key question to be monitored” (Mr. John Nuwagaba, General manager, Ankole Coffee Production Cooperative Union).
- Fertilizer application: Few children are involved in this activity; those that are they do it with the help of their parents.
- Digging of trenches: This involves the largest number of youth.
- Picking: This is done during weekends to earn school fees. It also involves many children picking coffee with their parents
- Sun drying: Sun drying of coffee at home; the majority of youth are involved in this activity.
- Post-harvest handling: Many youth and children are involved in pulping. Few children are involved in processing by washing the pulped coffee in the factory, but after washing, children are beginning to be used in grading of the coffee in preparation for the final consumer.
- Nursery beds: This activity is done by children with their parents
- Spraying: The spraying of coffee against pests and diseases is done by a few children
- Transportation: This is done from the garden to the collection centres; at this stage many children are involved. When coffee is sold to the buyers of the cooperative society, children are also involved in the transport.

Tea

- Weeding: This is the second major activity involving children.
- Plucking: A majority of children are involved in plucking the green leaves.
- Spraying in fields: Few children are involved in this activity.

A number of actors – especially cooperatives, processors and exporters – denied employing children, indicating that that they discouraged it on their estates and in the out-grower schemes. Some were quoted as saying:

"At no stage do we employ children, we don't employ people under 18 years, we do the nurseries and planting, harvesting, husbandry activities, processing is done by us and no children in place. Even in the out-grower the scheme, we normally inspect in the fields to make sure there are no child labourers" (Mr. Deo Agaba, Assistant Field Manager, Mcleod Russel Uganda Limited Tea Factory, Kikuube District).

"In the factory it is not allowed at all to employ children. However, with the out-growers, it can be in the production stage, that is: weeding in tea fields and plucking of tea leaves" (Mr. Alex Kaahwa, Field Manager, Estate Mpanga Growers Tea Factory. Kabarole District).

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021c.

3.7.4 Screening for forced labour in the coffee and tea supply chains

Forced labour refers to situations in which persons are coerced to work through the use of violence or intimidation, or by more subtle means such as accumulated debt, retention of identity papers or threats of denunciation to immigration authorities (ILO 2014). In the same regard, in Uganda Article 25 of the Constitution of Uganda prohibits forced labour. The Employment Act 2006 also prohibits all forms of forced or bonded labour. In accordance with the Penal Code, any person who unlawfully compels any person to labour against the will of that person commits a misdemeanour.

From this background, this study delved into understanding the existence and level of forced labour in the tea and coffee sectors through oral interviews with factory workers in secrecy. The findings showed that generally workers had longer working hours in coffee (7.5–15 hours) than in tea factories (8–12 hours), although these were agreed upon between the workers and their employers. All the employees in both sectors indicated that they kept their identification documents and that they had freedom to leave their jobs if they wanted, hence there is no bondage (box 3.3). All the workers interviewed indicated that they had not suffered of witnessed fellow workers being physically or sexually abused at work by an employer.

Box 3.3. Screening for forced labour: Structured interviews with workers, by sector

Coffee (n=8)	Tea (n=12)
How workers were recruited in their current jobs	
Almost 100 per cent of the workers were recruited directly by the employer. The majority used an LC1 letter and national identity cards. A few came to work because they were related to the owner of the factory. All the workers said they freely chose to take up their jobs.	Around 90 per cent of the workers were recruited directly by the employer, while 10 per cent obtained their recruitment through agents. The majority of casual workers just brought the LC1 letter with national identity cards. A few people applied and were shortlisted for interviews and given appointment letters. Others (about 1 per cent) were brought on board through the influence of the general manager. All the workers said they freely chose to take up their jobs.
Workplace convenience, safety and benefits	
Many workers reside outside the factories and rent their own houses (see below). A few of the workers use boda-bodas and the majority reach the factories on foot. All the respondents acknowledged that their employers have never made any promise or payment that has not been honoured. None of the respondents paid any fees	The majority of the workers (60 per cent) reside outside the factory, with about 40 per cent residing in factory houses (see below). Large proportions of the workers go to their place of residence on foot (60 per cent), while others use boda-boda transport (40 per cent). All the respondents said that the employer did not make any promises about the job.

