

ECLT FOUNDATION
Eliminating Child Labour in Tobacco-growing



INTEGRATED CHILD LABOUR ELIMINATION PROJECT – PHASE II

**SUZA EDUCATION ZONE - KASUNGU
KATALIMA EDUCATION ZONE - DOWA**

BASELINE SURVEY

**TOGETHER ENSURING CHILDREN'S
SECURITY
(TECS)**

AUGUST 2008

Acknowledgement

This report is indebted to efforts of many contributors at various stages. Firstly, let us commend the efforts of the entire ECLT team (Joanne Dunn, Sonja Molinari and Alain Berthoud) for the tireless, technical support they provided during the initial design phase and subsequent analytical stages of the report. Pierre Martell, your statistical input was highly invaluable and you raised the benchmark in terms of capacity building to our statistical skills and methods. We would also like to thank our partners (TLC, CRECCOM, Nkhoma Synod and Lifeline Malawi) for their efforts at the data collection level and inputs into the various parts of the report.

This acknowledgement would not be complete if we failed to acknowledge the input and efforts of the entire TECS management team (Bobby Maynard, Harold Kuombola, Emanuel Zenengeya, Limbani Kakhoma and Edna Magwaya). The logistical support, leadership guidance and technical input was priceless.

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The baseline survey was commissioned by ECLT; it does not necessarily reflect the views of ECLT.
Final version.

Acronyms

CBCC	Community based child care
CBOs	Community based organisations
CCAP	Church of Central Africa Presbyterian
CILIC	Civil Liberties Committee
CRECCOM	Creative Centre for Community Mobilisation
CSR	Centre for Social Research
EA	Enumeration Area
ECLT	Eliminating Child Labour in Tobacco growing Foundation
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
GOM	Government of Malawi
ICLEP	Integrated Child Labour Elimination Programme
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPEC	International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour
KII	Key informant interview
MK	Malawi Kwacha
MPVA	Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment
NSO	National Statistical Office
NTGF	Non Tobacco Growing Families
PAC	Public Affairs Committee
PEA	Primary Education Advisor
PWP	Public works programme
SFP	School feeding programme
TA	Traditional Authority (Chief)
TECS	Together Ensuring Child Security
TGF	Tobacco Growing Families
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

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Executive summary

This is a report of a baseline survey that was commissioned by TECS for the Integrated Child Labour Programme – Phase Two (ICLEP II). It was funded and technically supported by ECLT through all its stages of inception, data analysis and report writing. The field data collection and initial analysis were conducted by the Centre for Social Research (CSR) of the University of Malawi. The baseline survey was for the second phase of the ICLEP II which covers two education zones; Suza in Kasungu district and Katalima in Dowa district. The overall objective of the baseline survey was to determine the nature and extent of child labour in the proposed project impact area and map out the socio – economic make up of the communities at hand.

Methodology

The baseline survey employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods in order to meet its terms of reference. Three data collection tools were employed targeting specific sources of information. These included in-depth interviews of district and community level stakeholders, focus group discussions with men, women and youth at community level and questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered to teachers and heads of randomly sampled households and all their available children in the age group 6-17 years. A total of 14 in-depth interviews and 11 focus group discussions were conducted and 50 teacher, 998 household and 2003 child questionnaires were administered. Data from the questionnaires were entered using DBase IV and was cleaned and analysed using SPSS Release 12. Qualitative data from Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and in-depth interviews were typed in Microsoft Word. Content analysis was employed to get the relevant information from the reports. The content analysis was driven by the Terms of reference.

Due to the inadequate nature and quality of the analysis done by CSR, ECLT decided to engage another consultant, Pierre Martel, to re –analyse the questionnaires and draw some new and accurate analysis of the data. The re-analysis was based on the database files provided by CSR. Additional data cleaning was performed through a consistency analysis. No additional verification against the original paper questionnaires was made except for a small number of questionnaires that were used as controls. The several individual children's files that had been provided were reorganized and merged in such a way as to allow statistics to be estimated on the basis of a consistent number of sampled children. Weight variables were estimated based on the study design and response rates. Statistics were estimated on the basis of the re-structured and cleaned files together with their confidence intervals taking into account stratification, clustering and response rates.

Nature and extent of child labour

The report has taken the view that child labour goes beyond the employment of children below the age of 15 years and has included employment of children 6 to 17 years in hazardous work as stipulated by the Malawi Employment Act. It has included work, light or heavy, that makes a child skip going to school, work that makes a child work too long to the extent of denying the child the right to play and study and work for remuneration whether in cash or in kind . It should be noted that tobacco is an intensive activity. Domestic chores, taking care of siblings and generally household tasks are often delegated to children, when the parents are working. The impact of tobacco production on child labour is hence not limited to tobacco related work. On the basis of these, the baseline survey found the following:

- ✓ 57% of children are in some form of work that is indicative of child labour i.e. child labour in the form of long hours, absenteeism from school, remuneration or worst forms labour.
- ✓ 71% of 12 -14y age group are in child labour and are the most affected seconded by the 6 -11y age group at 57%. The 15 -17y age group is the least affected (37%).

- ✓ 63% of children in tobacco growing families are in child labour whilst 51% of children in non tobacco growing families are in child labour.
- ✓ There is no marked difference between boys and girls in terms of exposure to child labour in all families if comparing tobacco growing families (tgf) and non tobacco growing families (ntgf).
- ✓ Despite having no difference between males in tobacco growing families and non-tobacco growing families, the study indicates a marked difference for females in tobacco growing families at 63% and non – tobacco growing families at 50% in their levels of exposure to child labour.
- ✓ During the low season, 42% of children of 6 – 17y of age (and 59% of the 12-14) are working long hours per week and 56% of children of 6 -17y of age are working long hours per day.
- ✓ In low tobacco season 10% of the children work long hours in tobacco related work, while this percentage increases to 23% in high season. If considering only tobacco growing families these percentages are 16.5% and 36.4% respectively.
- ✓ The mean length of daily hours children work on weekdays is 3.9 in low tobacco period
- ✓ 24% of all children are exposed to hazardous work (for instance carrying heavy loads, work causing injuries/sickness, application of chemicals, working more than 43 hours/week)
- ✓ 32% of children in tobacco growing families are exposed to hazardous work environments, 24% of the children apply chemicals.
- ✓ 24% of children are in remunerated activities.
- ✓ 12% of the children were injured or sick because of work.
- ✓ Of all the children, 8% are out of school because of work or their schooling is affected by work. This percentage is 10% for the 6-14 yr children from tobacco growing families (14% for the 12-14 yr)
- ✓ Illness is the main reason given by the children for school absenteeism.
- ✓ 16% of the parents said their children were out of school because of lack of school materials like uniforms, shoes and money for fees. 52% consider that their child (aged 6-14) are either too young or too old to be at school.

Characteristics of studied households and children

An analysis of all the studied households shows that:

- ✓ 64% of children living with one parent are in child labour.
- ✓ 68% of children living away from both parents are in child labour.
- ✓ 63% of non orphaned children are in child labour and 70% of orphans are in child labour.
- ✓ 56% of children in asset rich households are in child labour, 58% of children in asset medium households are in child labour and 56% of children in asset poor households are in child labour. The data suggests that it does not necessarily matter if the child is coming from a poor or rich household to be involved in child labour. However, the “asset rich” category represents a yearly income of the order of 300 USD (54 USD for the “asset low” category), which is below the 1 USD/day UN poverty threshold.
- ✓ 24% of all families are asset poor with 46% being asset medium and 30% asset rich households.
- ✓ Male headed households have significantly higher incomes than female headed households: as female headed household income is 25% of the male’s one.
- ✓ 51% of the interviewed households grow tobacco

Factors influencing child labour

Child labour is affected by a number of factors. The baseline survey has managed to confirm some of the known factors. The following known factors have been supported by the results of the baseline survey:

Poverty

On the basis of the 2005 poverty profile, the poverty incidence was 45% for Kasungu and 37% for Dowa (GOM/WB 2005) and therefore Dowa and Kasungu are relatively well off districts in Malawi if compared with other districts. According to the survey tgf are more often categorised as “asset rich”(40%) as compared to ntgf. Their source of income is crop sales including tobacco yet child labour is very much a reality with 57% child labour rate (table 26 v9). There are, however, pockets of poverty in the two districts including in female-headed households. On average, the studied household has an average income of US\$187. Male headed households have an average household income US\$207. Female-headed households have an average household income of US\$54. Tobacco growing families declare to earn more than non-tobacco growing families. However, results must be interpreted with caution, since, income are difficult to estimate (40% of the families have declared larger expenditures than income). Child labour in the districts is pulled from the demand side by the labour demands in tobacco production and from the supply side is pushed by poverty in some households. Underlining all this is the narrow focus on short-term gains by employers, households and children. Parents are narrowly focused in the sense that the choice options available to them are limited. For instance in the face of extreme poverty parents tend to use children in child labour related activities as a coping mechanism whilst those that are well off tend to use children whether their own or employed from relatively poor households as cheap labour supplements.

Food security

According to the Key Information Interviews (KII) with agriculture extension officers in the area, the project area is relatively food secure. However, the few that are food insecure mostly work to acquire the food. The FGDs and KII indicated that these households that work to acquire food take their children along to work with them to acquire the food and sometimes the children are made to skip school for the short-term gain of acquiring food.

Education infrastructure

Children in the project area start late, absent themselves from school, perform poorly and eventually drop out. Further, there is very high pupil-teacher ratio of above 70:1 on average. Many schools lack learning materials to support poor children.

Attitudes and perceptions on child labour

The project area is apparently awash with cosmetic positive attitudes and perceptions on child labour. The prevalence of child labour in households, farms and estates does not augur well with the positive attitudes and perceptions. The area needs action-oriented attitudes against child labour.

Availability of potable water

The project area has limited sources of potable water. People, whom many are children, have to queue for a very long time before drawing water, Congestion at water points make school-going children late in school or absent from school both of which may lead to poor performance and eventual drop out.

Attitude of Government on child labour

Child labour in Malawi has been assisted by poor policy environment, loose legislative framework and weak administrative structures. Operationally, child labour activities are poorly funded. Most of child labour interventions are donor funded. The absence of compulsory education makes things worse.

Availability of child labour interventions

There are relatively very few interventions on child labour. Most of them are small scale. The impact of these interventions is very minimal. Most of them deal with few aspects of the

problem. Combating child labour requires indeed an integrated and multi-stakeholders approach.

Conclusions and recommendations

Child labour problems in the project are recognised by all stakeholders. As stakeholders, they have some ideas on how the problem can be dealt with. A summary of the conclusions and recommendations made by this report is given below:

High incidence of child labour

More than half of the children in the impact area are involved in child labour. Overall these children work long hours either per day or per week. Apart from this, children are assigned tasks to an extent that they fail to go to school. Children are also engaged in various agricultural production activities which involve hazardous work both within and outside their households. Children are also engaged in remunerated work activities.

One way of reducing time children spend working is to encourage children to stay longer in school, and motivate them by improving the quality of the education. The project should encourage local authorities to introduce activities that keep children in school for longer hours (school feeding programmes for instance; increased number of classes which will result in less double shifts), including weekends. Extra-school recreational activities should be promoted. In addition the project activities should develop messages that indicate the allowable working hours, hazardous work and prohibition of children to work in remunerated activities for various age categories.

Education and health as a tool for combating child labour

In any child's education absenteeism highly affects the end product. According to the children, illnesses in Suza and Katalima Education Zones seem to be the most contributing factor to children missing school days (81%). The need to work (either remunerated work activities or household work) is another contributing factor. More than half the parents suggest the main reason for children dropping out of school is that most children feel they are too young to be in school and by the time they need to go to school they would be too old.

ICLEP II can deal with this by increasing income earning opportunities of poor households. It is also imperative that the school environment be improved. Government itself should ensure that the children have a decent learning environment. Compulsory education, if legislated, would go a long way in shaking children who have the option of dropping out of school; wake up parents who economically exploit their children and sober a Government that feels that free primary education will reduce the high illiteracy in the country.

Support structures for vulnerable children

With little or insufficient support from extended families, and at times being mistreated and forced, orphans are said to seek employment as a coping strategy.

ICLEP II should focus on providing an environment to orphans that would allow them pursue their education without being forced to join the labour market too early.

ICLEP II should therefore consider increasing the level of sensitisation as well as setting up community structures to monitor child labour. At a minimum ICLEP II should advocate for boosting the labour inspectorate.

Project activities should be formulated to specifically target communities with messages aimed at changing cultural practices that encourage early induction of children into work activities. Younger age groups are the worst affected in child labour and need project

interventions aimed at targeting them. 15-17y age group should be the minimum age group for induction into work activities.

Basic social services and infrastructure

The project area has limited sources of potable water. The high prevalence of water-borne diseases in the area points to the absence of potable water. The congestion at potable water sources is a cause for concern as children are forced to be late for or skip school in order to collect water in the morning. Provision of these potable water sources should go hand in hand with provision of health services to minimize incidences of illnesses which were indicated by the children as the major factor of school absenteeism.

