General Secretariat
Social Affairs Sector

Child Labour in the Arab Region

A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis

International Labour Organization

1919-2019

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

Arab Council for Childhood and Development

CHILD LABOUR IN THE ARAB REGION

A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis

First published 2019

Child Labour in the Arab Region: A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis

ILO

ISBN 978-92-2-132350-1 (print)
978-92-2-132351-8 (web pdf)

FAO

ISBN 978-92-5-131278-0

Also available in Arabic:
عمل الاطفال في الدول العربية: دراسة نوعية وكمية
ILO ISBN: 978-92-2-132352-5 (print) 978-92-2-132353-2 (web pdf),
Cairo, 2019. FAO ISBN 978-92-5-131279-7

Printed in Egypt.

Partners

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The Women, Family and Childhood Department is considered the main mechanism responsible for the empowerment and protection of women, ensuring the rights of children, protecting them and improving their circumstances, and empowering families. The Department has three divisions and is concerned with development, particularly sustainable development, and plays the role of Technical Secretariat for the Arab Women's Committee, the Arab Family Committee and the Arab Childhood Committee. It was established by a resolution from the Arab Foreign Ministerial Council in line with other relevant international organizations

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www.arabccd.org

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Foreword

Child labour has long been a feature of economic life in the Arab region, particularly in agriculture, small traditional craft shops, and informal industries such as garment and carpet making, as well as some construction-related activities. Children have worked irrespective of times of conflict, political unrest or economic shocks. However, over the past ten years, during which the region has witnessed high levels of armed conflict resulting in the mass displacement of populations – both within and between countries – the situation has certainly worsened.

Children, society's most vulnerable members, have been particularly affected. They have been increasingly drawn into the worst forms of child labour and face serious and worrying exploitation, abuse and violation of their rights. These forms include the kinds of hazardous work found in agriculture, services, and industry, as well as the multiple dangers associated with working on the streets. The region has witnessed an alarming rise in the direct and indirect use of children in illicit activities, such as prostitution, and in armed conflicts – often under forced or bonded labour conditions.

It is important to note that child labour has already received significant attention in the region in that governments have endorsed relevant international and regional treaties and Conventions, and national strategies and action plans have been developed. However, many warning signs suggest that the region's progress towards eliminating child labour – especially its worst forms – is at risk. This is especially true in the midst of continuing political and social instabilities.

Therefore, there is an urgent and immediate need to safeguard children in the Arab region, whether their serious exploitation is a result of pure economic issues or in combination with conflict and displacement. Arab countries need to realize that child labour poses immediate and future challenges not only to children themselves, but also to their nations and communities, as well as the broader economy. It is now urgent to address both the root causes and repercussions of child labour, and to ultimately eliminate it, especially in its worst forms.

Reliable and up-to-date information on the situation of children's work and schooling is needed to guide the development and implementation of such measures. To this end, a major recommendation of the 20th Session of the Arab Childhood Committee (ACC) of November 2014 called on the League of Arab States (LAS), in cooperation with the Arab Council for Childhood and Development (ACCD) and stakeholders, to conduct a study on the size and profile of child labour in the Arab region.

The result is the study presented here, which details the main profile and trends of child labour witnessed over the past 10 years, within the context of the prevailing regional situation. Researchers faced many challenges while conducting this study, specifically a shortage of available data and statistics on child labour in the Arab region. This was especially the case with countries experiencing crises. Nonetheless, the study compiles the most up-to-date relevant data, especially of a qualitative nature.

As a follow-up measure, LAS member States are encouraged to step up data collection on children's employment and to develop their own National Action Plans to combat the worst forms of child labour. This should set the stage for the development of a regional strategy that addresses this unacceptable humanitarian problem and programmes designed to ensure the rights of children and safeguard their future, as our children are also our future.

General Secretariat

Acknowledgements

The General Secretariat of the League of Arab States thanks all the partners who contributed to the preparation of this special study on "**Child Labour in the Arab Region: A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis**", and would like to particularly thank the authorities and institutions concerned with childhood issues in the region, including those individuals working within the following organizations:

International Labour Organization (ILO)

Dr. Ruba Jaradat, Regional Director for Arab States (ILO ROAS); **Frank Hagemann**, Deputy Regional Director & Director of Decent Work Technical Support Team for Arab States (ROAS); **Peter Van Rooij**, Director of ILO Cairo Office and North Africa Decent Work Team (Cairo); **Lars Johansen**, Chief of Regional Programming Unit (ROAS).

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)

Abdessalam Ould Ahmed, Assistant Director-General and Regional Representative of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAORNE); **Dr. Alfredo Impiglia**, Delivery Manager of the Regional Initiative for Small-Scale Family Farming (FAORNE); **Dr. Maurice Saade**, FAO Representative in Lebanon.

Arab Council for Childhood and Development (ACCD)

Dr. Hassan Al-Bilawi, Secretary General

Arab Labour Organization (ALO)

Fayez El-Mutayri, Director General.

The General Secretariat commends the coordinating and technical efforts and inputs made by **Dr**. **Hayat Osseiran**, (Senior Child Labour Consultant, **ILO ROAS**) for the development of the report.

This report was prepared by the **Consultation and Research Institute (CRI)**, and builds upon the statistical findings of the **Understanding Children's Work (UCW)** 2017 study, Child Labour in the Arab States: Magnitude and Profile, which was conducted for the purpose of this study.

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The report benefited from input and review by:

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FAO

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ALO

Hamdi Ahmed, Minister Plenipotentiary, Head of Social Protection Department; **Rania Farouk**, Head of Unit for Women and Children.

ILO

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General Secretariat

Yoshie Noguchi, Senior Specialist in Labour law (Geneva); **Insaf Nizam**, Senior Technical Officer, Crisis and Fragile Situations (Geneva); **Nadine Osseiran**, Senior Programme and Operations Officer for Africa (Geneva); **Nader Keyrouz**, Regional Labour Statistician (ROAS); **Reem El-Shirbeeni**, Child Labour National Programme Manager (Cairo); **Nihayat Dabdoub**, Child Labour National Programme Coordinator (Jordan); **Rabeea Jalloul**, National Project Officer; **Peter Matz**, Child Labour Consultant; **Salwa Kanaana**, Regional Communication and Public Information Officer (ROAS); **Reham Rached**, Communications Assistant (ROAS); **Asmaa Rezk,** National Communications Officer (Cairo). The English version of this report was edited by David Cann (ROAS).

International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC)

Ernesto Granillo, Regional Protection of the Civilian Population Adviser (Near and Middle East); **Sophie Duboucet**, Head of Restoring Family Links-RFL Unit

UNICEF

Isabella Castrogiovanni, Regional Advisor/Child Protection, Regional Office for the Middle East and North Africa; **Micaela Pasini**, Child Protection specialist, Syria Country Office.

UNRWA

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Executive summary

The Arab region has witnessed a large wave of armed conflicts and population displacement in recent years, believed to have bought with it an upsurge of child labour – the magnitude of which is yet to be fully measured. The impact of armed conflict has exacerbated pre-existing levels of child labour found in rural and urban areas across the Arab region, typically driven by economic vulnerability, poor education and certain social norms.

This presumed rise in child labour comes amid global efforts to eradicate this harmful phenomenon, while Arab governments make notable efforts to align their national, legal and institutional frameworks to international standards. The present study addresses child labour in the Arab region, comprised of the 22 member countries of the League of Arab States (LAS), divided between the 12 countries of the ILO Regional Office for Arab States (ILO ROAS) and the 10 Arab countries in Africa.

Regional disparities make it difficult to provide a common picture of the magnitude and trends of child labour across the region, especially given the absence of overall regional estimates of child labour. Nevertheless, Arab countries face many common socioeconomic issues and challenges in relation to child labour, such as: improving labour inspection capacity; increasing research and data collection on child labour; eliminating the worst forms of child labour (including trafficking, slavery, commercial sexual exploitation, use of children in armed conflict and hazardous work); and identifying and tackling hidden forms of child labour such as unpaid household services and domestic work, mainly affecting young girls.

Methodology

Based on available national data and country studies (from 2006 to 2016) and in addition to key informants, this report provides an overview of the main characteristics of child labour in the Arab region by economic sector and examines the effects of armed conflict and population displacement. The study relies on four main methodological pillars:

1) a literature review on child labour in the Arab region, complemented by in-depth interviews with key informants;
2) a 2017 study based on available data sources conducted by Understanding Children's Work (UCW) – Child labour in the Arab States: A descriptive analysis – which highlights child labour trends and characteristics among two age groups (5–14 and 15–17 years) in ten Arab states;

3) a questionnaire sent to member countries of the League of Arab States;
4) eight targeted sections or boxes highlighting particular aspects or cases of child labour in the Arab region by topic, country or sector.

General trends and characteristics

The poorest countries in the Arab region show the highest rates of child employment, which reflects a global trend verified by the latest ILO Global Estimates (2017). The general trends of child employment in the region can be summarized as follows:

- Child employment increases with age, with higher employment rates in the 15–17 age group than the 5–14 age group. Special attention should be paid to the high incidence of hazardous work among adolescents aged 15–17.
- Child employment rates are higher among boys. However, it should be noted that surveys might fail to capture hidden forms of child labour among girls, such as domestic work and unpaid household services, which merit further research and enquiry.
- Child employment rates are generally higher in rural than in urban areas.

The main characteristics of child employment in the Arab region can be summarized as follows:

- Concerning the status of employment, unpaid family work is most common among children aged 5 to 14 years old, girls, and in rural areas, while paid non-family work is more common among children aged 15 to 17, among boys, and in urban areas.
- Children aged 15–17, particularly males, tend to work longer hours than their respective counterparts. On the other hand, working children who attend school tend to work less than those who do not go to school.
- Children in urban areas tend to work longer hours than rural children. But it should be noted that agricultural work is highly labour-intensive, but seasonal.

Trends and working conditions by sector

- Child labour in the Arab region is mostly found in agriculture, followed by services and industry. Country-level data also point to the following trends:
- A higher prevalence of child labour in agriculture is found among children aged 5–14, while the sectoral distribution of children aged 15–17 is more varied and shows a higher incidence of work in services and industries compared with younger children.
- For girls, the sectoral distribution of activity varies greatly between countries,

depending on the specific nature of local economies, bearing in mind that household surveys are often not able to capture certain types of hidden work performed by girls.

Agriculture: Small-scale farming

The majority of children in the agricultural sector are unpaid family workers, especially children aged 5–14. Child labour in agriculture is mainly related to small-scale farming, where cheap intensive labour is in high demand, especially on family farms that depend on the contribution of children. A closer look at child labour in agriculture in Lebanon, Morocco, Egypt and Yemen highlights the following push factors: household poverty, low parental education, certain social norms, lack of access to education or lack of enforcement of compulsory education, lack of access to water and electricity networks, and lack of social security.

Agriculture was found to be one of the most hazardous sectors of activity. Children working in this sector are at risk of being exposed to the following hazards, which vary in degree and in combination, depending on the activity: exposure to chemicals, pesticides, dust and smoke; carrying heavy loads; working long hours; repeatedly bending and standing; working at heights; working in isolation; long hours of exposure to the sun and other climatic conditions; and working with dangerous tools and farm machinery, often with a lack of protective gear or access to first aid.

Children working on family farms often lack social and legal protections. Countries can choose to apply certain exemptions allowed under Article 5 of the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138), and exclude some children from the legal provisions on the minimum age for work. It should be noted, however, that such exemptions do not apply to any form of hazardous work. In remote rural areas there are further issues regarding the limited capacity of labour inspectors and the lack of geographical coverage, often leaving rural children labour out of the purview of government oversight.

Industry and services: The informal sector

Child labour in the secondary and tertiary sectors is generally informal work, which is particularly prone to child labour since, by definition, it escapes regulatory and inspection oversight. Child labour in the industrial sector is characterized by paid, non-family work, while the status of employment is more diversified in the services sector, with a relative predominance of paid, non-family work.