before getting and starting working in the current job. They also had regular working hours.	None of the respondents paid any fees before working in the current job. They also had regular working hours.
Length of a working normal day[1]	
A majority of the workers said they started work at 8 a.m and ended at 5.30 p.m (7.5 hours). A few workers in a factory indicated that they started the working day at 7 a.m. and ended at 10 p.m. (15 hours).	A majority of the workers started working from 7:00 a.m. and ended at 7 p.m. (12 hours), though in other companies working hours were 6 a.m. to 6 p.m. (12 hours), 7 a.m. to 3 p.m. (8 hours), or 8 a.m. to 5 p.m. (9 hours).
Provision of housing and decent residential environment by the employer	
About 30 per cent of the workers said that their employers provided housing, while 70 per cent rented their own houses. All workers in employer-provided housing indicated that the facilities were decent.	About 60 per cent of the workers said that their employers provide housing, while the others rented their own houses. About 70 per cent of the workers in employer-provided housing indicated that the facilities were decent, while 30 per cent were not contented because the houses have no electricity.
Employee treatment and freedoms[2, 3]	
The responses from the employees showed that the employers behave well towards workers. All of the workers indicated that there is freedom to resign in case they wished to leave the job; this was acknowledged by all the respondents.	All workers said that the employers behaved well towards them, and that they had freedom to resign from their work if they wanted to do so.

Notes: [1]Many workers indicated that they would be willing to work overtime if compensated; 70 per cent could choose not to work overtime if they did not want to, while about 30 per cent did not have this option. However, all the workers said they had the freedom to leave the workplace outside working hours. In addition, a majority of the workers interviewed indicated that their employers gave them freedom to talk to other workers or outsiders outside of work-related needs or working hours. [2] None of the employees interviewed indicated that their employer ever insisted that they do things that made them feel uncomfortable or anything they were not sure was legal. All (100 per cent) reported no cases of physical or sexual violence against workers by employers. [3]All the workers indicated that they were paid promptly at their workplace and that their identity cards or passports were not kept of confiscated by their employers to deny them travelling as they wish.

Source: ILO (ACCEL) 2021c.

4. Conclusions and recommendations



4.1 Conclusions

The conclusions and recommendations of this study are listed below; they are based on the analysis of the data collected, literature reviewed and the field experiences

4.1.1 Actors along the coffee and tea supply chains

The coffee supply chain is generally a long chain with a number of actors at various stages. At production, farmers are the main actors. There is wide variation in the size of farms: many smallholders cultivate coffee on about one or two acres, medium-sized farms have about three to five and larger plantations five to 15 acres. At the second stage are the small-, medium- and large-scale traders (assisted by agents/brokers) as well as institutions such as cooperatives, unions and farmer producer associations. The third tier of the chain is composed of the processors, who are in many cases large companies or cooperative unions and are also exporters. In the last five years, a number of coffee shops have also opened to sell final coffee to consumers domestically.

The tea supply chain is shorter. Production is mainly done by small-, medium- and large-scale farmers either individually or as out-growers and company estates. Many farmers sell to the tea factories as out-growers but some also sell to traders and agents who transport and sell to tea factories. The farmers deliver green tea leaves to the traders or factory trucks at collection centres within their villages. The tea factories – some of which are private companies while others are farmer-owned –process the tea and sell it to distributors nationally or export it to regional markets such as the Mombasa auction and other international markets.

4.1.2 Value distribution among the tiers of production, marketing and processing

Workers along the supply chain share in the value created through wages and salaries earned. Suppliers such as farmers share in the value through the prices paid by the buyers and the final incomes earned. At production level, the study found huge wage gaps in both the coffee and tea supply chains, especially between adults and children. Weekly wages in coffee for children were five times lower than those paid to adults, while in tea the gap was six times.

At farmer level, coffee farmers receive between UGX 1 and 1.5 million per acre, while tea farmers receive between UGX 0.7 and 1 million per acre. Coffee farmers thus receive higher value per unit area than tea farmers. In comparison, a small to medium coffee trader makes about UGX 19 million per season and a processor makes about UGX 1.6 billion. A tea trader makes about UGX 400 million and a sizeable processor makes about UGX 2.5 billion a season. There is therefore much inequality in the distribution of value along the two supply chains, with farmers getting a particularly raw deal.