Recommendations from the Communities

Though this list is not exhaustive, the community members made the following project intervention recommendations:

- ✓ Construct more schools to reduce distances to school
- ✓ Involve all stakeholders in the design of its programme
- ✓ Provide targeted civic education to children, households, communities and employers
- ✓ Consider involving and training CBOs for community-level activities like child labour monitoring
- ✓ Provide bursaries to some of the poor children in the project area

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1. Introduction

This is a re-written baseline report of the baseline survey report produced by the Centre for Social Research (CSR). TECS has undertaken the role of re-writing the report using statistics re-calculated by the ECLT consultant (Pierre Martel) following the initial substandard work presented by CSR. The overall objective of the re-analysis is to present meaningful statistics from the data collected by CSR.

TECS and its partners had been implementing the Integrated Child Labour Programme, ICLEP I, over a period of four years. The final evaluation of the project as well as other stakeholders and project beneficiaries recommended that the project be extended for a further 4 years as ICLEP II. The overall objective of ICLEP II is to contribute to the elimination of child labour in the tobacco growing areas in Malawi through implementation of inter-related community based interventions that will create awareness about the dangers of child labour and at the same time address the livelihood challenges of poor communities in the project impact areas. The interventions address problems relating to water and sanitation, health, food insecurity, and education.

For monitoring and evaluation purposes, TECS commissioned the CSR to carry out a comprehensive baseline survey and ECLT was fully involved in the design of the study and questionnaires. The overall objective of the baseline survey was to determine the nature and extent of child labour in the proposed project impact areas of Suza and Katalima Education Zones in Kasungu and Dowa Districts respectively and the specific objectives were to:

- a) Describe the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of households and how these impact on child labour.
- b) Assess people's awareness about child labour.
- c) Identify vulnerable and at risk groups of children that require urgent special interventions.
- d) Explore the relationship between child labour and HIV/AIDS.
- e) Determine the attitude of parents, employers, children, local administrators and NGO staff towards child labour.
- f) Identify key areas where children are working.
- g) Describe the major sources of cash income for households in the project impact areas including access to loan facilities.
- h) Identify the existing school infrastructure, facilities and services within the project impact areas and the problems that children have in terms of accessing education.
- i) Collect data on enrolment, dropout, attendance and performance in selected schools in the study areas and the reasons for the observed trends.
- j) Identify the major sources of water for drinking and other domestic uses including distances to these water sources.
- k) Collect information on the extent of food shortages in the two educational zones in Kasungu and Dowa Districts at household level and coping mechanisms employed by households.
- l) Explore the programmes being implemented in the proposed project sites that address food insecurity.
- m) Describe the major diseases prevalent among children in the project impact areas, how treatment is sought and preventive health programs available in the areas.
- n) Collect data on health facilities available in the area, the type of services they provide and the problems that they encounter in provision of services.
- o) Make recommendations on interventions that need to be implemented in order to reduce the incidence of child labour.

2. Methodology

2.1 Data Collection

The data collection exercise was managed by the Centre for Social Research (CSR) and TECS played a support role especially in the areas of building capacity amongst its partners in the areas of child labour and M&E . On the basis of the terms of reference, a number of data collection tools were planned to be used. Training of data collection staff was organised and conducted in Zomba for a week in October 2006. A data collection team was assembled from CSR and TECS and its partners. The instruments used include: in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, and questionnaires. The training covered all the instruments. The training included pre-testing of the questionnaires and assessing the skills of the team. The actual field data collection was undertaken from November 6 to November 19, 2006.

As part of capacity building as well as a cost-cutting measure, fieldwork tasks were divided between TECS partners and CSR staff. TECS partners were responsible for conducting national and district level stakeholder in-depth interviews, administering teachers' questionnaires and conducting FGDs with teachers. CSR field staffs were responsible for the administration of the questionnaire, conducting of the focus group discussions and in-depth interviews with community-level stakeholders namely traditional leaders, head teachers and estate owners and managers. Due to some administrative mishaps and logistical problems, TECS partners could only manage to conduct in-depth interviews with some district-level stakeholders and not national level in-depth interviews. They were also unable to administer 50 more teacher questionnaires, conduct FGDs with teachers and collect data at education zone offices on number of schools, enrolment and other education statistics as planned. CSR staff, in particular supervisors, eventually ended up administering some teachers' questionnaire at the cost of thorough checking of the household questionnaires. Table 1 presents the outturn of the field work.

Table 1: Planned and actual interviews

	Planned	Actual
In-depth interviews		
National level stakeholders	4	0
District level stakeholders	14	9
Community level stakeholders	16	5
Focus group discussions		
Teachers	2	0
Community members	12	11
Questionnaires		
Teacher	100	50
Household	1000	998
Child	1500	2003

The administration of the questionnaires required sampling in order to produce results that would assist in estimating a number of indicators for the entire project area. On the basis of the sampling techniques adopted and outturn of the questionnaire administration, the collected data was weighted in order to estimate the key indicators. Below is a discussion of the sampling and weighting procedures.

2.2 Sampling for questionnaire administration

This baseline study was meant to collect benchmark data for which evaluative surveys could be compared to as part of monitoring and evaluation of the project. In particular, data would be required to assess ICLEP II's objective of reducing child labour among the project's direct beneficiaries by 80% and indirect beneficiaries by 50% in its four-year period. Given a sample size of 1,000 and a ratio of 1.5 children of the age-group 6-17 years, the 1,000 households were estimated to host an average of 1,500 children and give results on child labour with at least plus or minus 4% level of precision.

The overall sample of 1,000 households was divided relative to the population proportions of the two educational zones; Suza was allocated 480 households and Katalima 520 households. Two questionnaires (household and child) were administered per sampled household. The principal respondents to these questionnaires were the heads of households (or their spouses, if head not present) and all children aged 6-17 years, respectively. Each EA was allocated the number of households proportional to its household population size. On the basis of this, Suza was allocated 16 Enumeration Areas (EAs) while Katalima was allocated 18 EAs. In Suza there was no EA sampling because the zone had 16 EAs. In Katalima, the 18 EAs were randomly selected with probability proportional to size. The implication is that a one-stage sampling for Suza and two-stage sampling for Katalima were used; one for EAs and another for the households. The two-stage sampling in Katalima had implications on the weighting of the data. Apart from the differences in the sub-sample size, weighting was also affected by the actual number of questionnaires administered.

The number of households to be visited was calculated in proportion to the total number of households in the enumeration area. Since there was no household listing in the sampled EAs, sampling of households was done at the time of the survey. A sampling interval was calculated as a quotient of total household population of the enumeration area (village/sub-section) and number of required (sampled) households in the EA (village or subsection). This interval was given to the interviewers for random sampling of the households. On arrival at an enumeration area, the team, led by the supervisor, established a starting point. Starting from that point, the RAs enumerated every *k*th household they encountered, where *k* was the sampling interval.

It should be noted that although the overall number of households visited in the project area of 998 is close to the planned 1,000 there was some variations between planned and actual number of households by EA¹. On the positive side, the number of children interviewed of 2003 was more than the expected 1,500. This improves the level of precision of the results. Also note that it was not possible to conduct household and in-depth interviews in two EAs (26 and 27) in Katalima because they fall within tobacco estates which were busy planting their tobacco at the time of the survey. The estate management did not, therefore, provide the study team time and freedom to conduct the interviews with the households or the estate managers. This unfortunately meant that the team had no opportunity to learn from tobacco tenants and estate owners, thereby denying the study crucial elements that could have been vital to illuminating on the child labour situation in the area vis a vis tobacco growing and the tenancy system. A third EA, EA 45, was replaced because it was learnt that it fell outside the education zone. These three EAs were replaced with nearest free adjacent EAs. The affected

¹ It is acknowledged that this could affect the relative distribution of the households and therefore the weights. However, the final weighting of the population has taken this into account.

EAs and EAs that replaced them are shaded and all fall under Katalima zone² in Table 2 that presents the planned and actual number of questionnaires administered.

Table 2: Planned and Actual sample

Grand Total		1,000	998	2,003
Planned EA	Actual EA	Planned # hhs	Actual # hhs	Actual # children
Kaomba TA				
EA 001	EA 001	28	28	85
EA 002	EA 002	28	28	85
EA 003	EA 003	35	35	119
EA 004	EA 004	28	28	63
EA 005	EA 005	33	33	72
EA 006	EA 006	31	31	72
EA 007	EA 007	33	33	88
EA 008	EA 008	37	37	98
Mwase TA				
EA 001	EA 001	47	46	87
EA 002	EA 002	26	27	58
EA 003	EA 003	21	18	36
EA 004	EA 004	28	28	58
EA 005	EA 005	44	46	95
EA 006	EA 006	35	21	41
EA 008	EA 008	38	41	68
EA 009	EA 009	26	26	48
Total Suza Education Zone		520	506	1173
Chakhaza STA				
EA 001	EA 001	29	30	55
EA 008	EA 008	17	19	29
EA 017	EA 017	28	29	49
EA 018	EA 018	26	20	35
EA 020	EA 020	29	31	51
EA 021	EA 021	24	21	36
EA 023	EA 023	21	22	45
EA 024	EA 024	41	45	80
EA 025	EA 025	18	19	43
EA 026	EA 019	37	40	54
EA 027	EA 007	22	25	55
EA 029	EA 029	26	26	34
EA 030	EA 030	26	28	23
EA 045	EA 022	27	30	45
EA 047	EA 047	27	26	38
EA 048	EA 048	41	39	88
EA 049	EA 049	32	34	64
EA 805	EA 805	9	8	6
Total Katalima Education Zone		480	492	830

² It is also acknowledged that the substitute EAs did not have the exact population of the EAs they were replacing. This meant that under normal circumstances, the sample distribution ought to have been reworked. Given the time this was not done. However, we are of the view the statistical implication of the replacement is not significant enough as to change the overall direction of the results.

2.3 Weighting the data for estimations

As already alluded to, all the enumeration areas in Suza were covered. However, in Katalima three EAs were substituted. Most of these substitutions happened after quite a number of enumeration areas had already been completed. To avoid distorting the original picture the new enumeration areas maintained the original allocation of the households of the substituted ones though their population were different. However, the weight for Katalima education zone was adjusted for the fact that one EA had been removed as well as the fact that the households covered, for some reasons, were not always the same as given. In any case the weights for Suza and Katalima were different because of the differences in the number of sampling stages and the variations in the planned and actual number of households interviewed³.

2.4 Data entry and analysis

Data was entered using DBase IV and cleaned and analysed using SPSS. FGD and in-depth interview reports were typed in word. We used simple content analysis of each report to get the required information from the reports. The content analysis was driven by terms of reference.

2.5 Limitations of the study

The study has a number of limitations. These are outlined below.

1 Given the high probability of child labour among tobacco tenants, the failure to cover EA 26 and EA 27 means that the study has been denied a chance to comprehensively estimate child labour for the project area. It is likely that the study will slightly underestimate the child labour prevalence in the project area although these are only two out of 34 EAs.

2 The study does not have the benefit of all the data it required. The failure to get education-related data from TECS; failure to interview 50 more teachers; failure to conduct in-depth interviews with teachers, estate owners and national level stakeholders and failure to conduct FGDs with teachers meant that there is some gap in qualitative data especially on education. However, we believe that the loss is minimal because half of the teachers were interviewed and in-depth interviews with district level stakeholder and estate managers were conducted.

³ The calculation of the weights is given below:

Let:

Mi=Population of households stratum i

mij=Population of households EAj in stratum i

hij=Population of selected households in EAj and stratum i

For Suza, probability of selection=hij/mij Weight=mij/hij

For Katalima, probability of selection=(mij/Mi)*(hij/mij) = (hij/Mi) Weight=Mi/hij

Thus in Katalima, each EA is given an independent estimate of the stratum total. Therefore to get the stratum total the sum has to be divided by the number of selected enumeration areas. Therefore, Weight = (Mi/hij)/18.

3. Key findings

3.1 Introduction

This section deals with the core of the baseline survey and responds to its overall objective. It presents the extent of child labour in the project area from various perspectives, presenting the research findings from various data collection instruments (both quantitative and qualitative) and descriptive analysis sometimes supported by figures and graphs. It however starts by providing a discussion of what child labour and work is in the Malawi context and also the extent of child labour estimated in other studies conducted in Malawi and elsewhere.

3.2 Geographic location of the impact area

The project is implemented in Suza Education Zone in Kasungu and Katalima Education Zone in Dowa. As the projects intends to contribute to the elimination of child labour in tobacco growing areas in Malawi these two areas were chosen for their significant production of tobacco and high existence of labour migration in high tobacco related activity period indicating a potential existence of high child labour.

3.3 Child labour context in Malawi

According to the Malawi Constitution, child labour is any economic exploitation of children or any work that is likely to be hazardous or any work that is likely to interfere with the child's education, or any work that is likely to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development. According to the Employment Act, child labour is the employment of children under the age of fifteen and the employment of children in the age group 15 to 17 years in hazardous work. The Employment Act provides for child work; i.e. work for no pay in homes and training institutions but that is not likely going to harm them in any way or interfere with their education⁴.

According to this definition there are therefore several dimensions of child labour. The first is age. Under this dimension, any employment of a child below the age of fifteen years is child labour. The employment of children in the age group 15-17 years has to be hazardous to qualify to be child labour. Government is yet to finalise what constitutes hazardous work in Malawi. In the absence of the Malawi version of hazardous work, this report used the general definition of working with hazardous chemicals, moving machinery, night work, working very long hours or work that provokes injuries or illness.. The second dimension is attendance of school for school-going age children. Any work assigned to a child up to 17 years that makes the child be absent from school is child labour. Thus child labour encompasses all school enrolled children who are absent from school in the current school year due to some assigned work.