A closer look at children in informal employment in Jordan, Morocco and Iraq highlights the following determinants of child labour:

- poverty such that the household relies on the additional income generated by setting

children to work, especially among refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs);
- education is considered of limited value in the absence of future prospects for decent work;
- limited labour inspection capacity; and
- from an employer's perspective, children represent low-cost labour and are easier to manage.

Children working informally face various hazards depending on the type of activity, such as long hours of work, dust and pollution hazards, injury and security risks, carrying heavy loads and working without protective clothing. Based on the country studies presented here, the majority of children working informally in industry and services do not attend school.

As for young girls (usually under the age of 16) found in domestic work, they face a disconcerting situation due to risks of seclusion, lack of school attendance, and the potential for their rights as children to be violated. In Tunisia, girls were found to be subject to strenuous working conditions and physical abuse from employers. They were also isolated from their families and friends, and poorly paid. The ILO has highlighted the need to improve data collection in order to measure the extent and nature of children's involvement in domestic work across the Arab region, and has called for a strategic policy response to address such child labour.

Child labour in armed conflict

Children are often the main victims of armed conflicts and population displacement in the region. Child labour is on the rise among refugees and internally displaced populations, as well as among host communities in Lebanon, Jordan and Iraq. Refugee and displaced children can be found working in a number of sectors of activity, with a notable rise in street work, bonded labour, early marriage, and commercial sexual exploitation. Child labour among refugee and displaced children is mainly a financial coping mechanism for families who face extreme poverty or where adults are unemployed. Refugee and displaced children also work for longer hours and lower pay than local children.

The UN Secretary-General has reported a rise in the recruitment and use of children by armed groups, among both local and refugee populations. This is certainly the case in Yemen, Syria and Iraq, where the majority of recruited children are generally boys. However, there is an emerging tendency to recruit more girls, as well as children below the age of 15. Hundreds of children across the Arab region are also held in detention – and even tortured – on the grounds of being involved in armed groups. According to the Secretary-General's report, the factors contributing to such child recruitment are relatively

attractive salaries, religious and ideological influences, propaganda, and sometimes pressure and coercion by their communities. Enlistment is not always voluntary, and there is an increasing trend in forced or deceitful recruitment. Another major concern is the vulnerability of girls to forced marriage, trafficking and sexual abuse.

Moreover, children living in conflict zones are the greatest victims of the humanitarian crisis. In addition to the extreme conditions of poverty, health and security threats, and the damage to their education, these children are being forced into the kinds of activities associated with armed conflict situations, such as smuggling goods across borders or between fighting zones, collecting oil waste, performing funerary work (collecting body parts for burial), household work, and fetching water or collecting food from fields and landfills, which are even more dangerous in cases of violent conflict.

Policy recommendations

Child labour arises in vulnerable communities that suffer from poverty, unemployment, poor infrastructure, and lack of access to education and social protections. Exposure to shocks such as armed conflict and population displacement increases the vulnerability of households and exacerbates those factors that lead to child labour. Amid the current refugee crisis, strengthening national protection frameworks will benefit both refugee populations and host communities. This calls for a set of nine cross-sectoral policy interventions distributed between three general policy objectives:

Policy objectives	Areas of intervention
Improved governance framework	1. National laws and regulations 2. Governance structures
Protection from economic and social vulnerability	3. Labour market policies 4. Social protection 5. Access to basic services, including education 6. Education and awareness-raising programmes
Protection from the impact of armed conflict	7. Humanitarian and refugee and displaced assistance programmes 8. Protection of children from recruitment and use in armed conflict 9. Rehabilitation and re-integration of children used in armed conflicts

Introduction

The Arab region has witnessed a large wave of armed conflicts and population displacement in recent years, bringing with it an upsurge of child labour, the magnitude of which is yet to be fully measured. Although there are no recent child labour data on Arab countries affected by armed conflict, [1] the ILO Global Estimates 2017[2] demonstrate a strong correlation between levels of child labour and situations of conflict and disaster[3].

The impact of armed conflict has exacerbated pre-existing levels of child labour found in rural and urban areas across the region, driven by economic vulnerability, poor education and facilitating social norms. This presumed rise in child labour comes amid global efforts to eradicate this harmful phenomenon, while Arab governments have made notable efforts to align their national, legal and institutional frameworks to international standards.

The global community has set out a goal to end child labour by 2025. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development includes 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and 169 targets that are meant to guide international development efforts for the next decade. Under SDG 8, related to decent work and economic growth, target 8.7 calls on the global community to:

> **Take immediate and effective measures to eradicate forced labour, end modern slavery and human trafficking and secure the prohibition and elimination of the worst forms of child labour, including recruitment and use of child soldiers, and by 2025 end child labour in all its forms.**

The ILO Global Estimates 2017 show that progress towards ending child labour has been slow in the last four years (2012–2016), with 152 million children found in child labour across the world today (compared with 168 million in 2012), nearly half of which are in hazardous work.

The present study examines child labour in the Arab region, which comprises the 22 member countries of the League of Arab States (LAS). This region spread across a

1 The most recent ILO global estimates include data on Iraq and Yemen but not on Libya, Somalia, Sudan or Syria. (Source: ILO (2017). Methodology of the global estimates of child labour, 2012-2016, International Labour Organization (ILO), Geneva, 2017).

2 ILO (2017). "Global estimates of child labour: Results and trends, 2012-2016", International Labour Organization (ILO), Geneva, 2017.

3 "The incidence of child labour in countries affected by armed conflict is 77 per cent higher than the global average. The incidence of hazardous work is 50 per cent higher in countries affected by armed conflict than in the world as a whole." (ILO Global Estimates 2017)

wide and disparate geographic area, with important disparities regarding the geography, population size, income levels, GDP composition by sector, and labour force composition by sector, not to mention the several countries grossly affected by armed conflict and population displacement. Therefore, it is difficult to provide a single, common picture of the magnitude and trends of child labour across the region, given its interlinkages with the socioeconomic realities of each state, and the absence of accurate regional estimates of the prevalence of child labour.

The 22 Arab countries under study can be divided between two different regions when it comes to ILO research and areas of action. The ILO Global Estimates 2017 provides two sets of regional figures that are of interest to our study (see table 1): (a) figures concerning child labour in the region covered by the ILO Regional Office for Arab States (**ILO ROAS**),[1] which show that 3 per cent of children aged 5 to 17 years old are involved in child labour; and (b) figures concerning the **African region**,[2] which presents a much higher rate of child labour of nearly 20 per cent (around twice the global rate). In both regions, around half of these children are involved in hazardous work.

Table 1. Percentage of children (5–17 years old) engaged in child labour and hazardous work

	Hazardous work	Child labour
World	9.6	4.6
Arab States (covering the 12 ROAS countries, all of which are LAS member countries: Bahrain, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT), Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen)	2.9	1.5
Africa (covering 54 countries, 10 of which are LAS member countries: Algeria, Comoros, Djibouti, Egypt, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Somalia, Sudan and Tunisia)	19.6	8.6

Source: ILO. 2017. Global estimates of child labour: Results and trends, 2012–2016 (Geneva, International Labour Office). ISBN: 978-92-2-130153-0 (web pdf).

These figures should be regarded, however, as conservative estimates to be read and interpreted within the context of the following limitations: (1) the estimates do not cover

1 The ILO Regional Office for Arab States in Beirut (ILO ROAS) covers the following 12 countries: Bahrain, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, United Arab Emirates and Yemen (see: www.ilo.org/beirut).

2 The African continent includes 10 LAS countries, seven of which are covered by the ILO Sub-Regional Office in Cairo: Egypt, Sudan, Somalia, Libya, Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco (see: www.ilo.org/beirut).

invisible work performed inside the household or what is known as unpaid household services (UHS), nor do they cover all the worst forms of child labour, especially in conflict situations;[1] (2) they rely on different surveys conducted in different years, depending on the country, with methodologies and child labour definitions differing from country to country; (3) they are based on country figures that often date from 2012 or 2013 and do not convey the full impact of recent conflicts on child labour in many of these countries; and (4) the figures on child labour in the LAS region are not comprehensive nor reliable as a time series.

Nevertheless, Arab countries face common socioeconomic issues that have an impact on child labour trends and characteristics, such as the general economic slowdown, incomplete demographic transitions, youth unemployment, and low returns on education. They also face similar challenges such as: improving labour inspection capacity; increasing research and data collection on child labour; putting an end to the worst forms of child labour (including trafficking, slavery, commercial sexual exploitation and hazardous work); and identifying and tackling hidden forms of child labour mainly occurring among young girls, such as unpaid household services and domestic work.

The main determinants of child labour, as established in the general literature on child labour, are also found across the Arab region: household poverty, vulnerability, economic shocks and lack of access to quality education. Based on national data and country studies, this report provides an overview of the main characteristics of child labour in the Arab region by economic sector and examines the effects of armed conflict and population displacement on child labour. The document is laid out according to the following structure:

- Part 1 presents the methodology of the study and provides an overview of the data sources and their limitations;
- Part 2 provides a brief definition of child labour according to international standards and highlights the effect of national legal provisions on the definition and measurement of child labour;
- Part 3 presents the main trends and characteristics of child labour in the Arab Region;
- Part 4 examines the phenomenon of child labour by sector;
- Part 5 explores the impact of armed conflict on child labour;
- Part 6 concludes with a policy analysis and associated recommendations.

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1 Estimates on commercial sexual exploitation and forced child labour are not included in the 2017 ILO Global Estimates, but are calculated separately as part of the Alliance 8.7 Global estimates of modern slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage, 2017. Furthermore, it does not include data on all countries affected by armed conflict. For instance, when it comes to conflict-affected Arab countries, it only includes child labour data on Iraq and Yemen but does not include data on Libya, Somalia, Sudan or Syria (ILO. 2017. Methodology of the global estimates of child labour, 2012-2016 (Geneva)).

1. Methodology

The scope of the study included the 22 members of the League of Arab States and relied on four main methodological pillars:

1. a literature review on child labour in the Arab region, complemented by in-depth interviews with key informants;
2. a 2017 study based on available data sources conducted by Understanding Children's Work (UCW) – Child labour in the Arab States: A descriptive analysis – which highlights child labour trends and characteristics among two age groups (5–14 and 15–17 years) in ten Arab states;
3. a questionnaire sent to member countries of the League of Arab States.[1]
4. eight targeted sections or boxes highlighting particular aspects of child labour in the Arab region by topic, country or sector.

First round of literature review

This is the first study to tackle child labour in the Arab region as a whole. It was designed with an appreciation of two main limitations: (a) the absence of comprehensive up-to-date quantitative data on child labour in the Arab region, at both national and regional levels; and (b) the lack of specialized studies on child labour as a regional phenomenon. Given the scarcity of literature on the topic in the Arab region, the literature review relied mostly on a bottom-up approach – deducing general trends from country-based readings. Five main types of resources were used:

1. general literature on child labour (not specific to the Arab region);
2. literature on child labour in the Arab region, which included mainly a 2014 study by UCW on child labour and youth employment in the Arab states [2] and the 2017 UCW descriptive analysis on child labour in the Arab states developed specifically for this study;
3. UCW thematic studies, including case studies from the Arab region;
4. Country studies or reports (ILO, FAO, UNICEF, US Department of Labor, local and international NGOs);

1 Copy of original questionnaire prouduced in arabic and disseminated to member states found in Annex 3.

2 ILO and UCW. 2014. The twin challenges of child labour and youth employment in the Arab States: An overview (Beirut, ILO). July 2014.

5. Legal instruments, international treaties, local laws and regulations.

In-depth interviews and second round of literature review

In-depth interviews (Appendix I) were conducted with:

- 3 FAO experts on activities and hazards related to agricultural sub-sectors; and
- 1 UNICEF and 3 ILO country focal points[1] who provided us with additional information and reference documents.

A number of questionnaires were also sent to regional ILO and UNICEF focal points, resulting in a list of new references (especially internal country reports).