4.1.3 Bottlenecks and hindrances

Maximum productive and socio-economic potential along the supply chains is hindered by a number of factors. The main bottlenecks, and their underlying causes, include:

- Low productivity at the farm
- Inefficiently functioning commodity markets
- Seasonality, especially of coffee
- Low wages and benefits (only 30–40 per cent of workers at estates and factories are given housing)
- Lack of access to quality inputs
- Low bargaining power
- Low-skilled labour

4.1.4 Where child labour takes place in the coffee and tea supply chains

In tea, child labour is found at the production stage among the out-growers. The major driver here is poverty, which is reflected in low standards of living. The other driver is the large number of school dropouts who are attracted to work on the tea farms because for tea plucking they are given almost the same wage as adults; this leads to parents forcing their children to work in order to make ends meet. Child labour is highest in tea plucking, and of course, the more days children work the more money they can earn. Other “hidden” forms of child labour include fetching water using jerrycans for pesticide application in tea fields, where the water sources are far away from the plantations, and working in tea nurseries and in fertilizer application. In most cases, there is also child labour within the household, as well as casual labour on farms which is offered to other out-growers with large plantations who need cheap labour.

In Mbale, where Arabica coffee is mainly grown, child labour is more rampant in production on the coffee farms, at aggregation stores and to some extent at the processing stages. Therefore, child labour in the Eastern region is mostly in

weeding, harvesting, pulping, sorting and drying of coffee. Few store owners or farmers (especially the medium-scale and factory owners) admitted that children are actually employed in their business; rather, they indicated that the children come with their parents who ask for jobs in coffee gardens to weed and or pick coffee or to sort and dry the coffee at the stores. Parents and guardians, too, claimed that it was not their intention to engage their children in child labour, but that poverty in the countryside has always pushed children into working. Most of the officials interviewed said that child labour was rampant due to the COVID-19 outbreak that forced schools to close, so that children were at home for almost a year.

In the Central region (Buikwe District) child labour is seen mostly at household level in the coffee production stages of weeding, planting, pruning, harvesting and the post-harvest activities of drying.

4.1.5 Socio-economic profile of families with incidence of child labour, forced labour and other FPRW issues

The profiling of a number of families in the coffee and tea supply chains revealed a number of similarities that lead to the following conclusions:

- The families of child labourers tend to be large with many children; the burden overwhelms the parents and guardians, forcing many children out of school and starting work at early ages.
- Child labourers' households are resource-poor with little and unproductive land and low productivity of both coffee and tea as the main income earners as well as other crops. This forces the parents to work with their children outside their own farms to weed, apply fertilizer, pick coffee, pluck tea on other farms, or to work at aggregation stores or collection centres to sort, bag, load and offload coffee or tea.
- Children in such families suffer from other forms of abuse, resulting in child marriages or child mothers, which increases the economic and social burden on them and their caregivers.
- All the profiled child labourers indicated that they are willing to learn skills, especially vocational skills, while some indicated that they are willing to go back to school if the challenges that forced them to drop out are conclusively solved.

4.1.6 Working conditions, and the Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining

There have been a number of policy proposals and regulations adopted to improve general working conditions. Some of these are: the Minimum Wage Bill (2015), the Draft Uganda Forestry Association Bill (2010), the Fish (Amendment) Bill (2010), the Draft Forestry and Tree Planting Regulations (2016), the Draft National Migration Policy, and the Draft Diaspora Policy. What remains unclear is whether the characteristics of agricultural labour are clearly reflected and whether their implementation will improve worker rights, conditions and welfare, especially in the coffee and tea sectors where child labour is rampant.

An example of a successful initiative with regard to tea production is the interaction of the workers' union with tea managers across the country to come up with a fair increase in workers' salaries. This was a negotiation between the tea managers and the union together with the Government to come to a figure which was fair to both parties depending on the business performance. Rates were increased in January 2021 from UGX 5,300 to 5,750 per day.[20]

In another example, the Kisuri Tea Factory has set up a platform for joint collaborative meetings with the union at a particular period of the year. In these meetings the workers share their views on various work-related aspects where they wish the company to make improvements to solve workers' grievances. Suggestion boxes have been introduced for the workers; supervisors report on day-to-day operations and a committee well versed with the law to handle sexual harassment grievances has been established.[21] One result of all these negotiations has been a general increase in wages for all workers, from UGX 6,200 to 6,795 per day, 67 to 71 for shear harvesters, and 23 to 25 for machine operators. In addition, food and medical care for the worker is guaranteed. Secondly, increased worker motivation has led to increased productivity, safety of the product, and workers "owning" the projects.