The third dimension is the period of work a child works in a typical day. The Malawi National Code of Conduct on Child Labour defines the number of hours worked by a child in a typical day and whether the child is in school or not and its age. A child in employment working exceeding twenty (20) hours a week or working more than four (4) hours a day is

⁴ It is interesting to note that the Malawi Child Labour survey of 2002 looked at paid work as a criterion for inferring child labour.

considered to be in child labour. These working hours are defined to allow school-going children time to study and play after school apart from being assigned work.

The fourth dimension is work assigned to children in the confines of a home. According to the Employment Act, children can work lawfully being used in homes without being considered to be in child labour as long as they are not paid. However, involvement of school-going children that conflicts the above defined conditions of child labour is considered child labour.

The Malawi Initial Report on the Convention on the Rights of the Child has reported that approximately 20% of all children fewer than 15 years of age were reported by their parents as working full time and a further 21% were working part-time (United Nations, 2000). The 2000 Malawi Demographic and Health Survey which collected data on the work activities of children aged 5-14 years of age showed that 9% of the children in this age group were working for non-relatives, 62% were working on family business or family farm while 19% were involved in domestic work for a specified number of hours per day. The study also found that overall, 37% of the children who participated in the survey were working at the time of the survey (see National Statistical Office, 2001).⁵

According to the International Labour Organization/International Project on Elimination of Child Labour (ILO/IPEC) child labour baseline survey conducted in 2002 in Kasungu, Mchinji, Mzimba and Mangochi districts, 38% of the children in the age group 5 to 17 years were reported working in the previous week prior to the survey. In terms of work for pay in the twelve months prior to the survey, 22% of the children had worked for pay. Most of the children had worked on *ganyu*⁶ basis as 59% of them that worked were in school. The national child labour survey carried out in 2002/3 found that 29% of the children between 5 and 17 years were economically active. Both the ILO/IPEC baseline survey and the national child labour survey found insignificant difference in child labour prevalence between girls and boys.⁷

According to the Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment (MPVA)⁸, about 35% of children between 5 years and 14 years were found working; 3% for non-household members (*ganyu*), 4% in domestic work and 28% on family farm/business. More came from poor households (37%) than non-poor households (32%). There was no difference between boys and girls although more girls were working in domestic work (6% as opposed to 2%) and more boys were working in family farm/business (30% as opposed to 27%).

For purposes of this study child labour definitions used have followed The Foundation for the Elimination of Child Labour in Tobacco (ECLT) standard definitions adopted from the ILO definitions of child labour. The key findings in the following sections outlines the main findings of the study, provides a descriptive analysis of the findings and highlights the relevant ECLT standard indicators.

⁵ These statistics are from page 2 of the report of the Rapid Assessment of Child Domestic Labour in Malawi conducted by the Centre for Social Research for ILO/IPEC. See Tsoka (2006).

⁶ *Ganyu* is paid piece work

⁷ These statistics are found on page v in the survey report titled 'Child Labour Baseline Survey Final Report' by Tsoka and Konyani under the Centre for Social Research, for ILO/IPEC produced in 2003.

⁸ GoM/WB. 2006. Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment: Investing in our future. This is a derivative of NSO's Second Integrated Household Survey conducted in 2004/5.

3.4 Extent and nature of child labour in the project sites

The findings of this study have been analysed using an approach that details the general global picture of the child labour situation in the area using table number 26 v9 and cascading to the finer details of child labour in the area of; children working long hours, children in hazardous work, children in remunerated activities, effect of child labour on education and the general socio – economic characteristics of the studied population. Each subsection of this chapter commences with a convectional definition of the key finding and a working definition that was employed to analyse the data and contextualises the descriptive statistics and the subsequent analysis.

3.4.1 Child labour context

For one to understand the child labour context a good understanding of the definitions that constitute child labour vis a vis child work need to be defined. According to the ILO, convention 182 specifies all forms of slavery or similar practices in forced labour and military recruitment, prostitution or pornography, illicit activities these are unconditional forms of child labour. Under the classification of worst forms there is also the hazardous work (which are defined at national level) and include work which “ by its nature and or the way it is carried out, harms the health, safety or morals of children, abuses and exploits the child or deprives the child of an education”. The ILO convention 138 specifies the minimum age for child involvement in employment to avoid child exploitation. These conventions aim at protecting the children from economic exploitation, hazardous work, and interference in child’s education, physical or mental, spiritual, moral or social development.

3.4.1.1 Definitions

For purposes of this study the working definition for child labour was ;

- ✓ Children 6-11y currently in any type of work except domestic work or family farming (excluding predominantly commercial farming),
- ✓ or of children 6-11y in domestic work or family farming working ≥ 14 hours a week,
- ✓ or of children 12-14y working ≥ 14 hours a week,
- ✓ or of training or studying children 15-17y working ≥ 28 hours a week,
- ✓ or of non-training and non-studying children 15-17y working ≥ 43 hours a week in the project’s catchment area;
- ✓ In addition to this definition, children 6-14y engaged in remunerated activities (in cash or in kind) for a period of 10 days or more during the previous 6 months in the project’s catchment area;
- ✓ children 6-14y out of school because of work or who, because of work, missed 6 or more days of school, or 3 school days in a row, during the last 3 months of school in the project’s catchment area;
- ✓ children 6-17y working ≥ 43 hours a week, or taking part in activities clearly defined by Convention 182, or involved in hazardous occupations defined in ILO’s or the country’s list, or exposed to hazardous processes in tobacco or other activities, or whose work results in significant injuries or illnesses, or is considered too heavy were considered to be in child labour.

3.4.1.2 Children 6-17y with any activity indicative of child labour.

At a glance child labour in the project impact areas can be said to be at 57% (Table 26 v9). This could be interpreted to be higher than the estimates provided by other national surveys like the Malawi Child Labour Survey (MCLS) of 2002 which estimated child labour to be at 37%. More recent studies have shown that child labour is at 37% (Malawi Health and Demographic Survey 2004) and 29% (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2006). These studies would suggest a reducing child labour rate. Further analysis of these figures indicates that the different working definitions of these surveys is the main underlying factor behind this seemingly reducing rate. In essence this surveys rate is more realistic in terms of giving a true picture of the child labour rate in the project areas and possibly in similar agricultural or tobacco producing rural communities. This is owing to the fact that this surveys' definition of child labour was very consistent with International Labour Organisations conventions and definitions of child labour unlike the other surveys. For instance the MICS 29% rate is exclusive of the worst forms of child labour.

Evidence from the Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) conducted in the project area, reinforces the fact that child labour is prevalent. All groups said that child labour exists in various forms including children working on piecework basis, and even in homes being assigned work that is considered beyond their physical capability. Some groups mentioned that some children are employed by tobacco estates. They also indicated that children migrate out of their communities to work elsewhere, mostly in urban areas. For instance men in Katalima at an FGD indicated most children migrate as cattle headers, house servants, (*mabwana*)⁹ and are not giving them chance to go to school. They also indicated existence of most forms of oppression to child rights (*kuphera mwana ufulu, nkhanza*¹⁰), are prevalent in their areas.

The 12 -14y age group is indicating the highest incidence of child labour at 71.2% (Table 26v9). The younger age group of 6-11y is the second most affected with a score of 56.5% (Table 26 v9). The older age group of 15 -17y is the least affected with a score of 36.5% (Tables 26 v9).

According to Malawi's prevailing cultural practices, it is not uncommon to find children in the age group of 12 – 14y being drawn into child labour more than the other age groups of 6-11y or the 15 -17y age group. Culturally children in the 12 – 14y age group get initiated into adulthood and it is at this stage that they get entrusted with a lot of work tasks as part of the socialisation process. It is also not surprising to find the younger age group of 6 – 11y old being drawn into child labour as the cultural beliefs dictate that children need to be taught basic life survival skills at a tender age. The older age group seems to be less affected and this is also consistent with cultural practices as this age group often is seen as an adult age group and they tend to delegate most of their chores and tasks to their younger siblings. It is also worth noting that the 15 -17y age group is often married or leaving away from their parents households. Secondly, most often this age group tends to spend more hours at school as opposed to the younger age groups, although they are more frequently out of school (tab.39). For instance a secondary school student (15 -17y) is often at school for up to seven or eight hours whilst the younger age groups are at most in school for up to an average of five hours. Another factor is that the older age groups is often in boarding schools and lastly, the child labour working definition for this age group allows for more working hours of up to 28 hours a week for school going children and up to 43 hours a week for non – school going and non – training children.

⁹ *Mabwana refers to salaried employed people like civil servants*

¹⁰ *kuphera mwana ufulu, nkhanza this phrase refers to abusing children by withholding their rights and overt exploitation.*

There is no marked difference between boys and girls in terms of exposure to child labour in all families. Despite having no difference between males in tobacco growing families and non-tobacco growing families, the study indicates a marked difference for females in tobacco growing families at 62.8% (Refer to Figure 1, below Table 26 v9) and non – tobacco growing families at 50% (Table 26 v9) in their levels of exposure to child labour. In the absence of information pertaining to the high period of tobacco activity, the low period tobacco activity is indicating no marked difference with the average (any periods) at 56.9% (Table 26 v9) vs. 54.7% (Table 27 v9) of children of involved in child labour. The child labour rate of children living in tobacco growing families (tgf) is 62.9% and is significantly different from those children not in tobacco growing families (ntgf) 50.9% (Table 26 v9). This indicates tobacco growing families exposes own children more to child labour conditions than non – tobacco growing families.

Consistent with other studies done in Malawi, there is no difference between males and females in terms of their exposure to child labour. Both the ILO/IPEC baseline survey and the national child labour survey found insignificant difference in child labour prevalence between girls and boys.¹¹ However tobacco growing families seem to be exposing their female children more to child labour than non – tobacco growing families. This is mainly attributed to the high labour intensity of tobacco production, and to the fact that girls are often requested to replace adult in household work.

Figure 1. Percentage children involved in child labour for various family types, age, and gender (Table 26 v9)

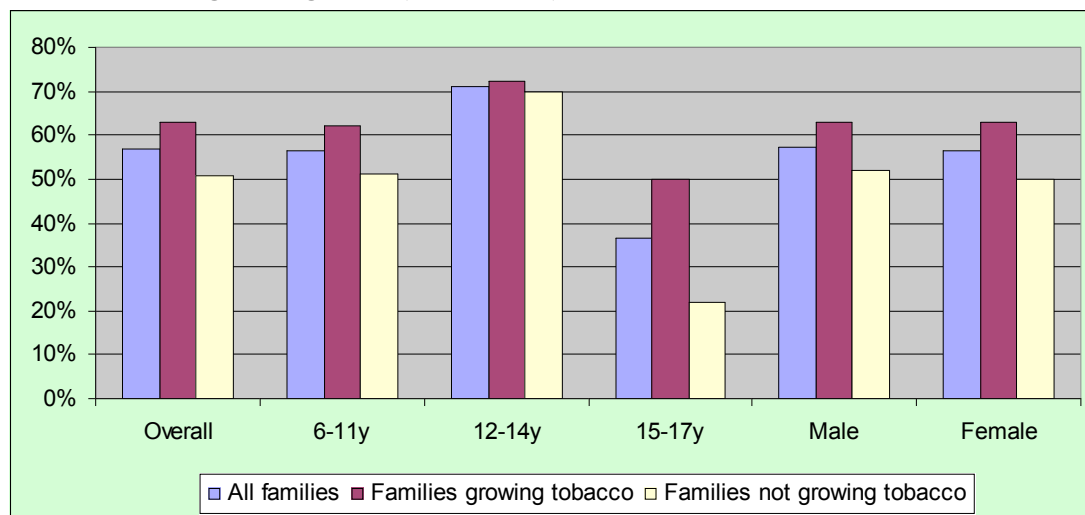


Figure 1 is showing that the general rate of child labour is 57% with tobacco families showing a higher percentage of children involved in child labour than non – tobacco growing households. It also shows that the 12 -14y age group is the most affected with no major difference overall between male and female children involvement in child labour (refer to appendix 2 table 26v9 for more details) These figures refer to any activity indicative of child labour in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school, or worst forms of labour, in any period of activity.

The data findings are indicating that there is no difference in exposure to child labour as it relates to the type of household head (Table 28 v9). However this result needs to be qualified for female and elderly headed households that the sample sizes (227 and 204 respectively) were not large enough to draw conclusive evidence (Table 28 v9). The results indicate that 63.8% of children living with at least one parent are involved in child labour whilst those away from both parents are 67.5% (though the sample size is relatively low for the later).

¹¹ These statistics are found on page v in the survey report titled ‘Child Labour Baseline Survey Final Report’ by Tsoka and Konyani under the Centre for Social Research, for ILO/IPEC produced in 2003.

Child labour occurrence in non-orphans is at 63.2%, whilst in orphans (of any type), orphans of father, orphans of mother, and double orphans is 70.3%, 71%, 66.9% and 66.5% respectively, (though the sample sizes in this set of data were small not warranting affirmative conclusions). This would suggest that child involvement in child labour is independent of the type of household head (Table 29 v9).

3.4.2 Working hours of children

Child labour is defined in terms of hours, where children are allowed to work excessive hours as defined in the working definition below.