UCW (2017) report – Child labour in the Arab states: A descriptive analysis

In 2017, and as part of this study, UCW (2017) developed a report on child labour in the Arab states, drawing on data on children in employment in ten Arab states. Attention should be paid to some of the limitations of this study:

1. It covers the years 2006–2016, and thus does not give an account of the effects of the Syrian conflict and refugee crisis on child labour in the region. This is in addition to a general lack of standardized data collection: "data shortcomings remain an important concern in the Arab States. These shortcomings constitute an important constraint to informed policy-making and point to the need for additional investment in the regular collection of information on the child work situation across the Arab States." [2]
2. It relies on data about children in employment in order to convey a general picture of child labour trends in the Arab region. Although not all children in employment are considered as child labourers, this is the most reliable way to compare trends among countries with different legal and statistical definitions of child labour (see the following section on definitions and legal frameworks).

Questionnaire

A survey questionnaire (Appendix 3) was sent via LAS to all 22 member countries. Fifteen responses (Appendix 4) were received by the time of submission of this report.

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1 A focal point is a person who is designated certain activities or a specialty including child labour in a specified organization and even country.

2 UCW (2017). Child labour in the Arab States: A descriptive analysis (produced specifically for this study and report-not published yet).

Boxes

The targeted sections or boxes highlighting particular aspects of child labour in the Arab region by topic, country or sector were based mainly on the literature review, and were further informed by the interviews. The choice of topics and countries was based on criteria for representativeness of major trends, size and predominance of child labour in the sector/country in question, and availability of information.

Consultation meeting

On 28 January 2018, the main research findings were presented at a consultation meeting organized by the League of Arab States in Cairo, allowing the research team to confirm findings and gather feedback from local and regional experts, and country representatives.

2. Definition and legal framework

Child labour can be generally defined as the work of children below the age of 18 in types of activities or within working conditions that are considered to be harmful for their health or their physical and mental development. This does not mean, however, that all child work is to be unconditionally condemned. Some children may be involved in limited hours of work permitted for their age and taking place in a safe environment, allowing them to build skills without affecting their education. Hence the general category of children in employment is differentiated from child labour in particular.

Three international conventions provide the general framework for defining and regulating child labour:

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), 1989, provides that States parties shall take legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to ensure the protection of children "from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development." To this end, the CRC stipulates that States parties shall adopt a minimum age for employment and regulate the hours and conditions of employment (Art. 32). This Convention is complemented by two optional Protocols on the worst forms of child labour: (a) the Optional Protocol concerning the involvement of children in armed conflict (2000) and the Optional Protocol on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (2000).

ILO Convention No. 138 on the minimum age for admission to employment, 1973, engages member States to set the minimum age for employment to 15 years of age, or 14 years for less developed countries (Art. 2), and a minimum age of 18 years for hazardous work (Art. 3). Convention No. 138 states that national laws or regulations may permit the employment of children aged 13 to 15 (12 to 14 in less developed countries) on light work that is not likely to affect their health, development or education (Art. 7). Article 5 provides certain exemptions and limits the scope of application of the Convention after consultation with employers' and workers' organizations, especially where economies and administrative facilities are inadequately developed. However, there are no exemptions for any type of work that may be classified as hazardous.

The Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182), defines children as all persons under the age of 18 (Art. 2) and divides the worst forms of child labour into four categories (Art. 3):

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

(b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;

(c) the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;

(d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children (a list of which shall be determined by national laws or regulations according to Article 4).

Concerning the fourth category referred to as hazardous work, Convention No. 182 leaves to each member State the task of defining its own list of hazardous work activities. However, it explicitly refers to Recommendation 190 as a reference for national legislation on the regulation of hazardous work.[1] This recommendation provides the following guidelines on the types of activities to be considered as hazardous work:

Work of hazardous nature

1. Work which exposes children to physical, psychological or sexual abuse;
2. Work underground, under water, at dangerous heights or in confined spaces;
3. Work with dangerous machinery, equipment and tools, or which involves the manual handling or transport of heavy loads;
4. 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;

Work in hazardous conditions

5. 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.

1 Convention Nos 138 and 182 can be read in light of ILO Recommendation No. 146 (1973) on the minimum age for admission to employment and ILO Recommendation No. 190 (1999) on the worst forms of child labour, which provide non-binding interpretations of their provisions.

Figure 1, below, provides an overview of the different categories of **children in employment** based on this general framework. Within the broad category of children in employment, two further categories are defined:

1. child labour, which includes – but is not limited to – the worst forms of child labour; and
2. light work, which is exempt from the minimum age restriction when permitted by national laws, and applied to children aged between 12 or 13 (depending on developmental status of the country) and 15 years, provided that such work (a) is not likely to be harmful to their health or development; and (b) will not prejudice their attendance at school, participation in approved vocational orientation or training programmes, or their capacity to benefit from the instructions received (Convention No. 138, Art. 7). For the purpose of statistical measurement, the ILO Global Estimates 2017 defines "light work" as non-hazardous work for children aged 12–14 years old in employment who work less than 14 hours per week.

CHILDREN IN EMPLOYMENT

CHILD LABOUR ⊘	LIGHT WORK √
WORST FORMS OF CHILD LABOUR 1. Unconditional worst forms 2. Hazardous work	An exception to the minimum age provisions, if the following conditions are met: 1. Non-hazardous, non-prohibited work; 2. Child between 12 and 14 years old; 3. Not harmful to child's health or development; 4. Does not hinder child's education

Most Arab States have ratified the abovementioned international Conventions,[1] and have adopted national provisions on the protection of children from child labour (Appendix 7). These provisions set a minimum age for work and regulate the working conditions of children below the age of 18. Hence the legal definition of child labour varies from country to country, depending on three main categories of national provisions:

1 With the exception of the Occupied Palestinian Territory (which is not an ILO member State and thus has not ratified any of the ILO Conventions) and Somalia (which has not ratified Convention No. 138).

1. The minimum age for work, which varies between 14 (Mauritania, Yemen) and 16 years of age (Algeria, Djibouti, Jordan, Qatar, Tunisia) in the Arab countries.
2. The maximum number of working hours for children, which can be determined differently for different age groups. The most common limitation on maximum working hours for children in the Arab region is 6 hours per day.
3. The types of hazardous activities prohibited for children under the age of 18, or what is referred to as the "hazardous work list". While most countries, like Bahrain, Lebanon or Syria, have adopted complete and detailed hazardous work lists, other countries have opted for a general prohibition, as in Saudi Arabia, or a less detailed list of restrictions, as in the case of Somalia.

3. General trends and characteristics

Child labour is believed to be on the rise in the Arab region, especially as a result of current armed conflicts and population displacements.[1] Based on the UCW (2017) report the present chapter reviews the trends and characteristics of child labour in the Arab region as they stood at the beginning of the decade, mostly prior to the Syrian refugee crisis and the armed conflict in Yemen. The impact of armed conflict and refugee movements on child labour will be explored in Chapter 6.

Understanding the main trends of child employment is the first step towards designing better targeted policies and interventions to address the problem of child labour. The following sections use the proportion of children in employment as a proxy for child labour, disaggregated by age, gender and geographic location (section 3.1). The characteristics of children's work in the Arab region, such as employment status and number of working hours, are described in section 3.2.

3.1 General trends of child employment

Percentage of children in employment

Children's involvement in employment varies substantially across the Arab region (table 2), with the poorest two countries (Sudan and Yemen) showing the highest rates of child employment – up to 19.2 per cent and 34.8 per cent, respectively. The lowest rates are found in Jordan (1 per cent for ages 5–14 and 5.6 per cent for the 15–17 age group). Figures for the age cohort 15–17 may correspond to children above the minimum national age for employment, meaning that, depending on their working conditions, they might be considered either in youth employment or in child labour.

Age distribution

Children's involvement in employment increases with age for those Arab countries that report this statistic. The percentage of children in employment among the 15–17 years age group is notably higher than among the 5–14 group (table 2).

1 ILO–IPEC. 2017. Child labour in Arab states. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/ipec/Regionsandcountries/arab-states/lang--en/index.htm [Accessed 01 July 2017].

Table 2. Percentage of children in employment by country and age group

	5–14 years	15–17 years
Algeria 2012	6.7	(no data)
Egypt 2012	1.2	8.6
Iraq 2011	4.9	13.5
Jordan 2016	1.0	5.6
Sudan 2008	12.6	19.2
Syria 2006	5.4	(no data)
Tunisia 2013	(no data)	9.9
Yemen 2010	13.6	34.8

Note: For the 5–14 age group Egypt reports ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, and Sudan ages 10–14. The most recent data for Sudan is available from 2008, i.e. before the separation of South Sudan and, therefore, covers a wider geographical and demographic area.
Source: UCW, 2017

While the percentage of employed children among different age groups provides an indicator to compare the prevalence of child labour across countries, it is important to take into account differences in population size, the magnitude of child labour in absolute numbers and its distribution within the country across age groups. This assists policy-makers to select adequate policy tools to target the maximum number of children affected. For example, in countries like Egypt and Iraq, the number of working children aged 15–17 is more than double the number of working children aged 5–14, as reflected in the percentages of children in employment in the two age groups. In other countries, like Sudan and Yemen, with high numbers of younger children in the population, the rate of employment among children aged 15–17 is higher, but the absolute number of working children aged 5–14 remains higher.

Table 3. Number of children in employment by country and age group

	5–14 years	15–17 years	Total
Egypt 2012	185 399	463 599	648 998
Iraq 2011	104 365	287 098	391 463
Jordan 2016	32 426	43 556	75 982
Sudan 2008	461 315	377 056	838 371
Yemen 2010	834 866	538 859	1 373 724

Note: For the 5–14 age group, Egypt includes ages 6–14; Iraq ages 12–14; and Sudan ages 10–14.
Source: UCW, 2017.

Textbox 1. Adolescents in hazardous work

The ILO Global Estimates 2017 indicate that there are 37 million adolescents aged 15–17 years in hazardous work worldwide. Although this is an improvement compared with 2012 (a notable drop from 47 million), this number represents 25 per cent child labour and 42 per cent of overall youth employment.[1] Around half of adolescents in hazardous work globally are found in agriculture, and the rest are divided evenly between services and industry. [2]

In Arab countries such as Egypt and Jordan, adolescents aged 15–17 years old in hazardous work account for over 60 per cent of child labourers, and more than 70 per cent of working adolescents.[3]

Efforts to eliminate child labour and promote occupational safety and health for youth need to give special attention to adolescents in hazardous work. This requires strategies to: (1) remove adolescents from intrinsically hazardous jobs and ensure that they receive social support and a second chance of access to education, training and decent work; and (2) remove hazardous conditions encountered by youth in the workplace in sectors or occupations that are not designated as inherently hazardous and included on the national list of hazardous work. These strategies should be supported by Occupational Safety an Health (OSH) training and awareness-raising programmes targeted at young workers, employers and trade unions, and establish effective mechanisms for monitoring and labour inspection.[4]

It should be noted that if a child is over the minimum working age, work in the presence of a hazard is not considered as hazardous work in the following cases: (1) if the hazard can be removed; (2) if the child can be sufficiently separated from the hazard so as not to be exposed; or (3) if the risk associated with that hazard can be minimized, so it unlikely to harm the health, safety or morals of the child. The ILO refers to this approach as "identifying hazards and reducing risks". In its guidelines for employers, it encourages them "to reduce the risks for all workers, adolescents and adults, through improved workplace safety and health."[5]

1 ILO Global Estimates 2017.

2 ILO. 2017. Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes (Geneva, International Labour Office.

3 Guarcello, L.; Lyon S.; Valdivia, C. 2016. Adolescents in hazardous work: Child labour among children aged 15-17 years, UCW Working Paper, July 2016. (Figures are from Egypt 2009 and Jordan 2007.)

4 Guarcello, L., Lyon S., and Valdivia, C. (2016). Idem.; ILO. 2017. Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes (Geneva, International Labour Office).