4.1.7 Enforcement of existing policies, due diligence and remediation

Although the tea factories, estates and out-grower schemes have a policy of "No child employment", in some cases children are employed secretly at the production stage on the farms for weeding in tea fields and plucking of tea leaves, even when the laws concerning child labour in tea-growing areas are known by the majority of farmers. The coffee sector, too, seems to have weaknesses in enforcing the policies despite sensitization programmes on the part of workers' unions, child rights

20 This information was provided by Mr Daniel Odeke, Administrative Officer, Busekere Growers Tea Factory (Kabarole).

21 This information was provided by Mr Bameliki (Division Manager), Kisuri Tea Factory, Kikube District (Hoima).

activists and the Government (through the police and DLGs). The enforcement of the laws within the community is the biggest challenge. The only due diligence mechanism found during this study was in the tea supply chain, where the tea factories with out-grower schemes carry out routine inspections of the farms, during which issues of child labour are also checked.

Many child labour and other child abuse cases are resolved within the local council or at village level. There no referrals of such cases to the higher authorities. The police and local councils are often corrupt, and many such cases of child labour are resolved by the police without going to courts of law. In addition, there are no referrals of such cases from the police to the labour office; this was frequently mentioned by the key informants in Bushenyi and Mbale.

4.1.8 Means to increase leverage to identify, prevent, mitigate and remediate child labour for different tiers along the chain

Knowledge, awareness, labour inspection and enforcement of the child labour laws have mainly been strengthened and implemented at the processing and export levels; little has been done to tackle child labour and its root causes at lower administrative levels such as the parish or village. This has created a gap in knowledge and exacerbated the effects and existence of child labour at the production and aggregation levels of the coffee and tea supply chains. This leads to the following conclusions:

- Identification and prevention of child labour, and particularly its hidden forms, will need sensitization and awareness creation at lower levels on the effects of child labour on the children, families and communities.
- There is less attention to the reduction of child labour at the production and aggregation tiers of the coffee and tea supply chains.
- Identification and prevention of child labour also needs to be done clandestinely. Business as usual, where people are expected to report child labour and abuse, can no longer work in an environment where the forms of child labour are not only evolving but also becoming increasingly hidden from the public eye. A system of observation and confidential reporting such cases without the whistleblower's identity becoming known will be effective.

4.1.9 Opportunities to create new jobs and improve working conditions in existing jobs, thereby removing child labour from the supply chain

- In coffee and tea production, one of the opportunities for improvement in existing jobs is through agricultural and income diversification. Households need to have multiple streams of income to reduce dependency on one seasonal crop such as coffee. Crop/livestock mixes that improve productivity through manure generation and also reduce vulnerability to shocks need to be adopted. Short-term crops can be blended into the production systems to generate short-term incomes for households; this will drastically reduce child labour.
- Mechanization of coffee and tea farm activities is another opportunity that would reduce drudgery and the need for human labour. This may require investment into the relevant technologies and innovation to make them affordable to the farmers and estates.
- Value addition to coffee, mainly at the lower levels such as farming and aggregation, can increase value and incomes and also create jobs for parents and guardians and free children from labour.
- Improved wages and working conditions for factory, store and farm workers can also lead to a more motivated workforce with higher productivity. Increased productivity per worker leads to increased efficiency of production and more output, which would have positive effects on child labour.