3.4.2.1 Definitions

In this study the working definition that was employed to analyse the working hours of children was premised on looking at children 6-11y currently in any type of work except domestic work or family farming (excluding predominantly commercial farming),

- ✓ or of children 6-11y in domestic work or family farming working ≥ 14 hours a week,
- ✓ or of children 12-14y working ≥ 14 hours a week,
- ✓ or of training or studying children 15-17y working ≥ 28 hours a week,
- ✓ or of non-training and non-studying children 15-17y working ≥ 43 hours a week in the project's catchment area.

It should be taken into account that the weekly hours is the main indicator when measuring the variable "long hours". The daily number was added to be able to verify that during some days the working time is not in fact impinging the child to go to school, have time for homework and play. The daily measure of "long hours" is calculated as follows;

- ✓ children 6-11y currently in any type of work except domestic work or family farming (excluding predominantly commercial farming),
- ✓ or of children 6-11y in domestic work or family farming working ≥ 2.5 hours a day,
- ✓ or of children 12-14y working ≥ 2.5 hours a day,
- ✓ or of training or studying children 15-17y working ≥ 4 hours a day,
- ✓ or of non-training and non-studying children 15-17y working ≥ 43 hours a week in the project's catchment area.

3.4.2.2 Children working long hours per week

In low tobacco related activity period 41.7% of children 6-17y in all families are working long hours per week. It is consistently being found that the 12-14y age group at 58.8% (Refer to figure 2 below, Table 1v9) are the most affected with the age group 6-11y being the second most affected at 43.6% and the age group 15-17y being the least affected at 9.8%.

Overall, in low tobacco season children in agricultural work- tobacco related, work longer hours at 8.2% (table 1 v9) than their counterparts in non-tobacco related work, at 1.5% (Table 1 v9). More girls are involved in household work 33.1% (table 1 v9) than boys 18% (Table 1 v9). More boys than girls are in child labour in agricultural work regardless of whether the work is tobacco related, (11.9% for boys compared to 4.5% girls) or not (2.6% for boys compared to 0.3% for girls) (Table 1 v9) but the difference wears off in the tobacco high season. Child labour occurrence in tobacco

seems to be seasonally driven as it increases to 23.3% of children working long hours per week (Table 6 v9) during the high season from 8.2% (table 1 v9) in low tobacco activity period. Within tobacco growing families the percentage increases from 16.5% (low season Table 3 v9) to 36.4% (high season).

In the low tobacco related activity period, girls are less involved in agricultural work tobacco related 4.5% (Table 1. v9) compared to boys 11.9% (Table 1, v9), whilst in the high activity related tobacco period girls' involvement at 22.8%, (Table 2 v9) is not significantly different from that of males, 23.7% (Table 2 v9). In families growing tobacco 24% of the boys and 9% of the girls work in tobacco related activities during low season. These percentages increase respectively to 35 and 38% in the high season. More than half of the children in all families, 55.6% (Table 2 v9), seem to be working long hours per day. This being put in relation with the 41.7% of children working long hours per week. (Table 1 v 9). This means that more children do work more than 2.5 and 4 hours a day for some days of the week respectively for the 6-14y and 15 -17y age groups but don't reach the level of 14 hours or 28 hours respectively in a week. Some children do concentrate long hours in a relative small number of days. In this case, the information refers strictly to week days since we asked the children about the number of hours they work in a 'typical' day. They may work even longer hours in weekend days but we have not specific information about that.

Of all the age groups, the 12 -14y age group is consistently depicting to be the most affected with 71.8% of the age groups working long hours (Table 2 v 9). From Table 3 comparisons can be drawn between tobacco growing and non-tobacco growing families in terms of working long hours per week. In general in any kind of work there is no difference in terms of working hours regarding whether a family grows tobacco, 42.5% and 40.8% respectively (Table 3 v9). The statistics indicate that children in tobacco growing families will be more involved in agricultural work- tobacco related, 16.5% compared to those involved in agricultural work non-tobacco related in non-tobacco growing families, 3.0%, (Table 3 v 9).

Figure 2. Percentage of Children Working Long Hours Per Week For By Type of Work, Age and Gender (Table 1 v9) in low tobacco period

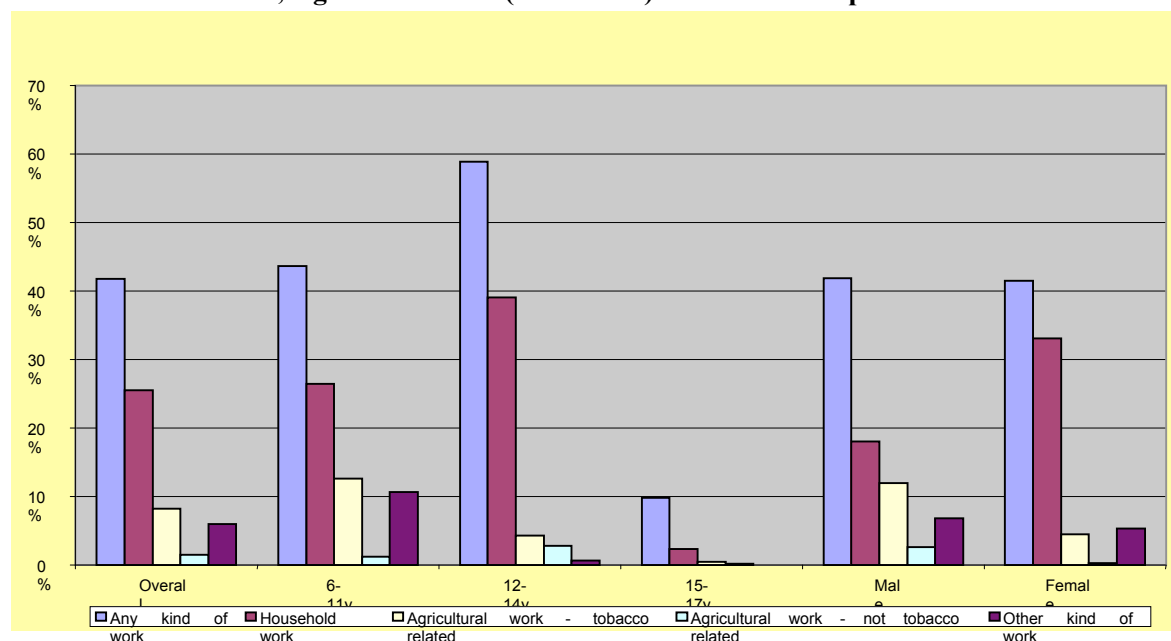


Figure 2 is showing that the overall 42% of children are working long hours with household work being the most

demanding in all families in terms of hours. It also shows that the 12 -14 age group is the most affected with almost 60% working long hours in any kind of work.

Using daily working hours, more children seem to work longer hours a day compared to working long hours a week. The statistics indicate that 28.7% (table 7 v9) of children 6-17y work long hours in all families in agricultural work – tobacco related. In the high tobacco related activity period, 46.1 % (Table 9 v9) of children in families growing tobacco work long hours per day due to involvement in agricultural work tobacco related, compared to 36.4% (Table 8 v9) of children working long hours per week, in the same period.

The mean length of daily working time is 3.4hrs (Table 12 v9) which is above the 2.5 hrs per day for the 6-11y, and 12-14y age groups. For the age group 15-17y, they are working 4.5 hrs which is more than the 4hr working limit (Table 12 v9). During the low season the mean length of daily work time, in all activities is 3.9hrs per day (Table 15 v9). In the low period of tobacco related activity, there is no significant difference in the hours of child work in families growing tobacco, 4hrs and those not growing tobacco, 3.7 hrs (Table 15 v9).

In the low period of tobacco related activity 10% of child work time is dedicated to tobacco related activities, for two agricultural periods, for families growing tobacco or not growing tobacco (Table 17 v9). It should be noted that within non tobacco growing families the number of children involved in tobacco related tasks was not directly captured. It is however possible, from other questions, to estimate this number as very low. Hence, tobacco related work is essentially done by children from tobacco growing families. In low tobacco activity period, boys dedicate 15.3% of their child work time to tobacco related activities compared to 4.6% dedicated by girls (Table 17 v9). For families growing tobacco, boys dedicate 30.5% of their child work time to tobacco related activities compared to girls' 9.2% (Table 17 v9)..

The analysis reveals that children involved in tobacco related agricultural activities, work longer hours than their counterparts in non- tobacco related work. This further underscores the fact that tobacco work is very labour intensive and is a major driver behind children getting involved in child labour. However, in terms of the seasonal demand for tobacco related child labour it appears that given the labour demanding nature of tobacco, the high tobacco activity period pushes boys and girls into child labour equally. This in conjunction with household work hour's shows that females are relatively worst affected in child labour working equally with males in tobacco activities despite being more involved in household work. During week days children do work, on average more than 2.5 and 4 hours respectively for both age groups. This means that the number of weekly hours should exceed by quite a lot the "limit" of 14 respectively 28 hours. Unfortunately, the study does not provide the true average number of weekly hours since weekend hours were not investigated.'

3.4.3 Hazardous work

Hazardous work refers to work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is performed, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (ILO, 2002d, page 20). Recommendation No. 190 specifies that particular consideration should be given to: work that exposes children to physical, psychological, or sexual abuse; work underground, under water, at dangerous heights, and in confined spaces; work with dangerous machinery, equipment, and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads; work in an unhealthy environment which may, for example, expose children to hazardous substances, agents or processes, or to temperatures, noise levels, or vibrations damaging to their health; and work under particularly difficult conditions such as work for long hours or during the night, or work where the child is unreasonably confined to the premises of the employer.

3.4.3.1 Definitions

For this study the working definition that was employed to considered children as being in ‘worst forms’ of labour was determined on the basis of the following;

- ✓ children 6-17y working \geq 43 hours a week,
- ✓ or taking part in activities clearly defined by Convention 182,
- ✓ or involved in hazardous occupations defined in ILO’s or the country’s list,
- ✓ or exposed to hazardous processes in tobacco or other activities,
- ✓ or whose work results in significant injuries or illnesses, or is considered too heavy.

3.4.3.2 Children in hazardous work

In general 24.2% (refer to Table 3 below, Table 24 v9) of children 6-17y are exposed to worst forms of child labour with no marked difference between boys 24.8% and girls 23.6% (Table 24 v9). Children in tobacco growing families are twice as much exposed to worst forms of child labour, 32.2% (Table 24 v 9) as those in families not growing tobacco, 16.1%, (Table 24 v9). 11.6% children 6-17y are exposed to heavy work likely to cause injury or illness, with 13.9% exposed to hazardous occupations or processes, and 1% exposed to work more than 43hrs a week. (table 24 v9). In tobacco growing families 23.6% of the 6-14y olds (table 25 v 9) are exposed to the application of chemicals (fertilizers, pesticides, etc).

Table 3: Percentage of Children in Worst forms of Child Labour (Table 24 v9)

Children 6-17 years	<i>All</i>	<i>Age group</i>			<i>Sex</i>	
	<i>Overall</i>	<i>6-11y</i>	<i>12-14y</i>	<i>15-17y</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
	Exposed to worst forms of labour³					
All families	24.2	18.1	31.8	32.0	24.8	23.6
Families growing tobacco	32.2	25.1	37.0	45.3	33.8	30.6
Families not growing tobacco	16.1	11.8	25.4	17.3	15.5	16.6
	Exposed to specific types of worst forms of labour					
Working \geq 43 hours per week	1.0	0.6	1.6	1.6	1.1	0.9
Heavy work or causing injuries or illnesses	11.6	9.3	17.5	10.0	11.6	11.7
Hazardous occupations or processes	13.9	9.1	18.2	22.8	15.0	12.8

This table carries information on ‘hazardous occupations and processes’ (application of chemicals only) available only for tobacco growing families”.

The table above should be interpreted with caution since information on ‘hazardous occupations and processes’ (in this case the application of chemicals) were available only for tobacco growing families. While it is clear that tobacco growing present a significant level of hazards to children through the application of chemicals, it is not known how frequent such an exposure in non-tobacco agriculture is. As the application of chemicals in agriculture was only investigated for tobacco crop, the total percentage of children involved in hazardous occupations or process is most probably higher in reality than the 13.9% .If, for tobacco

growing families, we subtract the percentage of children exposed to hazardous occupations from the overall percentage of children in worst forms of child labour, we find that the differences between tobacco growing and non-tobacco growing families are minimal.”

Other research has shown that estate managers or tenancy conditions force tenants to use their children in order to meet production targets¹². Further, the involvement of children in tobacco production is extensive. While not technically or formally employed, children work alongside their parents in all parts of the tobacco farming including in the use of pesticides and other dangerous tasks. In some instances even some under-five children reported having done some work in the past week and season. Children above nine years of age are heavily involved in tasks like clearing fields, making nursery beds and watering nurseries, picking and transporting tobacco. The Malawi Initial Report on the Convention on the Rights of a Child to the UN reported widespread involvement of children in hazardous and detrimental work in the tobacco sectors. At least 20 percent of children below 15 years of age were reported by their (tenant) parents to be working on the tobacco estates¹³. Few tobacco workers leave the tobacco sector. They have nowhere else to go. They do, however, attempt to find other *estates* as noted by the relatively high turnover among tenants. The high turnover also affects education of their children. Failure in class due to frequent movements breeds school dropouts amongst tenants’ children.