5 Guarcello, L., Lyon S., and Valdivia, C. (2016). Idem.

Gender distribution

It can be observed in most countries under study that the share of boys in employment exceeds that of girls (table 4). This is true for both age groups, although the gender gap seems to be more pronounced among 15–17 year-olds (the number of working boys is more than twice higher than the number of working girls in this age group in Tunisia, Yemen and Sudan, and more than four times higher in Egypt, Iraq and Jordan). This suggests that gender-based considerations play an important role in household decisions concerning children's work. However, it should be noted that surveys might fail to capture certain activities that are typically assigned to girls such as household chores performed within the family home (like cleaning, cooking or child care) and domestic service in a third-party household. These are less visible types of employment that are often underestimated by household surveys.

The only exception to the higher share of employment among boys is found in the Occupied Palestinian Territory (OPT) where the share of males aged 15–17 in employment is notably lower than the share of females (16 per cent of females compared with less than 1 per cent of males).

Table 4. Percentage of children in employment by country, age group and sex

	5–14 years		15–17 years	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Algeria 2012	7.6	5.8	(no data)	(no data)
Egypt 2012	2	0.4	14.3	2.4
Iraq 2011	6.6	3.3	21.9	4.9
Jordan 2016	1.6	0.3	9.9	0.9
OPT 2012	(no data)	(no data)	0.9	15.7
Sudan 2008	15.3	9.5	26.3	11.8
Syria 2006	7.1	3.6	(no data)	(no data)
Tunisia 2013	(no data)	(no data)	13.8	5.6
Yemen 2010	14.5	12.6	43.9	23.7

Note: For the 5–14 age group, Egypt includes ages 6–14; Iraq ages 12–14; Sudan ages 10–14.

Source: UCW, 2017.

Textbox 2. Unpaid household services (UHS)

The definition of child labour in ILO Conventions and according to most national legal frameworks does not include activities that fall outside the production boundary as defined by the United Nations System of National Accounts (SNA). This leaves out from child labour estimates all types of household chores carried out by household members, or what are known as unpaid household services (UHS) such as cleaning, washing dishes and looking after younger siblings. This omission is thought by statisticians to limit our full understanding of the child labour phenomenon (the Resolution concerning statistics of child labour, adopted at the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 2008, recognizes that UHS could be instrumental in giving rise to child labour). The Resolution concerning the measurement of working time, adopted at the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians in 2008, recognizes all activities that fall within the general production boundary (including non-SNA activities) as productive. The recommendation is for the inclusion of non-SNA activities in satellite accounts with an aim "for a broader understanding of, and approach to, labour market, economic and social policies" (Resolution I, p. 42). Similarly, UNICEF's Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) include hazardous UHS in their definition of child labour, hazardous UHS being work on household chores for over 28 hours per week.

This phenomenon of UHS is found to be most common among young girls. Indeed, a 2012 UCW analysis found that the inclusion of hazardous UHS within the definition of child labour has the greatest impact on child labour estimates for girls. This is the case of Jordan, where boys are found to be more highly involved in child labour than girls. The inclusion of children involved in UHS for more than 20 hours a week in child labour estimates increased the prevalence of child labour among girls from 0.3 per cent per cent to 2.4 per cent, which puts them on a par with boys in terms of involvement in child labour.

These findings are important for future policy interventions regarding hazardous UHS and its impact on the quality of life and educational and professional prospects of young girls in the Arab region.

Source: Dayioglu, M. 2012. How sensitive are estimates of working children and child labour to definitions? A comparative analysis, MICS Methodological Papers, No. 1, Statistics and Monitoring Section, Division of Policy and Strategy, United Nations Children's Fund, New York, 2012.

Geographic distribution

The percentage of children in employment is generally found to be higher in rural areas, among both younger and older children. This is true for Algeria, Egypt, Iraq, OPT, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia and also in Yemen, which shows the most acute difference: in rural areas the percentage of children in employment aged 5–14 is four times higher than in urban areas, and more than twice as high for those aged 15–17 (table 5).

According to UCW (2017), this can be explained by the demand for children's labour on family farms and the higher prevalence of certain child labour determinants, such as higher levels of poverty and lower levels of basic services in rural areas, both of which increase household reliance on child labour.

Table 5. Percentage of children in employment by country,\age group and residence (urban/rural)

	5–14 years		15–17 years	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Algeria 2012	6.0	7.9	(no data)	(no data)
Egypt 2012	1.2	1.2	5.3	11
Iraq 2011	2.5	9.4	9.6	21.3
Jordan 2016	0.8	1.9	5.5	5.8
OPT 2012	(no data)	(no data)	7.6	10.4
Sudan 2008	4.4	12.3	12	19.6
Syria 2006	3.5	7.3	(no data)	(no data)
Tunisia 2013	(no data)	(no data)	8.5	12.2
Yemen 2010	4.1	16.7	18.6	40.7

Note: For the 5–14 age group, Egypt includes ages 6–14; Iraq ages 12–14; Sudan ages 10–14.

Source: UCW, 2017.

Certain limitations should be kept in mind while examining the phenomenon of higher levels of child employment in rural areas:

- While percentages provide a useful tool for cross-country comparison, the absolute number of children in employment by residence needs to be taken into consideration for better targeting of national policy interventions. Absolute numbers provide a better

indication of the magnitude of the phenomenon and the size of the target groups. For instance, in Algeria where 6 per cent of 5–14 year-old children in urban areas are in employment compared with 7.9 per cent in rural areas, we find that the absolute number of 5–14 year-old children in employment is actually considerably higher in urban areas (around 234,000 compared with 180,000 in rural areas). This is also true for Jordan where the rate of 5–14 year-old children in employment is notably higher in rural areas but the total number is twice as high in urban areas when measured in absolute numbers. Similarly, the absolute number of 15–17 year-old children in employment in the OPT is more than three times higher in urban than in rural areas (see Table 6).

- The UCW (2017) analysis notes that the actual number of urban children in employment might be underestimated in some countries: "Urban children, and particularly urban girls, are often disproportionately represented in less visible forms of child labour, such as domestic service in a third-party household and work on the streets, that can be underestimated in household surveys."

Table 6. Number of children in employment by country, age group and residence (urban/rural)

	5–14 years		15–17 years	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Algeria 2012	233 915	179 814	(no data)	(no data)
Egypt 2012	70 935	114 464	114 057	349 541
Iraq 2011	34 286	70 079	135 683	151 415
Jordan 2016	22 517	9 908	36 185	7 371
OPT 2012	(no data)	(no data)	20 421	5 655
Sudan 2008	47 659	275 918	77 694	222 063
Syria 2006	94 042	191 487	(no data)	(no data)
Tunisia 2013	(no data)	(no data)	25 442	21 601
Yemen 2010	62 297	772 568	77 427	461 432

Note: For the 5–14 age group, Egypt includes ages 6–14; Iraq ages 12–14; Sudan ages 10–14.

Source: UCW, 2017.

Textbox 3. National Child Labour Survey, Tunisia 2017

The quantitative analysis presented in this chapter includes data on child labour in Tunisia from 2013. However, the recent National Child Labour Survey was conducted in Tunisia during the second trimester of 2017. The disaggregated data could not be accessed in time to be included in this study, but here we present the main survey results as published.

Table 7 shows a child labour rate of 7.9 per cent, with 6 per cent of children in Tunisia found in hazardous work. Higher rates of child labour were found among older children (aged 13 to 17) and in rural areas. Child labour also appears to be higher among boys than girls, although it should be kept in mind that surveys might not always capture some invisible forms of child labour among girls.

Table 7. Percentage of children in employment and child labour by age, sex and residence (urban/rural), Tunisia

		Children in employment	Child labour	Hazardous work
Age group	5–12	5.4	5.4	3.2
	13–15	12.8	10.3	7.9
	16–17	20.7	14.3	14.3
Sex	Male	11.1	9.7	7.4
	Female	7.7	6.0	4.5
Residence	Urban	4.8	3.8	2.9
	Rural	18.5	15.7	11.9
Total	(no data)	9.5	7.9	6.0

Source: Tunisia National Child Labour Survey 2017 (Enquête Nationale sur le Travail des Enfants en Tunisie de 2017 – Principaux résultats/Bureau International du Travail, Service des Principes et droits fondamentaux au travail (FUNDAMENTALS), Institut National de la Statistique de la Tunisie (INS); République Tunisienne – Tunis: BIT, 2017).

3.2 Characteristics of child employment

This section examines the status of children in employment (paid, unpaid, self-employed) and the number of working hours by age group, sex and residence.

Status in employment

The status of children in employment is broken down into three categories: paid non-family workers, self-employed children and unpaid family workers. The major trends in relation to children's status in employment, as highlighted in UCW (2017), were as follows:

- More than half of children aged 5 to 14 years old work within the family unit as unpaid family workers, followed by an important share of children in paid work and a negligible share of self-employed children. The majority of older children (15–17) are found in paid non-family work, with exceptions in Yemen and Sudan, where most older children are still involved in unpaid family work. Self-employment is relatively more common among older children, with rates as high as 16 per cent in Iraq and 26 per cent in Sudan (see table 8).
- While female employment is higher in unpaid family work, male employment is more common in paid non-family work and in self-employment, especially among the 15–17 age group. The trend is different among older children in OPT and Tunisia, where girls work mainly in wage employment outside the family, and males in unpaid family work.
- The highest share of children in unpaid family work is found in rural areas, while higher shares of paid non-family workers and self-employed children are found in urban areas.

Table 8. Children's status in employment by country and age group

	5–14 years			15–17 years		
	Paid non-family worker	Self-employed	Unpaid family worker	Paid non-family worker	Self-employed	Unpaid family worker
Algeria 2012	15.3	0.0	84.7	(no data)	(no data)	(no data)
Egypt 2012	43.8	2.1	54.1	56.3	5.1	38.6
Iraq 2011	27.3	11.4	61.3	46.9	16.4	36.7
Jordan 2016	25.2	5.3	65.0	63.6	9.0	25.7

OPT 2012	(no data)	(no data)	(no data)	48.5	1.1	50.4
Sudan 2008	18.1	19.9	62.0	30.3	26.0	43.7
Syria 2006	28.2	0.0	71.8	(no data)	(no data)	(no data)
Tunisia 2013	(no data)	(no data)	(no data)	70.4	7.0	22.6
Yemen 2010	6.0	2.3	91.7	20.6	8.9	70.5

Note: For the 5–14 age group, Egypt includes ages 6 - 14; Iraq ages 12 -14; Sudan ages 10 -14. Categories not shown for Jordan include "Other": 4.5 per cent (ages 5–14) and 1.7 per cent (ages 15 - 17).
Source: UCW, 2017.

Hours of work

The number of working hours is a key criterion for determining whether a situation is considered child labour, and guidance in this regard is provided in ILO Recommendation No. 146 (1973) on the minimum age for admission to employment. Working hour limits differ between countries, but the ILO Global Estimates statistical definition adopts the limit of 14 hours per week for children aged 12–14 and 43 hours per week for older children.

The UCW study shows that children in employment across the Arab region work very long hours:

- Most children in employment aged 5–14 exceed 14 hours of work per week, except in Algeria. Among children aged 15–17 the number of hours worked is higher – 44 per week in Egypt, 38 in Iraq and 44 in Jordan (table 9).
- There is a negative correlation between working hours and school attendance. Working children who go to school tend to work less than those who do not go to school.
- Boys work longer hours than girls with the exception of OPT, where girls aged 15–17 work 41 hours per week compared with 23 hours for boys. However, household chores performed by girls were not counted.
- Children of all ages generally work longer hours in urban areas (with the exception of younger children in Algeria and Egypt). This can be explained by the higher flexibility of work arrangements in the context of unpaid family work, which is more typical of rural areas. Moreover, agricultural work is generally highly labour intensive but seasonal, which makes it more difficult for household surveys to measure its intensity. Children in rural areas are thus considered to work shorter hours on average, but longer hours during peak agricultural seasons.