4.1.10 Existing opportunities for the development of specific interventions

There exist a number of opportunities for developing specific interventions that respond to the economic and social needs of families, workers, enterprises and organizations – the actors along the supply chains:

- Government and many NGOs have programmes in place to distribute inputs (Operation Wealth Creation/NAADS), give credit (Such as Emyooga) and extension services (such as the single spine extension system and the extension fund under MAAIF). Families in the coffee and tea supply chains can take advantage of these and others to diversify their production, adopt new technologies and increase productivity to increase incomes.
- Workers on plantations and factories already have organizations such as the National Union of Plantation Workers (NUPW) working at every stage in different sectors, where workers' representatives present and advocate for solutions to the challenges faced by workers at every sector.
- Workers' welfare and wages are negotiated and bargained between the private sector businesses and organizations such as NUPAW or NOTU. For instance, tea workers' wages have been reviewed for daily tasks due to bargaining by NUPAW and considering the price on the world market.
- Other coffee and tea supply chain actors who are part of the private sector businesses such as the aggregators, cooperative unions and tea companies have built capacity to work with the Government, the ILO and other partners to improve farmers' and workers' welfare. This should have positive business and economic impacts in the medium to long term, since their suppliers and employees will be motivated.
- Interventions/opportunities/contribution from business: Some private sector businesses have interventions to address the economic and social needs of their workers, such as provision of free housing, routine negotiations with worker unions to improve wages, and "opening up to community members to supply coffee or tea leaves as traders". Some companies are already implementing interventions that lead to improved worker welfare and maternal health, such as limiting working time to 48 hours a week and one day off maternity leave for workers..[22] In other cases, women workers are given time to go and breastfeed their babies.[23] What is lacking, however, are concrete social and economic interventions that empower the workers to build long-term sustainable livelihoods such as social security (only a few workers in the tea and coffee supply chains have social security coverage) and strong social protection in case of shocks and catastrophes.
- Based on the analysis of technical and financial capacities (the will-skill matrix described in section 3.2.3.1 and figure 3.7 above), this study shows that within the "delegate" quadrant there are a number of actors with will and skill in both the coffee and tea supply chains. These include district local governments, the Uganda Police Force, processors and exporters (private sector), workers' unions, the MGLSD and the judiciary. These are actors who are already implementing interventions to combat child labour in coffee- and tea-growing communities, such as law enforcement, litigation and labour regulation. This is the group that the ILO can work with and leverage strengths and skills to sustain the fight against child labour. The interventions/incentives recommended for this group are listed in section 4.2. The category with high will but less skill to combat child labour includes farmers, child labourers, small-scale traders, cooperatives, VHTs and volunteers, and the category with the skills but low will includes lawyers, and cultural and religious leaders. These two groups need interventions that create awareness and mass community mobilization on child labour.

22 The Kyamuhunga Tea Company Ltd in Bushenyi indicated that they implement this to avoid abusive working and living conditions for their workers.

23 The Mcleod Russel Tea Factory Uganda Ltd implements this intervention for breastfeeding female workers.

4.2 Recommendations

From the results of this study and the conclusions thereof, the following recommendations are made:

1. More sensitization and awareness programmes on child labour should be carried out at village and parish levels, as it seems that awareness, and strictness in enforcement and inspection, exist only at the processing and exportation levels. Yet, as stated by the ILO: "... the purposes of labour inspection are made up of three main tasks: the enforcement of legislation mainly through supervision, the supply of information and advice to employers and workers, and the supply of information to the competent authority" (Von Richthofen 2011). The Government and development partners, including the ILO, need to introduce programmes for educating and sensitizing people about children's rights and child labour issues. The majority of farmers cannot distinguish between light labour, child labour and training a child to be hardworking. These are among the complexities involved in child labour issues.
2. Inspection, monitoring and evaluation of programmes on child labour should be carried out at district, parish and village levels.
3. The wage and price gaps along the coffee and tea supply chains need to be narrowed. Since children below 14 years are allowed by law to start working at light jobs according to Sections 32-34 of the Employment Act 2006, it would be prudent to apply the minimum wage law (2019) to children working at light jobs too.
4. The Government and development partners should increase and strengthen rehabilitation schools for children withdrawn from child labour and other instances of child abuse. These centres should be equipped for formal and informal skilling for child labourers to become successful citizens; many of them show enthusiasm for either going back to school or learning vocational skills to lead better future careers.
5. At a higher level, the Government itself should address the issue of poverty, vulnerability and social protection at household level, because child labour exists as a result of poverty; it exists because the life-supporting systems are weak. The Government needs to create jobs through interventions that lead to a diversification of economic activities in rural areas, starting up alternative livelihood opportunities to increase the income base per household. Household diversification can also target crop/livestock mixes where the livestock projects that have marketability can act as safety nets for households in hard economic times to reduce vulnerability levels.
6. Taking advantage of existing structures with will and skill to engage in the fight against child labour will make the work easier and more sustainable. The District Local Governments (DLGs), Uganda Police Force (UPF) and Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) have an organization structure that is well placed to fight child labour. The interventions/incentives recommended for this group are:
   - *revising existing bylaws or enacting new ones against child labour, particularly on coffee and tea farms where findings indicate that child labour is highly concentrated;*
   - *engaging the downstream supply chain actors including traders, processors and exporters to institute policies that improve worker welfare and reduce child labour; and*
   - *joint funding of interventions against child labour since some of these actors have budget lines.*
7. The high will but low skill of the parents and guardians of working children, small-scale traders, cooperatives, Village Health Team members (VHTs) and community volunteers to fight child labour in their communities should also be exploited. These only need more training, mentoring and tools to improve their skills in order to become empowered for some roles and to enhance their hands-on management. Giving parents and their children alternatives such as labour-saving technologies or the means to have all their children in school can unlock their potential.
8. There is need for a strong law enforcement system, where the Government creates a system where confidential reporters are recruited within the community (as in the case of VHTs) to monitor and report those who are using child labour. These informers can work directly with the labour office; then the labour office should contact the police and bring to justice the culprits.