3.4.4 Children in remunerated activities

According to the Malawi Child Labour Survey of 2002, children can work in their homes (cf chapter 3.3) without being considered to be in child labour as long as they are not paid either in cash or in kind, and they are not harmed or prevented from going to school.

3.4.4.1 Definitions

In this study children 6-14y engaged in remunerated activities (in cash or in kind) for a period of 10 days or more during the previous 6 months in the project’s catchment area were considered to be in child labour.

3.4.4.2 Children 6-14y engaged in remunerated activities (in cash or in kind)

According to the statistics, 24.4% of children are in remunerated work activities (refer to Table 4 below, Table 20 v9). 35.1% of children in the age group of 12-14y are in remunerated activities. This is consistent with earlier results that show children in the age group of 12-14y are more susceptible to child labour (Table 20 v9). The incidence of paid work is the same between tobacco growing families and in non tobacco growing families.

The study is consistent with other surveys done in Malawi that showed children work in order to supplement household incomes. For instance, according to the Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment (MPVA)¹⁴, about 35% of children between 5 years and 14 years were found working; 3% for non-household members on piece work (*ganyu*), 4% in domestic work and 28% on family farm/business. More came from poor households (37%) than non-poor households (32%). Furthermore, according to the ILO/IPEC child labour baseline survey conducted in 2002 in Kasungu, Mchinji, Mzimba and Mangochi districts, 38% of the

¹² Fafo Estate Tobacco Survey of 1998 as reported in Tørres, L. 2000 (ed). The Smoking Business: Tobacco Tenants and Child labour in Malawi. Fafo Report 339.

¹³ UNICEF. 2002. Strengthening the fight against child in Malawi 2002-2004. Country programme

¹⁴ GoM/WB. 2006. Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment: Investing in our future. This is a derivative of NSO’s Second Integrated Household Survey conducted in 2004/5.

children in the age group 5 to 17 years were reported working in the previous week prior to the survey. In terms of work for pay in the twelve months prior to the survey, 22% of the children had worked for pay.

Table 4: Percentage of children engaged in remunerated activities (Table 20 v9)

Children 6-14y	<i>All</i>	<i>Age group</i>		<i>Sex</i>	
	<i>Overall</i>	<i>6-11y</i>	<i>12-14y</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
All families	24.4	19.2	35.1	23.3	25.6
Families growing tobacco	25.3	20.3	34.4	23.6	27.1
Families not growing tobacco	23.5	18.3	36.1	22.9	24.1

Most of the children had worked on *ganyu* basis as 59% of them that worked were in school. The national child labour survey carried out in 2002/3 found that 29% of the children between 5 and 17 years were economically active. This is a typical trend in amongst agricultural communities in Malawi to involve children in piece work (*ganyu*) as a coping mechanism during lean periods.

Poverty has been identified in many parts of the world as one of the major causes of child labour. Malawi happens to be among the poorest nations of the world and has experienced a period of very poor economic growth since the early 80s. Poverty levels are high¹⁵ (over 50%) and have remained fairly constant between 1998 and 2005. The rate insignificantly dropped from 54% in 1998 to 52% in 2005 with the ultra poverty rate also slightly dropping from 23% and 22% during the same period. Most of the poverty was found to be caused by limited livelihood sources and pervasive risks and vulnerability to shocks¹⁶. Regarding the livelihood sources, Malawi is heavily dependent on agriculture; the majority of the population derive its livelihoods from the agriculture sector either as subsistence farmers or wage labourers in large-scale farms or households. In a survey on children working on the streets within the child labour survey of 2002, 82% percent of the children indicated that they worked because their parents were poor¹⁷. These children have to work in order to supplement their parents' earnings or take care of their own personal needs. The need for income is among the prime factors considered by families when they choose between school and work for their children.

3.4.5 Effect of child labour on education

Several conventions define child labour as any work that impinges on a child's learning.

3.4.5.1 Definitions

¹⁵ Poverty top line indicator being living below US\$1 per day (for extreme poverty)

¹⁶ Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessments: Investing in our future, June 2006

¹⁷ Malawi National Child Labour Survey, February 2002, NSO

In this study children 6-14y who were out of school because of work or who, because of work, missed 6 or more days of school, or 3 school days in a row, during the last 3 months of school in the project's catchment area were considered to be in child labour.

3.4.5.2 Children 6-14y whose schooling is affected by child labour

8.2% of children were affected by child labour in terms of schooling (Table 21 v9). 12-14y age group still comes the most worst affected (12.1%Table 21 v9). Illness is the reason given by 80.5% of the children for being absent from school (Table 23 v9). 51.9% of parents whom child is not at school said their children are either too young or too old to be in school whilst 16.1% said their children were out of school because of lack of school materials like uniforms, shoes and money for fees. The point estimate of children 6-14y whose schooling is affected (because out of school or irregular) by child labour is higher for tobacco growing families (10.1%) than it is for non-tobacco growing families (6.3%). However, the confidence intervals overlap and a larger sample size would be required to provide clear evidence of a difference at the population level. As per the statistics of this particular baseline, the indication is that 89.5% of children were going to school at the time of the survey in school (Table 39 v9).

There is no difference in school-going rates between tobacco growing and non-tobacco growing households (Table 39 v9). 70.4% of 6-17y children who registered in the 2005 school year both in primary and secondary school, graduated to the next level at the end of the school year (Table 40 v9). There is no significant difference in graduation to the next level on whether the family grows or does not grow tobacco (Table 40 v9). 91.4% of 6-17y children who registered in 2005 school year both in primary and secondary school at certificate level completed and obtained the certificate, with no difference in completion rates between boys and girls (Table 40 v9).

The survey data indicate that the project area enrolment rate and repetition rate is consistent with the national estimates for rural areas. The results show that education of children 6-14y in the impact area was affected by being involved in child labour. Education is the most viable alternative to child labour. While education is free in Malawi there are many children who do not go to school in the country. Although close to 90% of children aged 6 -13 are enrolled in school in both rural and urban areas, the retention rates are very low. The drop-out and repetition rates are generally higher in the rural areas than urban areas. It is estimated that as many as 50% of the children enrolled in standard one drop out or repeat by standard 2¹⁸. The 2002 DHS EdData¹⁹ found that the dropout rate between Standards 1 and 2 was 8% for boys and 9% for girls and the drop out rate for Standard 8 was 20% for boys and 21% for girls. It was also found that only 60% of children enrolled in Standard 1 were expected to reach Standard 5 and only 39% Standard 8. According to MPVA, about 25% of school age children from poor households do not enrol in primary education.

Further, children who are out of school cite poverty and pressure from parents as the main reasons why they dropped out of school. Other reasons given include low quality of the school environment in the form of lack of teachers, instructional materials, classrooms and sanitation facilities. Many of the existing facilities, especially in the rural areas are dilapidated and extremely overcrowded.

According to Ministry of Education reports the teacher/pupil ratio has been improving though it still stands at above 1:80 in many schools. The same reports indicate that the situation is

¹⁸ GoM/UNICEF 2002-2006 Country Programme of Cooperation, Mid-term Review 2004.

¹⁹ Reported in Malawi Poverty and Vulnerability Assessments: Investing in our future, June 2006

made even worse by the HIV/AIDS pandemic as sickness of teachers reduces teachers and pupils contact and death of teachers increases pupil teacher ratios. Further, Government has been forced to recruit untrained teachers to cover for the gaps created by increased enrolment and teacher attrition. Coupled with this is the Government's failure to provide adequate teaching and learning materials. This has led to a drastic fall of education standards. Considering all these factors, children feel that the kind of education they are receiving is not likely to improve their future and a good proportion of them therefore drop out and take child labour as an alternative.

3.4.6 General demographic findings

This section depicts the major demographic characteristics of the households in the impact area. It looks at household health characteristics, water and sanitation, food security, and income levels.

3.4.6.1 Household characteristics

16.2% (Table 30 v9) of children 6-17y overall are orphans of any type. 86% (Table 30 v9) of children 6-17y are living with at least one parent. 14% (Table 30 v9) of the non-orphans children are living away from both parents. This percentage increases to 16.8% for the 12-14y age group. The household characteristics indicate that there is a considerable high number of orphans in the project area which is consistent with the national trend. The HIV and AIDS pandemic has become the primary cause for the increasing number of orphans in Malawi. The 14% HIV prevalence rate for individuals aged 15-49 years translates to about 760,000 adults currently infected by the virus and 58% of these are women. It is estimated that there are 500,000 orphans due to AIDS. With limited support from the extended family system, orphans take on household responsibilities and have to engage in economic activities irrespective of their age. The Malawi Population and Housing Census Analytical Report of 1998 shows that there were 4% young female household heads compared to 2% young male heads of households.

There is not a significant difference on the use of child labour in relation to the level (rich/poor) of the asset holding status of the families: The statistics indicate that 56.1% (Table 33 v9) children in asset rich households are in child labour, while 56% (Table 33 v9) of children in asset poor households are in child labour. Tobacco growing household are more often categorized as asset rich 40.2% (Table 34 v9) as compared to non-tobacco growing families 21.4% (Table 34 v9).

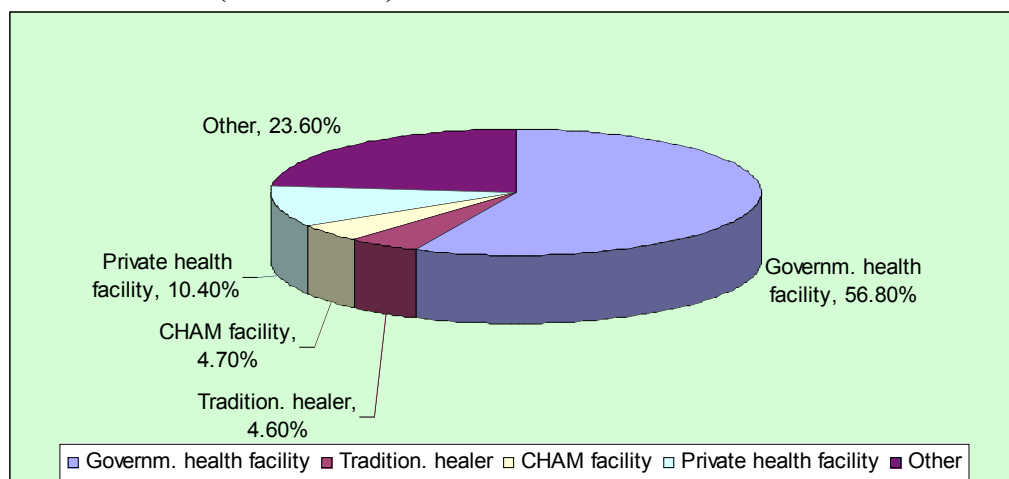
From the statistics it can be deduced that child labour is poverty driven from the supply side where poor families push their children into child labour to supplement household incomes and food needs. From the demand side well-to-do families are in the asset rich and medium categories (including those that are in tobacco production) use their own children and other children to supplement the labour needs of commercial crops like tobacco which are often labour intensive.

3.4.6.2 Household health status

The general health situation for the area is not very promising. 80.5% of children indicated that various illnesses were a reason for being absent from school. 28.9% of all children 6-17y indicated they had been sick in the past two weeks (Table 2xb v 5). 56.8% (Table 3xa v5) of households have had a sick member in the past two weeks and sought treatment from government health facility. 95.9% (Table 3xb v5) of children 1-4y received at least one dose of any vaccine. 92.7% (Table 37 v9) of children 6-17y have access to sanitation facilities and

are not reluctant to use them. 90.6% (Table 37 v9) of all families have access to sanitation facilities. The families that indicated had a sick member indicated that they sourced treatment from the institutions as depicted in the chart below.

Figure 3. Main source of treatment for households with a sick member in the past two weeks that sought treatment from specific service providers (Table 3xa v5)



From this Figure 3 it is apparently clear that most households seek treatment from Government health facilities (56.8%), about 10.4% from other private health facilities and 4.7% from Christian Health service providers.

From an earlier study that was done by TECS in 2006²⁰, it is indeed apparent that the health conditions prevailing in the area are not conducive for child development and affects their schooling adversely. For instance most Government hospitals do not have a steady supply of basic medicines, have inadequate staffs and the service standards are below par. Secondly the distances to most health services are far in between with distances averaging 20km to the next health service being not uncommon.

3.4.6.3 Household incomes

On average, every household has an income of MK26,240 (US\$187) (Table 6xa v5). Male headed households have an average household income of MK29,002 (US\$207) (Table 6xa v5). Female headed households have an average household income of MK7,601(US\$54).Male headed households have significantly higher incomes than female headed households. Families growing tobacco have an average household income of MK41,970, (US\$300) with male headed household averaging MK44,395 (US\$317) and female headed households averaging MK9,416. (US\$67) (Table 6xa v5)

Families not growing tobacco have an average household income of MK12,362, (US\$88) with male headed household averaging MK13,555 (US\$96) and female headed households averaging MK6,990. (US\$50)(Table 6xa v5).Main source of income is crop sales yielding MK17,592. (US\$126) (Table 6xa v5). Mean tobacco production (number of bales) for families growing tobacco is 14.4 (Table 10xb v5). Mean tobacco income is MK8,057 (US\$58) for families growing tobacco. These figure represent a general trend, but the detailed results should be interpreted with caution since it is often difficult for the families to precisely estimate monetary income and expenditure. 40% of the families for instance declared lower expenditure than incomes.