Table 9. Children's average weekly working hours by country and age group

	5–14 years	15–17 years
Algeria 2012	3.2	(no data)
Egypt 2012	42.2	44.3
Iraq 2011	34.8	38.2
Jordan 2016	21.9	43.9
Syria 2006	17.7	(no data)
OPT 2012	(no data)	40.0
Yemen 2010	21.5	28.8

Note: For the 5–14 age group Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14.

Source: UCW, 2017.

In all cases, it should be noted that children involved in employment often perform household chores as well, adding to their weekly working time and taking time away from leisure and study. This can also be the case of idle children who neither work nor go to school; such children might be involved in unreported household chores or forbidden work, and deserve the attention of policy-makers (see textbox 4).

Textbox 4. Idle children

When looking at the status of children's activity, we can identify four categories of children: (1) children who work full-time; (2) children who go to school full time; (3) children who combine school and economic activities; and (4) children who do neither.

The last category of children (not working and not attending school) is referred to as the category of "idle" children. This phenomenon is found among rural children and children from poor households, and appears to be more common among girls than boys. The proportion of idle children is often higher than that of economically active children. For example, A UCW study based on data from the late 1990s shows that children who are reported "idle" account for 37 per cent in Yemen (table 10). This particularly vulnerable category of children calls for the attention of policy-makers for two main reasons: (1) they do not go to school; and (2) they risk entering child labour whenever their households are exposed to individual or collective shocks.

Table 10. Child activity status (excluding household chores) by country and sex (ages 7 to 14, percentages)

Country	Activity Status	Male	Female	Total
Yemen	Working and not attending school	5.0	10.8	7.9
	Attending school and not working	62.6	38.4	50.9
	Working and attending school	6.3	2.0	4.2
	Not working and not attending school	26.1	48.8	37.1

Note: Data from Yemen National Poverty Survey 1999; Morocco Labour Force Survey 1998. Source: Adapted from Guarcello et al. (2004).

One of the main reasons for this "idleness" could be related to measurement issues. Some of these children might be involved in unreported work (parents are reluctant to declare a child's involvement in forbidden work or they might report a child as idle because he or she was not working at the time of the interview), or performing household chores that are not captured by the survey. Idleness can also occur due to a health condition, or related to the labour market – idle children may have dropped out of school to look for a job or they may have also dropped out of the labour market.

Finally, idleness can be an economic preference of the household: whenever access to education is too costly and there is a low return to work, families will opt out of both. This happens whenever schools are too expensive or remote and work opportunities are only available at a distance from the household residence. This also implies that the family does not own land or a small business for children to work on, or have a large number of children.

Sources: Guarcello, L.; Lyon S.; Rosati, F.C. 2004. Child labour and access to basic services: Evidence from five countries (UCW); Biggeri, M.; Guarcello, L.; Lyon, S.; Rosati, F. 2003. The puzzle of "idle" children: Neither in school nor performing economic activity. Evidence from six countries, UCW Working Paper, October 2003.

3.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, the main trends of child employment in the Arab region can be summarized as follows:

- The poorest countries show the highest rates of child employment.
- Child employment increases with age, with higher employment rates among the 15–17 age group than among the 5–14 age group. Special attention should also be paid to the high incidence of hazardous work among adolescents aged 15–17.
- Child employment rates are higher among boys. However, it should be noted that surveys might fail to capture some hidden forms of child labour among girls such as domestic work and unpaid household services, an issue which merits further research and enquiry.
- Child employment rates are generally higher in rural than in urban areas.
- As for the characteristics of child employment in the Arab region, they can be summarized as follows:
- Concerning the status of employment, unpaid family work is most common among children aged 5 to 14 years old, among girls, and in rural areas, while paid non-family work is more common among children aged 15 to 17 years old, among boys and in urban areas.
- Children aged 15–17 and boys tend to work longer hours than their respective counterparts. And working children who go to school tend to work less than those who do not go to school.
- Children tend to work longer hours in urban areas. But it should be noted that, generally, agricultural work is highly labour intensive but seasonal, making it more difficult for household surveys to measure its intensity. Children in rural areas are thus considered to work shorter hours on average, but longer hours during peak agricultural seasons.

4. Trends and working conditions by sector

The trends, characteristics and hazards of child labour vary between activities and economic sectors. The present chapter shows the sectoral distribution of child employment in the Arab region and its main trends by economic sector (section 4.1). It further explores the characteristics, hazards and determinants of child labour by sector, with country-specific illustrations related to the agricultural sector, as characterized by small-scale farming (section 4.2), and child labour in the informal sector, largely within the industry and services sectors (section 4.3).

4.1 General trends

According to ILO global estimates, child labour is mostly found in agriculture. This trend is on the rise, with agricultural work representing a 71 per cent share of child labour in 2016, compared with 60 per cent in 2008. Agriculture is followed by services (17 per cent) and industry (12 per cent) (table 11). [1]

Table 11. Sectoral distribution of child labour (5–17 years), 2008, 2012 and 2016 (global share, percentage)

Sector	2008	2008–2012	2012–2016
Primary (agriculture)	60.0	58.6	70.9
Secondary (industry)	7.0	7.2	11.9
Tertiary (services)	25.6	32.3	17.2
(of which domestic work)	4.9	6.9	
Total	100	100	100

Note: These figures should be read with prudence, given methodological limitations. Estimates for each period rely on different surveys from different years and are based on different child labour definitions and survey methodologies for each country.
Sources: ILO–IPEC, 2013; ILO, 2017.

1 ILO–IPEC. 2013. Marking progress against child labour – Global estimates and trends 2000-2012 (Geneva, International Labour Office and the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)); ILO. 2017. Global estimates of child labour: Results and trends, 2012-2016 (Geneva).

The Arab countries show a similar picture for agriculture, with an 85 per cent share of child labour in Africa and 60 per cent in the Arab states (ILO ROAS) for the period 2012–2016 (table 12). It should be noted that available figures do not allow for a comparison over time, and these estimates do not account for the impact of armed conflict on child labour across the region, to be explored in a separate chapter.

Table 12. Sectoral distribution of child labour (5–17 years), 2012–2016 (global share, percentage)

Sector	Africa	Arab states (ILO ROAS)
Primary (agriculture)	85.1	60.3
Secondary (industry)	3.7	12.4
Tertiary (services)	11.2	27.4
Total	100	100

Note: For 2008 and 2012 figures do not add to 100 because of missing data on sector employment. These figures should be read with prudence, given methodological limitations. Estimates for each period rely on different surveys over different years, and are based on different child labour definitions and survey methodologies for each country.
Source: ILO, 2017.

The UCW study (2017) examines children's employment by sector for the following countries: Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, OPT, Tunisia, Sudan and Yemen.[1] This analysis sheds light on a set of trends in relation to the sectoral composition of children in employment by age, gender and residence, in addition to working hours by sector. Sectors of activities are aggregated on two different levels, whereby industry and services are taken as two broad categories or divided into sub-categories:

- The first level identifies six categories of sectors: (1) agriculture; (2) manufacturing; (3) other industries (mining, electricity, gas, water, and construction); (4) commerce; (5) domestic services; and (6) other services (transportation and storage, hotels and restaurants, and other services).
- The second level aggregates all sectors into primary, secondary and tertiary: (1) agriculture; (2) industry; and (3) services.

1 Surveys for Egypt, Iraq, OPT, Sudan and Yemen adopt the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) to identify sectors of economic activities. For Tunisia and Jordan, sectors of economic activities are based on national classification systems.

Sectoral composition by age group

Agriculture is the predominant sector of activity among children aged 5–14, with over half of working children in this age group found in agriculture – e.g. Yemen (70 per cent), Sudan (67 per cent), Iraq (63 per cent) and Egypt (56 per cent). Industry and services represent an important share of employment among this age group in most countries as well, with the notable case of Jordan, where a similar share of working children is found in agriculture and in the services sector (44 per cent and 42 per cent respectively) (table 13).

Table 13. Children (5–14 years) in employment by sector and country

Sector	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	Sudan 2008	Yemen 2010
Primary (agriculture)	56.2	62.6	43.6	67.5	70.0
Secondary (industry)	24.4	18.9	14.3	9.1	2.2
Tertiary (services)	19.3	18.6	42.1	23.4	27.7
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14 and Sudan ages 10–14.
Source: UCW, 2017.

As for the economic activities of older children (15 to 17 years old), they seem to vary more across countries, with a predominance of agriculture in countries such as Egypt (48 per cent), Sudan (57 per cent) and Yemen (58 per cent), but industry in Tunisia (49 per cent), and services in Jordan (55 per cent) and OPT (60 per cent). Iraq provides an interesting example where active children of this age group seem to be more equally distributed among sectors, with a higher share in industry (39 per cent) and agriculture (36 per cent) (table 14).

Table 14. Children in employment, 15–17 years age group, by sector and country

Sector	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
Primary (agriculture)	48.3	35.8	15.5	21.4	57.5	22.7	57.4
Secondary (industry)	34.3	38.8	29.7	18.9	13.5	48.7	7.8
Tertiary (services)	17.4	25.4	54.8	59.7	29.1	28.6	34.9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14 and Sudan ages 10–14.
Source: UCW, 2017.

Sectoral composition by gender and residence

There are important differences in gender distribution among sectors, although trends differ markedly by country: While some countries are characterized by a higher percentage of girls in agriculture (Egypt, Iraq and Jordan), other countries exhibit a higher percentage of boys in the primary sector (OPT, Sudan, Yemen). We can also note a higher percentage of boys in industry and services, with some exceptions such as in Yemen and Sudan, which record a higher percentage of girls in the service sector. This can be explained by the high share of domestic services in these two countries, in which girls are mostly employed. Another exception is Tunisia with a notably higher share of female employment in industry.

The sectoral composition of child employment also differs between rural and urban areas, although all countries show the same trend: an expectedly higher share of agriculture in rural areas, and a more diversified distribution of sectors in urban areas.

Working hours by sector

Children appear to work longer hours in the secondary and tertiary sectors (tables 15 and 16). This is true for all countries and age groups. However, working hours in agriculture remain relatively high, especially in countries such as Egypt and Iraq, where children work more than 32 hours a week. According to the UCW analysis, this can be explained by the lower flexibility in work arrangements in the industry and services sectors. It should be noted that agricultural work is generally considered to be highly labour intensive but, due to its seasonal nature, the work intensity or number of working hours is more difficult to measure through household surveys. Children in rural areas might work shorter hours on average, but they work longer hours during peak agricultural seasons.

Table 15. Average weekly working hours of children (5–14 years) by sector and country

Sector		Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	Yemen 2010
Primary	Agriculture	38.8	32.9	16.8	21.8
Secondary	Manufacturing	47.7	44.9	30.4	37.3
	Other industries	45.3	36.9	29.8	33.4
Tertiary	Commerce	47.1	40.1	31.3	25.3
	Domestic services	51.5	0.0	9.7	7.6
	Other services	44.8	44.9	26.6	33.0

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14.
Source: UCW, 2017.

Table 16. Average weekly working hours of children (15–17 years) by sector and country

Sector		Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Yemen 2010
Primary	Agriculture	41.1	33.2	24.4	25.6	25.8
Secondary	Manufacturing	49.3	46.4	52.5	41.6	33.3
	Other industries	44.3	38.8	40.6	0.0	38.9
Tertiary	Commerce	48.8	44.8	53.6	44.4	34.6
	Domestic services	0.0	38.0	14.0	0.0	11.7
	Other services	49.8	43.0	47.7	42.1	46.0

Source: UCW, 2017.

4.2 Agriculture: Small-scale farming

Child labour in agriculture is mainly related to small-scale farming, where cheap intensive labour is in high demand, especially on family farms that often depend on the additional work of children. This section provides a general overview of child employment in agriculture in the Arab countries, and provides country-specific illustrations on child labour on family farms in Morocco, family farms in Egypt, and the qat sector in Yemen.