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Annexes

Annex 1. Profiles of child labourers in the coffee sector

Profile 1. Rehema Kawaga from Bubyangu, Mbale

Name: Kawaga Rehema

District: Mbale

Subcounty: Bubyangu

Parish: Bunawozi

Village: Kiyanza

Age: 14 years

Sex: Female

Marital status: Single



Rehema is a 14-year-old girl in Kiyanza village, Bubyangu Subcounty, Mbale district who lives with her grandmother, her guardian. She was is the second child in a family with two children; her sister, 16 years old, is a single mother with a four-months-old baby also staying with the grandmother. Rehema said she has lived here her entire childhood since she was brought by her mother with the sister when she was still very young. She is in primary five though not sure of completing school because at times she misses classes while working in both family and other gardens for income and food. Her older sister dropped out of school after becoming pregnant but she too would like to go back to school if given a second chance.

Rehema is involved in both casual on-farm and off-farm work, carrying out activities such as coffee weeding and picking; also, later in the evening between 5 and 7 p.m, doing market vending of pancakes at the small business started by her grandmother to earn school fees, as well as selling bananas, onions and tomatoes on behalf of her grandmother. She works for about five hours in the morning, from 7 a.m. to 12 p.m. working in other people's coffee gardens or in the family garden (of about half an acre) on a missed day of school. She saves between UGX 500 and 2,000 every day for school fees. At the coffee farms, she picks between 25 and 40 kg on a working day and is paid between UGX 2,000 and 4,000 per day. At her home they have about half an acre of coffee and harvest about 200 kg per season which they sell as red cherries to traders at UGX 800–1000 per kilogram.

Rehema said they do not have enough food because in most cases they are short of money. She also said she does not like the jobs she does, but would like to be a professional teacher if given an opportunity.

Some of the business challenges she mentioned included not selling all her produce, bad debtors, sexual abuse while working outside her home ("I was once raped by a gang of boys as I was going back home during late hours after work," she said), working for long hours, hard work demanded in other gardens, carrying heavy loads of coffee from gardens to homes, and the smaller payments she receives (UGX 2,000–4,000 per day) compared to UGX 5,000 shillings paid to adults for similar tasks.

Profile 1. Nuru Naumbe from Bubyangu, Mbale District

Name: Naumbe Nuru

District: Mbale

Subcounty: Bubyangu

Parish: Bufumbo

Village: Lusamenta

Age: 17 years

Sex: Female

Marital status: Single (mother)



Naumbe is a 17-year-old girl and a single mother who lives in Lusamenta village, Bufumbo parish, Bubyangu Subcounty, Mbale district. Her child is two years old now. After giving birth at the age of 15, Naumbe decided to go back to school and is now in senior one. She is the eldest child of a family of seven people with four boys and two girls between 11 and 17 years, all staying with their grandmother.