²⁰ ICLEP II Baseline Scoping Exercise February 2006.

On average 26.1% of children in all families might miss school to search for food, with no marked difference between tobacco growing families, 30.1% (Table 10xb v5) and non-tobacco growing families 22.8% (Table 10xb v5). 43.2% of households work on ganyu terms to get money to buy food as a coping strategy when it runs out of own food production.

Kasungu and Dowa are among the richest districts in the country, in terms of income and consumption levels. On the basis of the 2005 poverty profile, the poverty incidence was 45% for Kasungu and 37% for Dowa (GOM/WB 2005). In fact, in terms of consumption levels, Dowa is the richest rural district and Kasungu is the third richest and most of the income in the project area is derived from crop sales. Other studies done in the impact area, show that the three main sources of income for the project area include crop sales, small businesses and on-farm piece work (*ganyu*). Note that in terms of earning power, salaried farm employment follows crop sales. Apart from crop sales (mostly tobacco), most of the income sources have limited income earning potential for the households due to several barriers to entry. Even the crop sales favour very few progressive smallholders. For example, the 65% of the income from crop sales was generated by 2% of the households (or 4% of the households that earned income from crop sales). Also note diversity of *ganyu*. *Ganyu* provides both low and high income depending on the type of work. This is true for both farm and off-farm *ganyu*. The main types of crops grown in the project area include hybrid maize (grown by 67% of the households, groundnuts (55%), local maize (53%), tobacco (45%) and Soya beans (21%). Of these, tobacco is the main income earner.

The high income level does not necessarily imply low incidence of child labour. This analysis reveals that poverty has two sides to it. In some households, poverty forces children to leave their households and seek employment elsewhere. It is also seen that some well-off households force their children into work. The latter exists because the sources of income for the well-off households is generally agricultural and labour demands force households to need extra hands at home while they are in the field or in the household farm even when school is in session. Thus poverty is not the whole story as far as child labour is concerned.

Tørres et al found that poverty in the tobacco sector is widespread and profound and women and children are amongst the most vulnerable of a generally vulnerable labour force (Tørres 2000). The situation of tenants and their children is particularly difficult. Most tenants are illiterate and have limited bargaining room to negotiate their final pay. As a result they end up with less than US\$50 for a year's work after all deductions are made (Tørres 2000). In an unpublished study commissioned by the ILO and funded by the ECLT, Faf0 2004 found that more than 60% of the tobacco workers report past season total incomes of MK4,000 or less, i.e. US\$85, reflecting the total invested resources of the whole household²¹. About 40 per cent argue they will have to pay off past season's debts by deductions on present seasons income. About a quarter of tenants had problems getting their pay at the end of the season. Tenants are forced to use children in the field or at home in their quest to get out of poverty. Tørres et al also found that parents use their children to work for food elsewhere while the tenant and the spouse are forced to work on the tobacco crop by their estate management (Tørres 2000). Thus tenants' children are forced out of school because of the demands on their labour by their parents.

²¹ Liv Tørres & Arne Grønningsæter: Child labour, tobacco and AIDS - Faf0 report for the ILO, February 2005 (draft)

3.5 Community perceptions on child labour

Existence of child labour in a community is directly related to the community attitudes and perceptions of the community. How suppliers and employers of child labour describe the causes of child labour provides a clue on their attitudes and perceptions than what they say is their attitudes towards child labour. Again in child labour issues, action speaks louder than words. The household data shows that there is child labour in the project area. Children less than 17 years are employed in commercial and smallholder tobacco farms and other households for pay. Children work alongside their parents in all tobacco production activities including applying chemicals. Further, children are also assigned tasks and works by parents that prevent them from attending school and eventually make them drop out of school. Unless this is viewed by the community as a problem, it is difficult to deal with the prevalent child labour in the project area.

District and community informants and discussants all agree that child labour is prevalent in the project area although some said the practice is declining. In one group, the youth estimated that 80% of the children are engaged as *ganyu* workers. In another group child labour was said to be widespread and increasing:

“Kuno nkhani imeneyi yakhala ngati yongoflikira ... zikuchulukirabe’ meaning child labour is widespread ... and is increasing”. **Kaomba Men FGD.**

According to the Kasungu District Education Manager, *“enrolment goes down in schools close to estates more especially in rainy season as they grow tobacco which demands a lot of labour’*. One women group in Kasungu said that the practice of employing children is declining. The group said that child domestic labour is still being practiced. The view that the prevalence is declining is not supported by figures from the Judiciary in both Kasungu and Dowa. The Kasungu Magistrate said that the judiciary is handling an increasing number cases of child labour in the past four years. In 2004 there were four cases, in 2005 one case, in 2006 six cases and in 2007 six cases. The Dowa magistrate said he handles few cases mainly from Dowa West where there are a lot of tobacco estates. The declining trend of child labour was also confirmed by TA Chakhaza in Katalima who said

“Child labour was rampant especially at Nyagara Estate and other surrounding estates but the percentage has dropped thanks to CILIC, a non governmental organization which is civic educating the masses on the effects of child labour.”

Report of KII with TA Chakhaza

Nevertheless the Police said that the present situation is still not encouraging because it is frequently called upon to assist in a number of cases.

Paradoxically discussants from the project area clearly indicated that they are not in favour of child labour. With the prevalent child labour, it was expected that the discussants would say that child labour is not viewed as a problem because it is child training. All groups stated that they were not in favour of child labour. They see child labour even within the context of the home as ‘killing the future’ of the child. They said that they feel pity when they see children working. As one man put it,

“Zimatiwawa...ndipo zimatepweteka...ife timawamvera chisoni malinga kuti mchitidwewu ukuwaphera tsogolo la anawa. Akanakhala kuti anawa ndi omasuka mwina tsogolo lawo likanakhala labwino... pomulemba ntchitozi akumuphela tsogolo lake.” (It pains us ... and breaks our hearts ... and we feel pity that this practice is destroying the future of the children if the children were free maybe their future would have better ... by employing the child they are destroying its future). **Men FGD TA Kaomba FGD.**

It is as if the discussants distanced themselves from the practice and blamed it on some ‘unguided’ parents and guardians because no informant or group pushed the idea that child work or labour is necessary for child development. The truth is that most of the households in

the community use children beyond what can be termed as child “light work”. There is no reason to believe that the groups of men and women, being part of this community, did not use children in child labour. Thus despite their positive attitudes and perceptions regarding child labour, the community’s actions speak louder than their words; children are sent away to work, children are made to skip school to undertake some household chores, children are let to be employed and children as young as 6 years are used in tobacco production and farm work at the expense of their education and play. What ICLEP II should do is to provide civic education on all shades of child labour.

It was encouraging to note that some women group discussants considered assignment of tasks to children as negative since such provides necessary incentives to children to enter the labour market. They argued that once children see that they are able to perform all the tasks that are required in the household without much help from their parents, they feel they can as well earn money out of their labour. They therefore leave the household and join the farm or domestic labour market. In some cases, they feel they can as well marry and then manage their own households. While this could be considered positive by such households, the discussants argued that the assignment of all tasks to children is simply laziness on the part of the parents and not necessarily the positive socialisation.

The perceptions on why there is child labour also reveal that some justify child labour although the impression was that they abhor it. According to the discussants, there are three major push factors. These include poverty, food insecurity and orphan hood. On poverty, one group said children work to contribute to household income to buy food and clothes. Others said they work to acquire their own herd; a child (herd boy) can be paid a calf after herding cattle for a year. When parents fail to provide for the needs of their children like soap, food and clothes, the children take the matter on their own hands; they work. In one youth group, it was said that some children work to get money to buy fertilizer, pay school fees. Household size was also mentioned as cause in one youth group. The youth group said:

“Pali ena amangobala ana ambiri ndiye ambiriwo amakanika kuti athandize onse pa sukuku ndiye amangoti iwe peza ntchito” literary translated means there are some who bear so many children but most of them fail to send all to school and they end up saying you go and get employed”. Kaomba Youth FGD.

Parental attitude and treatment also contribute to child labour. Some parents are said to allow children to go to work to enable them acquire life skills. Other parents are lazy and leave all the work to the children while others mistreat orphans in their care. Both of these push children into the child labour market. Yet others actually force children in their care to go and work for money. Discussants also mentioned pull factors. Discussants and some estate managers agreed that employers prefer children because certain tasks are considered to be done better by children. This is particularly true for some tobacco production activities like sewing leaves. It is clear that child labour has a place in a number of practices, activities and norms in the project area.

Child work degenerates into child labour when simple household chores like collecting water takes too long and consumes a child’s school and play time. Further, poor water and sanitation indirectly causes child labour if household members especially when parents become too ill and require children to take up the responsibility of taking care of them or the household or both. Source of water in this case is one such socio-economic infrastructure intricately linked to child labour is drawing of water for household use.

The issues of water and sanitation were discussed in key informant interviews with traditional leaders as well as focus group discussions with teachers, men and women. Results from these shows that sources of potable water are few in both Katalima and Suza education zones. Further, some schools have no boreholes. Demand for water outstrips the supply. Where boreholes are available the distances are not much. The longest distance mentioned was 2 kilometres. The problem is not distances but number of people at the boreholes. People

take time to draw potable water. Consequently people supplement borehole water with well water. This leads to high incidence of diarrhoea, especially during the rainy season.

The relationship between water sources and child labour comes from various angles. The first angle is that any work, no matter how light, that makes a child fail to attend school is child labour. Secondly, any activity heavy or dangerous to a child qualifies as child labour. According to discussants in most sites, school going children are rarely asked to fetch water in the morning when they are supposed to go to school. However, they mentioned cases where some children are still sent to fetch water. Due to the long queues these children go to school late and consequently drop out of school due to poor results. Only 70% of children pass from one grade to the next (table 40 v9). As some group put it:

“... sometimes they are told to draw water in the morning. This could sometimes delay them to prepare to go to school in time and they are sometimes sent back from school. This affects their performance in class badly in that it goes lower and lower. This means that there is a high chance of repeating classes. A participant mentioned that repetition of classes’ leads to dropping out of students from school.” **Men FGD – Phanga School villages (Suza)**

Other children absent themselves from school when they know they would be late for fear of being punished. This becomes child labour but more importantly affects school performance. One form of child labour mentioned was that when water sources are far or there are long queues at the water source, those who draw water are forced to use the biggest bucket they have to maximise the quantity of water for their turn. Since it is mostly children who are sent to draw water, these children are forced to use the big buckets which are heavier than their size. As one key informant put it:

“Access to water facilities really contribute to child labour as when a water source is very far parents usually give a big bucket to the children so that the only trip they can manage they should draw enough water. This is one form of child labour as the children are given tasks that are not equivalent to their age. ‘Kumadzi kukhala kutali ana amapatsidwa chindowa chachikulu ndicholinga choti paulendo umodzi womwe angayende atunge madzi ambiri’.” **KII with TA Chakhaza**

Sanitation was linked to child labour through admissions in hospitals. It was mentioned that once a family member is admitted in hospital usually the woman of the households takes care of the sick in hospital. This leaves only children to take care of the household. Children who are left with this responsibility usually fail to go to school. Thus this becomes another form of child labour brought about by sanitation problem. As the TA put it:

“where there is sanitation problems, it comes together with water borne diseases which when it has attacked one the parents spend their time with the sick person in hospital leaving all the work the parent could have been doing to the children and this is child labour.” **KII with TA Chakhaza**

Thus water and sanitation is linked to child labour through failure to go to school and carrying buckets too heavy for a child’s capability. The absenteeism comes about due to being late to go school after drawing water in the morning and taking care of the sick or household. Children are asked to use big buckets to maximise the quantity of water drawn in one trip because of the long queues associated with drawing water. ICLEP II should consider providing more potable water in the project area as part of its campaign to reduce child labour. The design of such an activity should be done in consultations of the community in order to come up with appropriate strategies.

4. Conclusions and Recommendations

According to ILO²² there are several factors affecting child labour which are either internal or external to the household. Some factors which affect the extent and nature of child labour are:

- Income and wealth
- Income volatility
- Debt
- Family size and fertility
- Family structure and migration
- Parental perception, attitudes and aspirations
- Schools' access, relevance, quality and cost
- Production and demand for labour
- Social, economic and contextual factors

The basic take-off factor for income and wealth in perpetrating child labour is that households with no sufficient income most often send children to work to supplement family income or his/her fellow siblings. Such children work long hours being deprived of education despite basic education being free in Malawi. Tenant farmers in tobacco estates often migrate from non- or low-tobacco growing areas with school-going children raised under tenancy conditions likely to follow the generational “norm” of opting for farming to going to school. Such is likely the case because of tenant parent’s perception/attitudes of valuing farming vis-à-vis the child’s education mainly because education as an investment its returns are not immediately perceived.

Due to high levels of poverty in Malawi, most farmers obtain farm inputs on credit from micro-finance institutions recovered through their harvests. This pushes farmers into debts whose benefits highly depends on rain fed agricultural harvests. Most farmers face a problem of huge income volatility resorting to sending children to work both around and/or away from the household, to pool resources to minimize the income risk for servicing debt and food insecurity.