4.2.1 Overview

Globally, agriculture represents less than 4 per cent of GDP, but in the Arab region some 7.2 per cent of GDP is generated by agriculture.[1] Aside from Sudan where agriculture is the second biggest sector with 39 per cent of GDP in 2016, it is the smallest sector in all other Arab countries in terms of GDP share. However, in certain Arab countries the size of this sector remains three times higher than the global average – e.g. Syria (18 per cent in 2007), Morocco (13 per cent in 2016), Algeria (13 per cent in 2016), Egypt (12 per cent in 2016), Yemen (10 per cent in 2016) and Tunisia (10 per cent in 2015). [2] Agriculture also hosts an important share of the national labour force in Yemen (33 per cent), Morocco (33 per cent), Egypt (25 per cent), Iraq (20 per cent) and Syria (18 per cent)[3] (see Appendix 6).

1 These figures are for 2015. Figures for the Arab region include the 22 LAS countries. Source: World Bank Data Website (2017).

2 World Bank Data Website (2017). Agriculture, value added (per cent of GDP). Available at: http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NV.AGR.TOTL.ZS. [Accessed 12 December 2017]. The World Bank provides the most recent figures available for each country. The statistics provided thus originate from different years for different countries.

3 World Bank Data Website (2017). Employment in agriculture (per cent of total employment) (modelled ILO estimate). Available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.AGR.EMPL.ZS. [Accessed 17 January 2018]; International Labour Organization, ILOSTAT database. [Data retrieved in March 2017].

As previously stated, some 71 per cent of child labour globally is found in the agriculture sector.[1] This can be explained by the higher concentration of vulnerable households in rural areas, which rely on agriculture to ensure their food security and use the work of children as a coping mechanism. The informal nature of agriculture also helps explain this higher concentration, where most child labourers work as unpaid family farmers, as does the demand for cheap low-skilled labour in this sector.

When it comes to child labour in the Arab region, agriculture seems to be predominant in the aforementioned countries with a substantial primary sector, such as Yemen, Sudan and Egypt, where agriculture accounts for more than half of children in employment (table 17).

Table 17. Percentage of children employed in agriculture by country and age group

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
5–14 years	56.2	62.6	43.6	(no data)	67.5	(no data)	70.0
15–17 years	48.3	35.8	15.5	21.4	57.5	22.7	57.4

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, and Sudan ages 10–14.

Source: UCW, 2017.

The predominance of agriculture calls for special attention since this sector is characterized by early entry into work (sometimes as young as 5 or 7 years of age), and it has been identified by the ILO as one of the three most dangerous sectors of work for all ages, along with construction and mining. It is characterized by a high level of work-related fatalities, non-fatal accidents and occupational diseases. This is the result of working with dangerous equipment, carrying heavy loads, and being exposed to pesticides, in addition to long working hours.[2]

The majority of children in the agricultural sector in the Arab region are unpaid family workers. This is especially the case of younger children aged 5 to 14 (tables 18 and 19).

1 ILO. 2017. Global estimates of child labour: Results and trends, 2012–2016 (Geneva).

2 FAO. 2017. Child labour in agriculture in protracted crises, fragile and humanitarian contexts.

Table 18. Children's employment status (ages 5–14 years) in agriculture by country (percentage)

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	Sudan 2008	Yemen 2010
Paid non-family worker	17.1	0.8	4.4	14.8	5.6
Self-employed	1.7	7.4	1.8	16.9	1.8
Unpaid family worker	81.2	91.8	84.6	68.3	92.6

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, and Sudan ages 10–14. Categories not shown include "Other" for Jordan (1.1 per cent).
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys.

Table 19. Children's employment status (ages 15–17) in agriculture by country (percentage)

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
Paid non-family worker	29.3	1.4	17.4	26.6	21.1	31.7	15.5
Self-employed	3.1	9.6	5.1	0.0	23.0	13.7	3.2
Unpaid family worker	67.6	89	66.5	73.4	55.9	54.6	81.2

Note: Categories not shown include "Other" for Jordan (11.0 per cent).
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys.

Children mostly work as unpaid family members either because their family depends on the additional income generated by their work, or because the family enterprise depends on their work. [1]

However, whether unpaid family work or paid non-family work, child workers in this sector are in demand because they represent cheap labour for small-scale farming – mostly non-mechanized labour-intensive methods of production involving high risks, with production costs borne by farm owners.[2] The following country illustrations of child labour in small-scale farming describe the situation in the Arab region.

1 ILO. 2017. Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes (Geneva).
2 Interview with Faten Adada and Ali Darwish, FAO Lebanon, 2 November 2017.

Textbox 5. Determinants of child labour in agriculture: The case of Lebanon

Poverty is generally considered the main cause of child labour in agriculture, especially when present with other factors such as limited access to education, agricultural technology or adult labour, and when traditional attitudes towards children's involvement in agricultural activities prevail. Due to the high level of hazards in this sector though, safe forms of child employment in agriculture are rare, yet in some cases non-hazardous work can be positive for children as it ensures the transfer of skills between generations and increases food security. [1]

When it comes to child labour in agriculture, laws and regulations are not enough. Policy interventions should consider socioeconomic and market determinants. A discussion with FAO experts in Lebanon revealed several determinants of child labour in agriculture from the perspective of both employers and households.

Employers' perspective

Agriculture holdings are very small in Lebanon, requiring cheap labour, especially in the absence of large-scale mechanized production processes. This is why girls are recruited for labour intensive activities – they represent cheaper labour than boys.

Moreover, farmers have no crop insurance for frost or other risks. They absorb all production costs and risks. Farming families, however, are starting to shift away from agriculture. For example, a Lebanese farmer might hire Syrian children to work the land, but then send their own children to Beirut to work in a restaurant.

Costs of production can be reduced through the adoption of good agricultural practices, such as integrated pest management and increased mechanization. Such practices can also reduce safety hazards and the functional dependency on child labour. Market interventions should aim at tackling product prices and marketing, productivity and product costs (storage and energy for instance), and enhancing the institutional setup, role, regulations and responsibilities of cooperatives.

Households' perspective

From the perspective of households, the push factors appear to be poverty, social norms, lack of enforcement of compulsory education, and lack of social security. The indirect costs of education are too high for families to bear, from ensuring daily snacks to books and registration costs. For refugee households, the work of children provides an additional income on top of humanitarian cash transfers.

1 ILO - IPEC Website. 2017. Child labour in agriculture, Idem.

Tackling child labour determinants from the household side requires reducing the costs of the child on the household to zero. This means ensuring not only social protection, but also granting access to free or low-cost water and electricity, in order to eliminate the need for extra income.

FAO has launched a social protection programme that includes a child labour component and other social protection aspects such as health coverage and a pension for farmers. It also works on providing access to decent work for children aged 15 to 18, and raising awareness on occupational safety and health (OSH), including the hazards of pesticide.

Source: Interview with Faten Adada and Ali Darwish, FAO Lebanon, 2 November 2017.

4.2.2 Family farms in Morocco

The 2012 National Labour Survey found that 5 per cent of rural children (113,000 in total) are economically active, compared with 0.4 per cent in urban areas, and only 25 per cent of active children also go to school. There is a relative gender balance among children working in agriculture (51% boys and 49% girls). However, the 2017 survey reveals an increasec in the percentage of boys to 65.4% working in that same sector.[1]

As 2017 survey also shows, 89% of children working in the agricultural sector are unpaid family workers.This usually implies that their work is invisible and informal which makes it difficult to identify these children and to protect them from hazardous work.[2] [3]

A 2008 ILO–IPEC study [4] on hazardous child work in agriculture in Morocco showed that children generally work in unfavourable conditions in the cultivation of cereals, vegetable crops, arboriculture and livestock. Children work, on average, 8 hours per day with 44 per cent receiving no weekly rest and 90 per cent no annual vacations. They have no social coverage, lack protection from hazards, and their work is often strenuous and intense. The 2017 survey reveals that children in the agricultural sector alos work for an average of 36.8 hours per week.

In Morocco, child labour in agriculture is concentrated in poor rural areas. It appears to be especially driven by the lack of infrastructure (schools, water and electricity) and by low education levels among parents, especially mothers. Children are more likely to attend school instead of working if: (1) their parents are educated; (2) there is a school in their neighbourhood; and, especially, (3) their household has access to water and electricity

1 Haut Commisariat au Plan. 2017. Enquete Nationale sur L'Emploi. www.mobile.menara.ma.

2 HCP. 2018. Idem.

3 ILO. 2015. Idem; FAO. 2010. La FAO et ses actions destinées à éliminer le travail des enfants dans l'agriculture. Available at: www.fao.org/docrep/013/am036f/am036f11.pdf.

4 ILO. 2015. Idem.

networks. The household structure also plays a role: the presence of an additional adult reduces the probability of child employment, while the presence of toddlers (children aged 0 to 5) increases the probability of employment for older children (aged 7 to 14). [1]

Illustration from Morocco: Programme to improve the situation of working children in Morocco

Since 2000, several programmes that combat child labour have been initiated in Morocco, especially in the agricultural sector. The most recent programmes initiated include the following:

i) The National Human Development Initiative (NHDI).

Supported by the government and king of Morocco, The National Human Development Initiative (NHDI) aims to provide aid and support to isolated areas (especially in agricultural areas) through:

a) the establishment of adequate infrastructure and essential needed basic services and;

b) support for small income-generating activities (focused on mothers) with the ultimate aim of increasing enrolment (focused on girls).

Since its implementation, NHDI has worked in over 1000 agricultural areas.

ii) The Taysir Initiative.

Managed by the Ministry of Education, the Taysir Initiative successfully reduced the drop-out rate by providing financial as well as in-kind aid to almost 1 million families between 2015 and 2017.

iii) Entraide National.

The Ministry of Solidarity, Women, Family and Social Development launched and implemented the national programme " to combat child labour entitled "Entraide Nationale." A major component of this programme targeted children working in the agricultural sector, with special efforts to target girls. The programme provided children with basic literacy and education, as well as required social programmes and services.

iv) Promise Pathways Programme.

The Promise Pathways Programme from 2014 – 2017 aimed to reduce child labour, especially in agricultural areas, through education and decent work programmes. The initiative served 5,500 children by providing them with appropriate education. Additionally, the programme supported the families of the children through income-generating projects with decent working conditions.

1 UCW. 2004. Idem.

4.2.3 Family farms in Egypt

The agricultural sector in Egypt is also host to the majority of children in employment in the country. According to the National Child Labour Survey 2010, [1] some 87.7 per cent of employed children in Egypt meet the definition of child labour: agriculture accounts for 63.5 per cent – 52 per cent as unpaid family workers and 11 per cent as waged workers. Most of these children (55 per cent of children in employment) work on farms, gardens and plantations. Work in agriculture is more prevalent among young girls, with 77 per cent of girls in employment found in agriculture, compared with 60 per cent of boys. More than 70 per cent of employed children combine school with economic activity, and most of them are also involved in unpaid household services.

In Egypt, almost all children working in agriculture are considered to be working in hazardous conditions. The most prevalent hazardous condition is "working in dust or fumes", affecting 45.7 per cent of child labourers. The second and third most common hazardous conditions are, respectively, "work that leads to exhaustion" (34.7 per cent) and "work that involves bending for a long time" (29.8 per cent). In addition, children frequently work without access to toilet facilities, and may be exposed to fertilizers and pesticides.

Children work around 4 hours per day on average, but about a quarter of them work 43 or more hours per week. An important share of employed children (43 per cent) work all year round, while 23.5 per cent work for 3 or 4 months per year during the summer vacation period.

Families that own farm land and livestock frequently employ their children as working hands; land ownership is a main determinant of child labour in agriculture. [2] Child labour in Egypt is also, once again, driven by low parental education, especially among mothers.

4.2.4 Qat sector in Yemen

In Yemen, qat is one of the major agricultural sub-sectors in terms of child labour, and in terms of overall growth and profitability. A rapid assessment conducted in 2015 [3] found

1 IPEC; CAPMAS. 2012. Working children in Egypt: Results of the 2010 National Child Labour Survey (Cairo, International Labour Organization, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), & Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS)).