Nuru is a vegetable farmer as well as a market vendor of Sukuma wiki, African eggplants and eggobe, which she sells in the evening hours after school between 4 and 8 p.m. She farms over the weekend between 6 a.m. and 1 p.m and sells in the market from 3 to 8 p.m. She does her farming on a hired 0.25-acre plot of land in the lowlands of Mt. Elgon. From her garden she earns between UGX 4.000 and 5,000 weekly, saving 500 shillings every day. She participates in working in the family garden of coffee of about half an acre where they harvest between 200 and 300 kg of red cherries per season, earning UGX 325,000 per season, and she also works on other people's farms where she receives UGX 6,000 per day worked.

Nuru's grandmother's economic activities include coffee farming and yellow banana market vending. She also does other types of farming, especially beans, for sale. Nuru estimates that her guardian earns about UGX 100,000 per month and she talked of the family not having enough food for home consumption throughout the year.

She faces various challenges on the family farm, including lack of limited land for cultivating household food, the large family which is being taken care of by her and her grandmother since most of her siblings are too young to make a contribution to the home. Outside challenges include bad debtors in her business, and bad weather that at times spoils her crops. She feels overworked at an early age. Her prayer is to complete her O-level education and to learn teaching skills so as to be able to get a decent job.

Profile 2. Fred Magandaazi from Buikwe Municipality, Buikwe district

Name: Magandaazi Fred

District: Buikwe

Subcounty: Buikwe Municipal Council

Parish: Malongwe

Village: Kawuulu

Age: 17 years

Sex: Male

Marital status: single



Fred is a 16-year-old boy in Kawuulu village, Malongwe parish, Buikwe Municipal Council, Buikwe district. He lives with his grandparents and five other young boys. He is a primary seven school dropout. After completion of his primary level, his parents brought him to the grandparents to start working with them in their coffee aggregation business. Failure to continue his education was due to his parents being too poor educate all his siblings. He works as a coffee postharvest handler: drying stored coffee, loading and offloading coffee bags as well as selling coffee husks in another person's business. He works from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. and is paid UGX 50,000 per week.

Fred's grandparents have a very large piece of land of more than 20 acres, almost all planted with coffee. They harvest over a tonne of dried coffee weekly in a good season. Fred also operates a coffee husking machine, does livestock farming and selling of animal feeds. His grandmother earns a side income through selling second-hand clothes. Fred said he works for extremely long hours and that his job is so tiring through carrying heavy loads that at times he feels a lot of chest and back pains, but there is nothing he can do about it.

Annex 2. Profiles of child labourers in the tea sector

Profile 1. Ian Ayizuka from Kyamuhunga, Bushenyi district

Name: Ayizuka Ian

District: Bushenyi

Subcounty: Kyamuhunga

Age: 16 years

Sex: Male



Ian is a 16-year-old boy in Kyamuhunga Subcounty, Bushenyi district, who lives with his two biological parents in a family of nine members, with two girls and five boys; he is the third born. He dropped out of school in primary three (P.3) in 2017 as a result of lack of school fees. He picks tea from both the family and other farms in his village. His older brother and sister also dropped out of school for the same reason but he is willing to go back to school if given an opportunity.

Ian works six hours per day on several tea farms; on a typical working day he works there in the morning from 6 a.m. to 12 p.m. and then goes to graze the family goats from 3 p.m. until late. At the tea farms he is paid either UGX 60,000 per month, or UGX 5,000 if paid daily.

He picks 30 kg of tea leaves per day and participates in carrying the tea to the collection centre, carrying about 30 kg per trip. At home, they have a one-acre tea plantation where they harvest about 720 kg of green tea per month. The family earns about UGX 288,000 from selling their tea to traders who then sell it on to a tea factory about 10 kilometres away.

Ian says he does not really love his tea-picking job but would instead like to do carpentry if given skills.

Profile 2. Musa Wobusobozi from Bugambe, Kikuube district

Name: Wobusobozi Musa

District: Hoima/Kikuube

Subcounty: Bugambe

Parish: Ruguse

Village: Bujugu

Age: 17 years

Sex: Male

Musa is a 17-year-old boy in Bugambe Subcounty, Kikuube district. He lives with both his biological parents although he has his own house within his parents' compound. There are two children; he has a younger sister. He dropped out of school in senior secondary two (S.2) and joined a welding/artisan school.