Based on the results of the baseline survey, the following are the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the baseline survey analysis.

1 There is child labour of various forms in the project area covering Suza and Katalima Education zones. The formal child labour defined by the Employment Act exists in the area. Children below the age of 15 years are employed temporarily as well as permanently. More than half the children 6-17y is involved in an activity indicative of child labour. Overall these children work long hours either per day or per week. Apart from this, children are assigned tasks to an extent that they fail to go to school. Children are also engaged in various agricultural production activities which involve use of hazardous materials like sharp objects, fertilizers and chemical application, in both within and outside their household.

The scope of ICLEP II should cover all these shades of child labour. It is not a secret that child labour exists in the area. All stakeholders acknowledge child labour as a problem. This is a good entry point for the programme. One way of reducing time children spend working is

²² Robert Jensen, “Development of Indicators for Child Labour” ILO/IPEC, www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/simpoc/jensen/contentpr.htm#03 08 December 2004 in Baseline Study on the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Parika, Guyana. Bureau of Statistics, Sept-Dec 2004

to encourage children to stay longer in school. The project should consider introducing activities that keep children in school for longer hours, including weekends. In addition the project activities should develop messages that indicate the allowable working hours for children in various age categories and the prohibition of hazardous work conditions.

2 In any child's education absenteeism highly affects the end product. According to the children, illnesses in Suza and Katalima Education Zones seem to be the most contributing factor to children missing school days. The need to work (either remunerated work activities or household work) is another contributing factor. More than half of the parents suggest the main reason for children dropping out of school is that children are too young to be in school at a tender age, and by the time they need to go to school they would be too old. Due to late entry into the education system children drop out even before they acquire necessary skills including the ability to read. However other parents feel that lack of school material, uniforms, shoes, and school fees is another major contributing factor to children dropping out of school. Poverty and pressure from parents, lack of teaching and learning materials, lack of teachers, classrooms, and sanitation facilities are also other factors causing children drop out of school.

This lack of essential support services to child's education could be inferred from the fact that more than half the Malawi population lives below the poverty line with about 22 percent being ultra poor. Poverty is also a common correlate of child labour. Poor households are associated with permitting children to go away from the household to get employed, mostly done as part of a survival strategy.

Besides poverty being a major factor contributing to child labour, the study also noted that because tobacco growing is highly seasonal and intensive work, households engage their own children and the services of other children for tobacco production. To mitigate this problem of child labour, ICLEP II will provide support for alternative income generating opportunities for poor households, such as improved maize production, pig rearing, to name a few, in order to augment family incomes so that families will keep their children in school.

It is also imperative that the school environment be improved for the sake of children who are not sure whether to continue with education or not. CRECCOM should, therefore, intensify the work it started under ICLEP I to deal with the school environment problems. Further, Government should consider introducing compulsory primary education. That would not only put pressure on parents to ensure that their children are in school but also on Government itself to ensure that the children have decent learning environment. Compulsory education, if legislated, would go along way in shaking children who have the option of dropping out of school; wake up parents who economically exploit their children and sober government that feels that free primary education will reduce the high illiteracy in the country.

3 With little or insufficient support from extended families, and at times being mistreated and forced, orphans are said to seek employment as a coping strategy. Indeed, the orphans that were found in the households were worse off in terms of being assigned work that made them fail to go to school and being employed by someone else outside their households. ICLEP II should focus on providing an environment to orphans that would allow them pursue their education without being forced to join the labour market too early.

4 Just like the high levels of knowledge of HIV and AIDS, the knowledge of the evils of child labour by all stakeholders from the community to the district levels does not translate into serious action. The project area seems to have been sensitised on child labour and its negative effects. However, many households perpetuate child labour in various ways. It is

possible that the dosage of civic education the communities received was not accompanied by the setting up of appropriate community structures to monitor child labour on daily basis. Until communities are committed to combat child labour it would be difficult for outsiders to tackle it. ICLEP II should therefore consider increasing the level of sensitisation as well as setting up community structures to monitor child labour.

Project activities should be formulated to specifically target communities with messages aimed at changing cultural practices that encourage early induction of children into work activities. 15-17y age group should be at least the minimum age group for induction into work activities. Younger age groups especially 12 -14y and 6 -11y old children are the worst affected in child labour and need project interventions aimed at targeting these age groups.

5 From the FGDs and KII, estates, household farms and rich-households are the major employers of children. The availability of these provides a ready market for child labour. Likewise, poor school environment and lack of school materials also provide a pool of child labour made up of out-of-school children. The Employment Act is a legal instrument that can be used to deal with engagement of children by estates. However, labour inspections are required if the law is to be implemented. Labour inspectors generally lack transport to effect labour inspections.

At a minimum ICLEP II should consider advocating with the governmental authorities for a more efficient and equipped labour inspectorate. A heavy dosage of civic education is required to deal with household employment of children for domestic as well as farm work. Clear IEC messages should also be developed detailing the list of worst forms or hazardous work and properly disseminated to the communities. ICLEP has to participate into the national debate aiming at defining the list of hazardous tasks.

6 The project area has limited sources of potable water. The high prevalence of water-borne diseases in the area points to the absence of potable water. The congestion at potable water sources is a cause for concern as children are forced to be late for or skip school in order to collect water in the morning. Further, children are more likely to skip school as they care for the households in the absence of the ill parents or care for the ill parents themselves. ICLEP II should continue the provision of potable water as was the case with ICLEP I. However, it should revisit the acceptability of swallow wells. Provision of these potable water sources should go hand in hand with provision of accessible and improved health services to minimize incidences of illnesses which were indicted by the children as the major factor of school absenteeism.

7 The recommendations given by community and district level stakeholders provide a good basis for a comprehensive integrated child labour programme. Without taking all the recommendations, ICLEP II should consider the following:

- Sensitize the national/local authorities on the importance of increasing the number of classes. In specific cases the project could consider supporting the rehabilitation/construction of school classes to reduce distances between the villages and the school
- Involve all stakeholders in the design of its programme
- Provide targeted civic education to children, households, communities and employers
- Consider involving and training CBOs for community-level activities like child labour monitoring
- Provide bursaries to some of the poor children in the project area

ICLEP II ECLT standard indicators

Descriptor	Standard indicators (indicators in bold are the core indicators; indicators with an * should be calculated only if the sample size is sufficient)	Baseline result (Indicator)
Output 1	<p>Indicators of impact:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Percentage of children 6-11y currently in any type of work, working \geq 14 hours a week, or of children 12-14y working \geq 14 hours a week, or of training or studying children 15-17y working \geq 28 hours a week, or of non-training and non-studying children 15-17y working \geq 43 hours a week in the project's catchment area. 2. Percentage of children 6-11y currently in any type of work except family household work or family farming (excluding predominantly commercial farming), or of children 6-11y in family household work or family farming working \geq 2.5 hours a day, or of children 12-14y working \geq 2.5 hours a day, or of training or studying children 15-17y working \geq 4 hours a day, or of non-training and non-studying children 15-17y working \geq 43 hours a week in the project's catchment area. 3. Mean length of daily work time for children in general, and for children in any activity indicative of child labour in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school or worst forms of labour. 4. Same as indicator (3) with respect to week days and weekend days. 5. * Percentage of child work time dedicated to tobacco related activities. 6. * Same as indicators (1 to 5) by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex. 	<p>Table 1 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 6-17yrs 42% working long hours ➤ 6-11yrs 44% working long hours ➤ 12-14yrs 59% working long hours ➤ 15- 17yrs 10% working long hours <p>Table 2 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 6-17yrs 56% working long hours ➤ 6-11yrs 53% working long hours ➤ 12-14yrs 72% working long hours ➤ 15- 17yrs 40% working long hours <p>Table 11v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Statistics not available <p>Table 15v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mean length of working hours on weekdays 3.9 hrs <p>Table 16 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mean length of working hours on weekends statistics not available <p>Table 17 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 10% child work time dedicated to tobacco related activities. <p>Table 17 v9 child work time dedicated to tobacco related activities.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 6-17yrs 10% ➤ 6-11yrs 7% ➤ 12-14yrs 13% ➤ 15- 17yrs 15% ➤ Male 15%

	<p>7. Same as indicators (1 & 6) by type of work: in the household, in agriculture (tobacco related and not tobacco related) and other.</p> <p>8. Same as indicators (1 to 7) for the most recent period of high tobacco related activity (or low activity if survey done during high activity).</p> <p>9. Same as indicators (1 to 0) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Female 5% <p>Table 1 & 2 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Household work 26% per week ➤ Agricultural work tobacco related 8% per week ➤ Agricultural work non - tobacco related 2% per week ➤ Other kind of work 6% per week <p>Table 7 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 29% working long hours in high tobacco activity period in tobacco related work per day for all families <p>Table 8 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 37% working long hours in high tobacco activity period in tobacco related work per week for families growing tobacco <p>Table 9 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 46% working long hours in high tobacco activity period in tobacco related work per day for tobacco growing families <p>Table 3 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 43% of 6-17y working long hours per week in tobacco growing families in the low tobacco period ➤ 41% of 6-17y working long hours per week in non – tobacco growing families in the low tobacco period <p>Table 4 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 58% of 6-17y working long hours per day in tobacco growing families in the low tobacco period ➤ 53% of 6-17y working long hours per day in non – tobacco growing families in the low tobacco period <p>Table 8 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 36% of 6-17y living in tobacco growing families working long hours per week in the tobacco high season doing tobacco related agricultural work <p>Table 9 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 46% of 6-17y living in tobacco growing families working long hours per week in the tobacco high season doing tobacco related agricultural work <p>Table 12 v9</p>
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	<p>10. Same as indicators (1, 3 to 0) for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>11. Percentage of children 6-14y engaged at any time in predominantly commercial farming activities during the previous 6 months in the project's catchment area.</p> <p>12. Percentage of children 6-14y engaged in remunerated activities (in cash or in kind) for a period of 10 days or more during the previous 6 months in the project's catchment area.</p> <p>13. * Same as indicator (3.4.4.2) by age groups 6-11y and 12-14y, and by sex.</p> <p>14. Same as indicators (3.4.4.2 & 13) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Mean length of daily work time during the week for children living in tobacco growing families is 3.5 hours ➤ Mean length of daily work time during the week for children living in non tobacco growing families is 3.2 hours <p>Table 17 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 10% of children time is dedicated to tobacco growing for all families during the low tobacco season ➤ 20% of children time is dedicated to tobacco growing for tobacco growing families during the low tobacco season <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Tables not available <p>Table 20 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 24% of children 6 -14y are in remunerated activities <p>Table 20 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 19% 6-11y are in remunerated activities ➤ 35% 12 -14y are in remunerated activities ➤ 23% male children are in remunerated activities ➤ 26% female children are in remunerated activities <p>Table 20 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 25% of children 6-14y in tobacco growing families are in remunerated activities ➤ 24% of children 6-14y in non tobacco growing families are in
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	<p>15. Percentage of children 6-14y out of school because of work or who, because of work, missed 6 or more days of school, or 3 school days in a row, during the last 3 months of school in the project's catchment area.</p> <p>16. * Same as indicator (0) by age groups 6-11y and 12-14y, and by sex.</p> <p>17. Same as indicators (0 & 16) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>18. Percentage of children 6-17y exposed at any time to worst forms of labour during the previous 6 months in the project's catchment area, for activities related or not to tobacco. Will be considered as being in 'worst forms' of labour children 6-17y working \geq 43 hours a week, or taking part in activities clearly defined by Convention 182, or involved in hazardous occupations defined in ILO's or the country's list, or exposed to hazardous processes in tobacco or other activities, or whose work results in significant injuries or illnesses, or is considered too heavy.</p> <p>19. * Same as indicator (18) by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>20. * Same as indicators (18 & 19) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p>	<p>remunerated activities</p> <p>Table 21 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 8% of children schooling is affected by work <p>Table 21 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 6% of 6-11y children schooling is affected by work ➤ 12% of 12-14y children schooling is affected by work ➤ 7% of male children schooling is affected by work ➤ 9% of female children schooling is affected by work <p>Table 21 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 10% of children in tobacco growing families schooling is affected by work ➤ 6% of children in non tobacco growing families schooling is affected by work <p>Table 24 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 24% of children are exposed to worst forms of labour <p>Table 24 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 18% 6-11y are exposed to worst forms of labour ➤ 31% 12-14y are exposed to worst forms of labour ➤ 32% 15 -17y are exposed to worst forms of labour ➤ 25% males are exposed to worst forms of labour ➤ 24% females are exposed to worst forms of labour <p>Table 24 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 32% of children in tobacco growing families are exposed to worst forms of labour
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	<p>21. Percentage of children 6-17y with any activity indicative of child labour in the period of high or low tobacco related activity, in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school or worst forms of labour as stated above in the project's catchment area.</p> <p>22. * Same as indicator (3.4.1.2) by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>23. Same as indicators (3.4.1.2 & 22) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>24. Same as indicators (3.4.1.2 to 23) for the most recent period of high tobacco related activity in comparison with the low period.</p> <p>25. Percentage of children 6-17y with any activity indicative of child labour in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school or worst forms of labour as stated above in the project's catchment area, by type of head of household and by HIV household status, discriminating by gender.</p> <p>26. * Percentage of children 6-17y with any activity indicative of child labour in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school or worst forms of labour as stated above in the project's catchment area, by orphan status, vulnerability status and whereabouts of parents, discriminating by</p>	<p>➤ 16% of children in non tobacco growing families are exposed to worst forms of labour</p> <p>Table 26 v9</p> <p>➤ 57% of children are in child labour</p> <p>Table 26 v9</p> <p>➤ 57% 6-11y are in child labour</p> <p>➤ 71% 12 -14y are in child labour</p> <p>➤ 37% 15 -17y are in child labour</p> <p>➤ 57% males are in child labour</p> <p>➤ 57% females are in child labour</p> <p>Table 26 v9</p> <p>➤ 62% of children in tobacco growing families are in child labour in any period</p> <p>➤ 51% of children in non tobacco growing families are in child labour in any period</p> <p>Table 27 v9</p> <p>➤ Percentage of children in tobacco growing families are in child labour in high tobacco period not available</p> <p>Table 28 v9</p> <p>➤ 57% of children in all types of families with any activity indicative of child labour</p> <p>➤ 57% of children in male headed households with any activity indicative of child labour</p> <p>➤ 56% of children in female headed households with any activity indicative of child labour</p> <p>Table 29 v9</p> <p>➤ 64% of children living with one parent are in child labour</p> <p>➤ 68% of children living away from both parents are in child labour²³</p>
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²³ The 64% and 68% results are unexpected since these two previous categories should comprise all children and the overall percentage of child labour is 57%. This shows how non-response can bias results. For 219 children we