2 A World Bank study on "the wealth paradox" in Pakistan and Ghana found that children in land-rich households were more likely to be in labour and out of school than children in land-poor households. This is related to failures of the markets for labour and land, while credit market failure tends to weaken the force of this paradox. The paradox is reduced for boys but persists for girls after adjustment for various factors (see Bhalotra, S.; Heady, C. 2003. "Child farm labor: The wealth paradox", in World Bank Economic Review, Vol. 17, No. 2 (Child Labor and Development), pp. 197-227.

3 Alaug A.; Arwa Alakhfash A.; Salem M. 2015. Child labor in qat agriculture and marketing in Yemen: Limited-scale rapid assessment - ILO internal document.

that children aged 12 to 17 work in the qat sector. Most of them are boys, while girls are sometimes assigned lighter activities on family farms, such as weeding and picking. Young boys aged 12 and 13 are also assigned light activities, while older boys are involved spraying fertilizers and land preparation. Those aged 17 also participate in transporting and selling qat on the market, and guarding farms during the daytime and, in some cases, also in the evening. The majority of these children work part time outside of school hours, either as unpaid family workers or as paid non-family workers for around 2 to 3 USD per day plus an additional plastic bag of qat.

Children working in the qat sector are exposed to hazards such as pesticides and other chemicals, dangerous tools, and carrying and climbing high ladders for fruit picking.[1] They suffer from injuries and other health problems such as headaches, allergies, chest pains, eye diseases, poisoning and coughing. Many are also exposed to qat consumption, which affects their general health (e.g. weight loss, insomnia and digestive problems).

In Yemen, working in the qat sector is mainly a result of poverty and the need to contribute to family income. Cultural factors also play a role: young boys are engaged in the labour market in order to take on responsibilities and prepare for adulthood.

Textbox 6. Hazards related to small-scale farming and food processing: The case of Lebanon

With the influx of Syrian refugees, children in Lebanon appear to be increasingly involved in small-scale farming and food processing, with the hazards that come with these sectors of activity. Below are some examples of the types of activities and risks involved.

Unpaid work on family farms: Children who work on family farms are either children of the farm owner or the children of foreign workers also living and working on the farm. They work 1 to 2 hours per day, split between early morning and evening so as not to interfere with their schooling. They are involved in activities such as hand milking, cleaning bowls and equipment when small milking machines and pumps are used, feeding cows, and collecting eggs by hand. The main hazard they face is related to toxic fumes from chicken feed that can affect their eyes and respiratory tracts.

Picking vegetables in the fields: Girls are hired for labour-intensive work, such as picking, because they represent cheap labour. Girls are paid two-thirds the rate of boys.

1 Alaug A. et al., Idem.; Interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017.

They pick beans, leafy greens, potatoes, etc. Among the risks they face are working 7 hours per day or more in the sun, carrying heavy weights, and repeated bending and standing, as well as verbal and physical harassment.

Work on orchards: Children are mainly involved in the harvest of fruits, such as olives and apples, where they might be exposed to pesticide droplets from the trees. They are also exposed to pesticides either by assisting with spraying, or by mixing pesticides with water and filling the spraying tank.

Production of pickles in the Bekaa valley: Children, especially from Syrian refugee camps, are hired by unincorporated agro-food establishments and are involved in various stages of the production process. They are involved in a number of activities, including: the production of cucumber seedlings in the nursery (carried out by boys because it involves carrying heavy trays of soil and pots), planting seedlings in the field (labour-intensive work carried out by girls), weeding, mixing and spraying pesticides, harvesting, washing cucumbers in barrels, and filling small jars with fermented pickles. This involves lifting and carrying heavy loads, bending, long exposures to humid heat in greenhouses and to sun and wind in the open fields, exposure to pesticides and acidic water, long hours of work and exhaustion.

Peeling garlic: Girls are hired to peel garlic for restaurants. They are exposed to bending for long hours, and the skin on their fingers gets damaged due to handling soaked garlic.

Food packaging: Girls aged 15–25 work on sorting and packaging products such as thyme, green almonds, vegetables, leafy vegetables, fruits, etc. They work standing for long hours.

In addition to these hazards, there is a lack of any protection gear or first aid kits on site.

Note: This information is based on field observations, but the extent of the issue is yet to be measured. An upcoming study sheds further light on the extent and characteristics of child labour in the agriculture sector in Lebanon. See UNICEF and FAO. 2018. Child labour in the agriculture sector in Lebanon – The demand side (Beirut).

Source: Interview with Faten Adada and Ali Darwish, FAO Lebanon, 2 November 2017.

4.3 Industry and services: The informal sector

While child labour in agriculture is mainly related to small-scale farming, especially on family farms, child labour in the secondary and tertiary sectors is found in the informal sector, which is particularly prone to child labour since, by definition, it escapes regulatory and inspection oversight.

This section provides a general overview of child employment in industry and services in the Arab region, and then gives country-specific illustrations on child labour in the urban informal sector in Jordan, the traditional sector in Morocco, and brick factories in Baghdad.

4.3.1 Overview

The informal sector refers mainly to small, non-agricultural, unincorporated enterprises. [1] In other words, the informal sector refers to unregistered economic activities in the sectors of industry and services. The informal economy in general includes informal workers within or outside the informal sector, such as individuals working for their own account, contributing family workers and employees holding informal jobs. [2] According to the ILO, the informal economy accounts for 50 to 75 per cent of all non-agricultural employment in developing countries.[3]

Below is an overview of child employment in the secondary and tertiary sectors.

Children employed in the industrial sector

Industry represents 26 per cent of global GDP and 39 per cent of GDP in the Arab region.[4] These figures on the industry sector "comprise value added in mining, manufacturing, construction, electricity, water, and gas." It is generally the second biggest sector of economic activity in the Arab region, such as in Egypt (33 per cent in 2016), Syria (33 per cent in 2007), Jordan (29 per cent in 2016), Tunisia (28 per cent in 2015) and Morocco (30 per cent in 2016), while in Yemen it represents the biggest sector [5] (48 per cent in 2016). [6] It represents a substantial share of the labour force, with more than 30 per cent

1 As per the definition adopted by the 15th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 1993.

2 As per the definition of informal employment adopted at the 17th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in December 2003.

3 ILO Website.2017. Informal economy [online]. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-promotion/informal-economy/lang--en/index.htm [Accessed 12 December 2017].

4 These figures are for 2015. Figures for the Arab region include the 22 LAS countries. Source: World Bank Data Website, 2017.

5 These are the most recent figures available for this country. However, the industrial sector has suffered great damage from the conflict and the embargo imposed on Yemen, which have affected the infrastructure and availability of fuel, water and electricity. (Interview with Ali Dehaq, ILO country coordinator, Yemen office, 12 October 2017.)

6 World Bank Data Website. 2017. Industry, value added (per cent of GDP). [online] Available at: http://data.worldbank.

in countries such as Qatar (54 per cent), Syria (39 per cent), Algeria (35 per cent) and Bahrain (33 per cent) and more than 20 per cent in countries such as Kuwait (27 per cent), Egypt and Libya (25 per cent), Saudi Arabia (23 per cent) and Morocco, Iraq and UAE (21 per cent). Its share of the labour force remains lower in a minority of countries such as Mauritania (10 per cent) and Somalia and Comoros (5 per cent) [1] (see Appendix 6). This is reflected in the rates of child labour in the industrial sector in a number of Arab countries, which present with higher rates of child labour than the global average of 12 per cent, especially among the 15–17 age group. Such is the case in Egypt (24 per cent among children aged 5–14 and 34 per cent among those aged 15–17), Iraq (19 per cent and 39 per cent), Jordan (30 per cent among children aged 15–17) and Tunisia, where the highest rate of child labour among those aged 15–17 is found in the industrial sector (49 per cent) (table 20).

Table 20. Percentage of employed children in the industrial sector by age group and country

Age group	Sub-sector	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
5–14	Manufacturing	11.1	4.0	6.2	(no data)	0.9	(no data)	1.1
	Other industries	13.3	14.9	8.1	(no data)	8.2	(no data)	1.1
	Total	24.4	18.9	14.3	(no data)	9.1	(no data)	2.2
15–17	Manufacturing	12.8	7.2	15.1	18.9	3.1	32.9	4.1
	Other industries	21.5	31.6	14.7	0.0	10.4	15.8	3.7
	Total	34.3	38.8	29.8	18.9	13.5	48.7	7.8

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, Sudan ages 10–14.

Source: UCW, 2017.

Child labour in this sector is characterized by paid non-family work, which represents more than 80 per cent of child employment in countries such as Egypt and Iraq, and about

org/indicator/NV.AGR.TOTL.ZS. [Accessed 12 December 2017]. The World Bank provides the most recent figures available for each country. The statistics provided therefore originate from different years for different countries. These figures on the industry sector comprise value added in mining, manufacturing, construction, electricity, water, and gas.

1 World Bank Data Website. 2017. Employment in industry [online]. Available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.IND.EMPL.ZS. [Accessed 17 January 2018]; ILOSTAT database. Data retrieved in March 2017.

60 per cent in Jordan. It represents 100 per cent of 15–17 year-old children working in the OPT and 88 per cent of 15–17 year-old children working in Tunisia. The only exception to this trend is found in Sudan where the majority of children working in this sector are unpaid family workers and around a quarter are self-employed (tables 21 and 22).

Table 21. Employment status of children (5–14 years) in the industrial sector by country (percentages)

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	Sudan 2008	Yemen 2010
Paid non-family worker	89.0	83.9	59.8	18.6	63.9
Self-employed	1.0	11.1	6.4	23.6	5.6
Unpaid family worker	10.0	5.0	33.7	57.8	30.6

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, Sudan ages 10–14.

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys.

Table 22. Employment status of children (15–17 years) in the industrial sector by country (percentages)

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
Paid non-family worker	91.8	82.9	75.3	100	38.9	87.9	58.5
Self-employed	2.3	9.0	10.1	0.0	19.7	2.4	21.7
Unpaid family worker	5.9	8.1	14.6	0.0	41.4	9.8	19.8

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys.

Children employed in the services sector

Services represent 69 per cent of global GDP and 54 per cent of GDP overall in the Arab region.[1] It is generally the biggest sector of economic activity in the Arab region, representing more than 50 per cent of GDP in countries such as Egypt (55 per cent in

1 These figures are for 2015. Figures for the Arab region include the 22 LAS countries. Source: World Bank Data Website, 2017.

2016), Sudan (58 per cent in 2016), Morocco (58 per cent in 2016), Tunisia (61 per cent in 2015), Jordan (67 per cent in 2016) and Lebanon (81 per cent in 2016). [1] Worldwide, services employ 50 per cent the labour force and 55 per cent in the Arab region[2] (see Appendix 6).

Globally the tertiary sector in child labour accounts for 17 per cent, but 11 per cent in Africa and 27 per cent in the Arab states.[3] Figures in table 23 show that countries such as Egypt and Iraq are closer to the global average, while the share of services in child labour reaches up to 27 per cent or higher in countries such as Yemen, Tunisia, Jordan and OPT.

Table 23. Percentage of employed children in the services sector by age group and country

Age group	Sub-sector	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
5–14	Commerce	14.8	8.9	25.6	(no data)	2.8	(no data)	5.9
	Domestic service	0.3	0.0	12.2	(no data)	13.3	(no data)	19.9
	Other services	4.2	9.7	4.3	(no data)	7.3	(no data)	1.9
	Total	19.3	18.6	42.1	(no data)	23.4	(no data)	27.7
15–17	Commerce	9.4	12.4	32.3	21.0	5.6	13.1	14.4
	Domestic service	0.0	0.0	5.2	0.0	9.4	0	13.8
	Other services	8.0	13.0	17.3	38.7	14.1	15.5	6.7
	Total	17.4	25.4	54.8	59.7	29.1	28.6	34.9

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, Sudan ages 10–14.
Source: UCW, 2017.

Child employment status, as shown in table 24 and table 25, is more diversified in the services sector than in the two other sectors, with a relative predominance of paid non-family work, except for Yemen, where unpaid family work is the most common status in this sector.

1 World Bank Data Website. 2017. Services, value added. [online] Available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/NV.SRV.TETC.ZS [Accessed 12 December 2017].