Musa participates in artisan work where he is paid UGX 20,000 every two weeks per piece of work done. The family's main income-generating activity is tea production, mostly managed by Ian's father while his mother concentrates on food crop production, mostly for home consumption with some for sale, including matooke, cassava, groundnuts, rice, beans and greens.

Challenges at both the family farm and the welding workshop include too many snakes found in tea plantations, which Ian says is scary, and also bad weather which disturbs tea picking, lack of modern machinery at the welding workshop and also lack of time for other personal income-generating activities.

Profile 3. Ronald Kayesu from Hoima, Hoima district

Name: Kayesu Ronald

District: Hoima

Subcounty: Hoima Town Council

Village: Rushaka

Age: 16 years

Sex: Male

Ronald is a 16-year-old boy in Hoima district living with both his biological parents. He was born into a family of eight children with six boys and two girls all aged between 5 and 17 years. Ronalddropped out of school due to his parents' lack of money for the fees; since they are many siblings he has given them the opportunity to attend school at least up to a certain level.

He helps in a family business selling milk in the evening hours between 5 and 9 p.m. along the Hoima town streets. He also works on a family livestock farm grazing the animals, which he does in the morning hours between 9 a.m and 2 p.m. His father pays him UGX 2,000 weekly, not as a wage but as a small token of appreciation.

He said they have enough food at home (matooke, maize, beans, Irish potatoes and groundnuts, among others) because that is what his mother does. The father is a herdsman and also sells milk on the streets. Ronald talked about the challenges he faces while doing his casual work; these include exposure to too much sunshine while grazing, which gives him frequent headaches, encountering wild animals, moving long distances while grazing and working for long hours in a day.

Profile 4. Clovis January from Hakibare, Kabarole district

Name: January Clovis

District: Kabarole

Subcounty: Hakibare

Age: 16

Sex: Male

Marital status: single

Clovis is a single male aged 16 years in Hakibare Subcounty, Kabarole district. He lives in a male-headed household of 13 children but with only six children aged between 5 and 17 years, three girls and three boys. He does not have any disability. He is a nursery school dropout. He does not live with his biological parents but stays with his grandparents, having his separate room/house near their main house.

Clovis does both casual farm work on other people's tea farms doing tea plucking, weeding and pruning, and off-farm work cutting timber and brick laying. He is interested in working in the transportation sector as a driver. He earns UGX 70,000 per month from all the activities he is involved in. His guardians too are involved in casual farm work: tea and food production, for both income and food. Crops produced include matooke, potatoes, cabbage, beans, cassava, groundnuts and dodo, among others.

Clovis faces challenges such as suffering injuries from tea branches, excessively long working hours with working days running from 6 a.m to 4 p.m., and working for some people who fail to pay him on time. Sometimes the work is overwhelming yet not paid for, and above all, he said, sometimes he is underpaid because of his age.

Annex 3. List of key informants organizations and contacts interviewed

No.	Respondent name	Tea estate/company/cooperatives	Location/Address
1.	Deo Agaba	Mcleod Russel Uganda Tea Factory Ltd	Hoima
2.	David Wakampa	Bugambe Tea Growers Cooperative Tea Society	Bugambe
3.	William Isiah	Bugisu Cooperative Union	Mbale
4.	Daniel Odeke	Busekere Growers Tea Factory	Fortportal
5.	Kagolo Emmanuel	Kasubi Kyagwe Coffee Factory	Buikwe
6.	Sempala Godfrey	Kamali Coffee Investment limited	Buikwe
7.	Bameliki (Division Manager)	KisuRi Tea Factory	Kikube District
8.	Alex Kaahwa	Mpanga Growers Tea Factory	Fortportal
9.	Hamuhereza anatoly	Kyamuhunga Tea Company Limited	Bushenyi
10.	Mukwatanize Emmanuel	Swazi Highland Tea company	Bushenyi
11.	Mr Umar Commercial manager	Gyagalanyi processing factory	Mbale
12.	Koen	Great Lakes Coffee	Kampala
13.	Prose Mayanja	Coffee World Ltd	Kampala
14.	Mr Antony Turyahebwa	UNATO	Kampala
15.	John Nuwagaba	Ankole coffee producer cooperative union	Bushenyi
16.	Mr Deus	NUCAFE	Kampala
17.	Basasi Sarah	Kahangi Kburara Farmers' cooperative society	Kabarole



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