	<p>gender.</p> <p>27. * Percentage of children 6-17y with any activity indicative of child labour in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school or worst forms of labour as stated above in the project's catchment area, by household asset categories, differentiating by gender.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 63% non orphans are in child labour ➤ 70% of orphans of any type are in child labour ➤ 71% of orphans of father are in child labour ➤ 70% of orphans of mother are in child labour ➤ 67% of double orphans are in child labour <p>Table 33 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 56% of children in asset rich households are in child labour ➤ 58% of children in asset medium households are in child labour ➤ 56% of children in asset poor households are in child labour
<p>Objective 2</p>	<p>Indicators of impact:</p> <p>28. Percentage of asset poor, asset medium and asset rich households, and mean and median household reference asset index.</p> <p>29. Percentage of households with at least 20 litres of safe water per capita and per day available at home (safe water from a tap on the public network or from a covered spring or well).</p> <p>30. Mean and median number of litres of safe water per capita and per day available at home.</p> <p>31. Percentage of children 6-17y who have access to sanitation facilities at home (private latrine or toilet) and who are not reluctant to use these facilities.</p> <p>32. Same as indicators (28 to 31) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p>	<p>Table 34 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 24% of all families are asset poor ➤ 46% of all families are asset medium ➤ 30% of all families are asset rich <p>Table 36 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available <p>Table 36 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available <p>Table 37 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 91% of households have sanitation facilities ➤ 92% of children 6-17y have access to sanitation facilities and are willing to use them <p>Table 37 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 91% of families growing and not growing tobacco have sanitation facilities ➤ 93% of children 6-17y living in tobacco growing and non – tobacco growing families have access to sanitation facilities and are willing to use them.

don't know if they leave or not with their parents) ,and in this group has a very different profile (only 22.4% of child labour).

	<p>33. Percentage of students frequenting the primary schools serving the communities in the project catchment area who have access to sanitation facilities at school (latrines or toilets) and are not reluctant to use them, by sex.</p> <p>34. Percentage of students frequenting the primary schools serving the communities in the project catchment area who have essential school equipment (uniform, shoes, required number of notebooks).</p> <p>35. Same as indicator (34) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available
<p>Objective 3 (related to question 3):</p> <p>To increase access to quality education for children at risk of child labour.</p>	<p>Indicators of impact:</p> <p>36. Passing rate of children 6-17y who registered for school during the previous school year in the project's catchment area. Compare results of the households and school surveys.</p> <p>37. * Same as indicator (36) by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>38. Same as indicators (36 & 37) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>39. Completion rate of children 12-17y who registered for school during the previous school year in the project's catchment area and who were eligible for a certificate. Compare results of the households and school surveys.</p> <p>40. * Same as indicator (39) by age groups 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>41. Same as indicators (39 & 40) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p>	<p>Table 40 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 70% passing rate in the project area <p>Table 40 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 64% passing rate for 6-11y ➤ 75% passing rate for 12 -14y ➤ 84% passing rate for 15 -17y <p>Table 40 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 72% of children in tobacco growing families pass ➤ 69% of children in non tobacco growing families pass <p>Table 40 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 91% of children in all families completed <p>Table 40 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 84% of male children completed ➤ 95% of female children completed ➤ Data not available
<p>Strategies in support of objective 1 (related to questions 1, 4, 5 and 6)</p>	<p>Indicators of outcome:</p> <p>42. Number of child labour committees (CLCs)</p> <p>43. Number of CLCs composed uniquely of children.</p> <p>44. Number of CLC members by sex and age group (<18y, 18y+; for the children CLCs: 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available

	<p>45. Percentage of CLCs that met at least 3 times in the last school term.</p> <p>46. Percentage of mixed CLCs with an up-to-date list of children at risk of child labour; number of children listed.</p> <p>47. Percentage of families that have heard (radio, television) messages related to child labour on at least 3 occasions during the last 6 months.</p> <p>48. Percentage of families that have seen written messages (posters) related to child labour on at least 3 occasions during the last 6 months.</p> <p>49. Percentage of families that have participated in meetings during which the issue of child labour was addressed on at least 1 occasion during the last 6 months.</p> <p>50. Number of children that the implementing partner consulted during the last quarter with respect to its activities aimed at reducing child labour.</p> <p>51. Membership of the Steering Committee by sex and age group (<18y, 18y+).</p> <p>52. Number of Steering Committee meetings in the last quarter, and list of those who attended.</p> <p>53. Percentage of children 6-17y with any activity indicative of child labour in terms of weekly length of work, remuneration, absenteeism from school or worst forms of labour, living in families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities, by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>54. Percentage of households affected by HIV/AIDS who benefited directly from relevant project activities.</p> <p>55. Percentage of children 6-17y, vulnerable because of their orphan status or because they live in a households probably affected by HIV/AIDS, living in families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities, by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p>	<p>Table 26 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 56.9% are in child labour ➤ 56.5% 6-11y are in child labour ➤ 71.2% 12 -14y are in child labour ➤ 36.5% 15 -17y are in child labour ➤ 57.3% males are in child labour ➤ 56.5% females are in child labour
<p>Strategies in support of objective 2 (related to questions 2 and 5)</p>	<p>Indicators of outcome:</p> <p>56. Percentage of asset poor, asset medium and asset rich households that have benefited directly from relevant project activities.</p> <p>Health:</p> <p>57. Percentage of injuries in children 6-17y cared for in accordance with recommendations made during health education activities.</p> <p>Water and sanitation:</p> <p>58. Percentage of households with adequate sanitation facilities (private latrine or toilet).</p> <p>59. Same as indicators (57 & 58) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available <p>Table 37 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 90.6% of all families with sanitation facilities ➤ 90.6% of tgf with sanitation facilities ➤ 90.6% of ntgf with sanitation

	<p>project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>60. Percentage of households whose main source of water is safe (safe water= from a tap on the public network or from a covered spring or well).</p> <p>61. Percentage of households with access time to main source of water of half an hour or less (access time= time to go, plus waiting time, plus fill-up time, plus return time).</p> <p>62. Mean and median access time to water for household consumption.</p> <p>63. Percentage of primary schools serving the communities in the project catchment area with functional sanitation facilities (latrines or toilets).</p> <p>64. Percentage of households with sanitation facilities at home (private latrine or toilet).</p> <p>Environment:</p> <p>65. Distribution of households by main type of cooking fuel (firewood, charcoal, etc.).</p> <p>66. Same as indicators (64 & 65) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>67. Mean and median time spent on a daily basis to collect firewood in households whose primary cooking fuel is firewood.</p> <p>68. Mean amount of charcoal purchased by month per capita in households whose primary cooking fuel is charcoal.</p>	<p>facilities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available from version 9 ➤ Data not available from version 9 ➤ Data not available from version 9 ➤ Data not available from v9 <p>Table 37 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 90.6% with sanitation facilities ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available
<p>Strategies related to objective 3 (related to questions 3 and 5)</p>	<p>Indicators of outcome:</p> <p>69. Enrolment rates at primary and secondary level of children 6-17y in the project's catchment area for the current school year (or the previous school year if survey done during school holidays). Compare results of the households and school surveys.</p> <p>70. * Same as indicator (69) by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>71. Same as indicators (69 & 70) for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>72. Drop-out rate of children 6-17y who registered for school during the previous school year in the project's catchment area. Compare results of the households and school surveys.</p> <p>73. Same as indicator (72) by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>74. Same as indicators (72 & 73*) for families growing</p>	<p>Table 39 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 89.5% are in school <p>Table 39 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 90.5% 6 – 11y are enrolled ➤ 92.4% 12 – 14y are enrolled ➤ 82.1% 15 -17y are enrolled ➤ 89.7% of children in tgf are enrolled ➤ 89.3% of children in ntgf are enrolled ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available

	<p>tobacco in comparison with those who do not, and for families who have benefited directly from relevant project activities in comparison with those who have not.</p> <p>75. Completion rate of children 15-17y who registered in vocational training activities promoted by the project during the past 12 months.</p> <p>76. Proportion of children 15-17y having completed vocational training activities promoted by the project during the past 3 to 12 months and who are currently in regular income-producing activity/employment.</p> <p>77. Number of visits of CLC members to households with child labour or drop-outs in the last school term.</p> <p>78. Number of monitoring visits of CLC members to the schools of their area in the last term.</p> <p>79. Mean number of school days missed in the last term by school attending children 6-17y in the area served by the CLC, comparing the overall result with the one for the children listed as being at risk.</p> <p>80. Number of drop-outs in the last school term in the schools of the area served by the CLC, comparing the overall result with the one of for the children listed as being at risk.</p>	<p>Table 40 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 91.4% of children completed ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available
<p>Activities related to all 3 objectives</p>	<p>Indicators of output:</p> <p>81. At the end of each activity planning exercise, a set of indicators of outputs for each planned activity should be developed. Such indicators relate to the direct results of the activity such as: number of individuals trained, number of meetings held, number of interviews given, number of pamphlets distributed, number of committees formed, etc. Many of these indicators can also be related to cost, such as cost per trained individual, etc.</p>	
<p>Target population descriptors; accessory variables</p>	<p>82. Percentage of children 6-17y living with at least one parent or away from both, by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>83. Percentage of non-orphan children 6-17y who live away from both parents because of work.</p> <p>84. Percentage of children 6-17y that are orphans, by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p>	<p>Table 30 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 86% living with one parent ➤ 87.7% 6-11y living with one parent ➤ 83.2% 12 -14y living with one parent ➤ 84.7% 15 -17y living with one parent ➤ 85.4% males living with one parent ➤ 86.6% females living with one parent ➤ 14% living away from both parents ➤ 16.2% are orphans ➤ 15.8% 6-11y are orphans ➤ 18% 12 -14y are orphans ➤ 14.7% 15 -17y are orphans ➤ 14.3% males are orphans ➤ 18.2% females are orphans

	<p>85. Percentage of children 6-17y living in households probably affected by HIV/AIDS, by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>86. Percentage of children 6-17y vulnerable because of their orphan status or because they live in a households probably affected by HIV/AIDS, by age groups 6-11y, 12-14y and 15-17y, and by sex.</p> <p>87. Distribution of most time consuming and second most time consuming household tasks performed by children 6-17y.</p> <p>88. Distribution of the main reasons given by parents for children 6-17y to be engaged in predominantly commercial farming activities, for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not.</p> <p>89. Distribution of the main reasons given by parents for children 6-14y to be out of school, for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not.</p> <p>90. Distribution of the main reasons given by children 6-14y for school absenteeism, for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not.</p> <p>91. Teacher pupil ratio in the primary schools serving the catchment area of the project.</p> <p>92. Percentage of qualified teachers in the primary schools serving the catchment area of the project.</p> <p>93. Distribution of most common hazardous activities in which children 6-17y are engaged, for families growing tobacco in comparison with those who do not.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available ➤ Data not available <p>Table 22 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 44.5% (tgf) & 57.7% (ntgf) children too young ➤ 13.6% (tgf) & 11.6% (ntgf) children lazy to go to school ➤ 15.6% (tgf) & 16.6% (ntgf) lack of school materials ➤ 5.8% tgf children need to work <p>Table 23 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 2% (tgf) & 1.4% (ntgf) children lazy to go to school ➤ 4.4% (tgf) & 5.5% (ntgf) need to work ➤ 77.4% (tgf) & 83.4% (ntgf) were ill <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 1:70 teacher pupil ratio ➤ Data not available <p>Table 25 v9</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ 13.9% applied chemicals (fertilizers, pesticides) in all families ➤ 23.6% in tgf apply chemicals (fertilizers, pesticides) ➤ 4.1% in ntgf apply chemicals (fertilizers, pesticides)
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Appendix 2

ICLEP II Dummy tables Age category breakdown as per international conventions

Dummy tables based on the above key indicators available on demand.

Appendix 2a

ICLEP II Dummy tables Age category breakdown as per Malawi criteria

Dummy tables based on the above key indicators available on demand.