2 World Bank Data Website. 2017. Employment in services [online]. Available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.SRV.EMPL.ZS [Accessed 17 January 2018]; ILOSTAT database. Data retrieved in March 2017.

3 ILO Global Estimates. 2017.

Table 24. Employment status of children (5–14 years) in the services sector by country (percentages)

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	Sudan 2008	Yemen 2010
Paid non-family worker	64.6	57.8	35.0	27.6	3.8
Self-employed	4.3	20.5	8.5	25.5	2.9
Unpaid family worker	31.1	21.7	55.4	46.9	93.3

Note: Egypt includes ages 6–14, Iraq ages 12–14, Sudan ages 10–14. Categories not shown include "Other" (Jordan, 1.1 per cent).
Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys.

Table 25. Employment status of children (15–17 years) in the services sector by country (percentages)

	Egypt 2012	Iraq 2011	Jordan 2016	OPT 2012	Sudan 2008	Tunisia 2013	Yemen 2010
Paid non-family worker	61.2	53.4	70.3	82.8	43.3	71.1	20.5
Self-employed	16.3	34.7	9.5	2.8	32.2	9.5	13.6
Unpaid family worker	22.5	11.9	20.2	14.4	24.5	19.3	65.9

Source: UCW calculations based on national household surveys.

4.3.2 Urban informal sector in Jordan

In 2014, the ILO conducted a field study of child labour in the urban informal sector in Jordan.[1] The informal sector in Jordan represented 44 per cent of the labour force in 2010, and was considered to be growing at a faster rate than the formal sector.

Child labourers were found to be working on the streets or in the service industry, serving food/drinks in restaurants or in tea and food shops, or working as cleaners or shop assistants. Older children were also found in more hazardous environments such as

1 The rapid assessment of child labour in the urban informal sector covered three governorates of Jordan (Amman, Mafraq and Irbid), with the exception of children working in garages and auto-repair workshops. See ILO. 2014. Report of the rapid assessment on child labour in the urban informal sector in three governorates of Jordan (Amman, Mafraq and Irbid).

metal working and welding, and carrying out heavy manual work that involves lifting and carrying. In interviews with child labourers, 73 per cent reported working 6 or 7 days per week, and 64 per cent reported working between 4 and 8 hours per day.

Child labourers were paid between 4 and 7 USD per day, mostly in cash. More than half of these children reported a stable monthly income. However, 13 per cent said they were not always being paid in full. It is clear that not all children can rely on a stable monthly, or even daily, income and many are dependent on the needs of their employers and their commitment to timely pay.

Child labour in Jordan involves mainly boys. Little data was available on the work of girls, especially "homebound girls".[1] As for employers, the majority of those interviewed owned small businesses and 83 per cent had no familial relationship to the children they employed.

The informal sector presents a challenge for labour inspection. Jordan is seeking to upgrade its labour inspection capacities, and now has 214 labour inspectors, 20 of whom are child labour focal points who are responsible for identifying child labourers, reporting on these cases to the Child Labour Unit at the Ministry of Labour, and referring them to local organizations. In this regard, the Ministry is faced with two challenges: (1) increasing the number of inspectors in order to provide sufficient capacity for effective geographical coverage; and (2) finding a viable alternative for child labourers and their families once they are identified and removed from the workplace. It should be noted that academic reinsertion is not possible where a child has been out of school for more than three years, and there are seldom any sustainable solutions that would compensate the family for losing an income they relied upon.

Employers hire children because they represent cheaper labour and are easier to manage. But from a household's perspective, different factors come into play, from economic to cultural. Families living in poverty rely on their children for additional income to cover basic living costs such as rent, food and bills. This is especially true for Syrian families outside of refugee camps in Jordan[2] who are trying to survive in urban areas. They are

1 Homebound girls are girls under the age of 18 who withdraw themselves, or are withdrawn by their parents, from school and spend their days working as domestic labourers in their house. A qualitative study was conducted in 2013 on homebound girls in Jordan to identify possible interventions. (See Information and Research Center – King Hussein Foundation and Save the Children. 2013. Homebound Girls in Jordan.)

2 1. Comments of the Jordanian Permanent Mission to the League of Arab States in Cairo:
a.) Child labour is prevalent within refugee camps, as well as outside of them.
b.) Jordan has made significant efforts to provide Syrian adults and children with residency permits to ensure their legal stay in Jordan.
c.) The juvenile justice system law was amended in 2014 to incorporate child labourers who need special protection and rehabilitation.

running out of savings and suffer high rates of adult unemployment, largely as a result of limited access to work permits. In addition to international aid, they rely on child labour as a coping mechanism.

For families in economic distress, education is not considered as immediately valuable as their child's financial contribution. In any case, given the meagre job opportunities for educated youth, families tend to believe that work provides a better basis for developing their children's skills than formal education.

This adds to a number of push factors, especially among refugee children, such as overcrowded schools due to the influx of refugees, school violence and bullying, curriculum differences, lack of official papers proving educational attainment, and the indirect costs of education (transport, books, clothes and lunch). Once out of school, the child is more likely to enter the labour market than stay idle at home.

Textbox 7. Jordan's response to child labour

The Jordanian government launched the "National Framework to Combat Child Labour" in 2011 which was prepared by the National Council for Family Affairs, in coordination with relevant Ministries. The framework was supported by the ILO and aims to unify all efforts to tackle child labour, identify cases of child labour, and refer them to the appropriate and available services across Jordan. The following are some of the achievements of the National Framework:

- the creation of the Child Labour Unit within the Ministry of Labour, whose personnel are well trained on the various aspects of child labour, including OSH indicators and incorporating OSH;
- the adoption of a child labour manual;
- the development of a Child Labour Monitoring System, which brings together the three ministries onto one platform through an electronic database on child labour;
- the creation of a Child Labour Unit within the Ministry of Social Development (as per Juvenile Law No. 32 of 2014);
- the Jordan National Child Labour Survey 2016.

Source: Interview with Nihayat Dabdoub, ILO Jordan, 23 October 2017.

4.3.3 Traditional sector in Morocco

In 2014, the informal economy represented 40 per cent of Morocco's GDP , according to the "Haut Commissariat au Plan".[1] The "traditional sector" represents an important share of the informal sector and still follows an antique mode of manufacture and artisanal production, following the traditional hierarchy of master, artisan, apprentice and young worker. It includes activities such as the manufacture of leather, pottery, textiles, plant-based products, metals, wood and other artistic products. The traditional sector is a remnant of the classical popular economy and is considered to play a crucial role in the socioeconomic development of Morocco's local communities. [2]

According to a study conducted in 2010, the majority of employers in this sector hire one or two children in their workshop, mostly boys aged 11 to 17, although 38 per cent of children reported entering into work between the ages of 7 and 11. In most cases, this work involves remunerated non-family work, for an average of 50 hours of work per week (around 9 hours per day, 6 days per week), with a mid-day break of an hour and a half.

Children are exposed to risks related to long hours of work, using manual tools and techniques without protection, and dangerous products. They work in dirty, dusty locations, with security risks related to moving around the location, and a lack of fire extinguishers, toilets or running water. Some 70 per cent of children sampled had only received primary level education, and only 10 per cent attended school.

4.3.4 Brick factories in Baghdad

Baghdad's outskirts are characterized by widespread slums and internal displacement. Residents suffer from severe poverty, unemployment, illiteracy, lack of access to education and health services, and poor sanitary conditions. This particularly affects children who often find themselves in situations of early marriage, exploitation, begging and working in factories and workshops in hazardous conditions.

This is the case of Nahrawan, host to the city's brick factories. A rapid assessment[3] was

1 Economist Intelligence Unit, Morocco. 2016. Informal sector contributes 40 per cent of GDP (26 October 2016). Available at: http://country.eiu.com/article.aspx?articleid=1974747981&Country=Morocco&topic=Economy&subtopic=Forecast&subsubtopic=Economic+growth&u=1&pid=1101794494&oid=1101794494.

2 Royaume du Maroc, Ministère de l'Emploi et de la Formation Professionnelle; BIT; UNICEF. 2010. Etude sur le travail des enfants dans les activités à caractère purement traditionnel.

3 UNICEF; Iraqi Al-Amal Association; Republic of Iraq Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; Republic of Iraq Child Welfare Commissions. 2015. A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour, Republic of Iraq (December, 2015).

conducted in this area to study the situation of child labourers and their families. Nahrawan suffers from many years of deprivation and neglect, and from poor air quality, especially due to toxic fumes from fuel burning in factories located close to residential areas.
The brick factories in Nahrawan are known to employ a majority of internally displaced families and a large number of children. The parents enter into a binding agreement with the factory owner, forcing their children into labour. They are often in debt and live on the factory premises.

Most of these children suffer from depression and psychological violence. They work long hours without any break. Three out of four children interviewed work at night, when most of the factory work is carried out, and suffer from lack of sleep and exhaustion. They also suffer from long exposure to the sun and to extreme temperatures from brick ovens, and from various types of injuries from dealing with heavy loads and working without any safety tools. The most highly remunerated task is brick packing, which is mostly carried out by women and girls who work in pairs for around 12 USD per week.

Children also face pollution hazards from factory smoke and gas emissions, dust from the surrounding desert and street vehicles, and stagnant rainwater mixed with sewage and drainage water used for bathing, cleaning and dishwashing. This puts them at risk of bacterial infections and respiratory, thoracic and neurological diseases. Most children suffer from pulmonary problems and sore eyes.

> **The first indicator of pollution was immediately evident to interviewers in approaching the factory area, as it was impossible to see the factory buildings due to the black cloud of smoke and gas emissions. Even inside the factory, vision was impaired as a result of the smoke coming from the combustion process during the production of bricks. The air contains high rates of carbon particles, in addition to carbon monoxide, nitrogen, sulphur and non-burned hydrocarbons.**[1]

None of the children in the sample went to school. Most of them are illiterate. They come from destitute, displaced families, but they also live in a remote area with no schools located close to the factories. The area also lacks any health centre, mosque, market, or playground.

> **Families living in the Nahrawan area are cut off from the outside world.**[2] **During field visits, the IAA did not observe any children playing. Children and**

1 UNICEF; Iraqi Al-Amal Association; Republic of Iraq Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; Republic of Iraq Child Welfare Commissions. 2015. A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour, Republic of Iraq (December, 2015) page 40.

2 Ibid. page 60

adults appear exhausted from long days of work. … Initial observations noted fatigue, deprivation and shame on the faces of children.[1]

Interventions from either the police or labour inspectors in the Nahrawan brick factories seem non-existent.

Textbox 8. Girls in domestic work: The case of Tunisia

The ILO reports that millions of children around the world, mainly girls, are found in paid or unpaid domestic work. They are employed to carry out household services by third party private households. These services include tasks such as cleaning, ironing, cooking, gardening, collecting water, looking after children and caring for the elderly. Around two thirds of these children are estimated to be in child labour (such as working below the legal minimum age) and in very hazardous conditions. This is a concerning situation due to risks of seclusion, lack of school attendance and violations of children's rights. Another concern is the perception of domestic work in general as "being something other than employment" and lacking a proper legal and social protection framework. [2]

Child domestic work is common across the Arab region, although the extent of the phenomenon in each country is difficult to measure. A rapid assessment[3] conducted in 2014 on child domestic work in two governorates in Tunisia shows that this phenomenon is widespread among children, especially girls, who come from vulnerable families affected by poverty, precarity and unemployment. Sending out daughters to work in a third-party household has become common practice among families in the two regions of Bizerte and Jendouba. Most of these girls are between 11 and 16 years old and work 10 hours per day on average, six days a week. Domestic work doesn't ensure vocational training or a decent job for them in the future.[4]

It should be noted that none of the 22 LAS member States has ratified ILO Convention No. 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers. Article 4 of this convention stipulates that states shall set a minimum age for domestic work and take measures

1 Ibed, page 59.

2 ILO. 2013. Ending child labour in domestic work and protecting young workers from abusive working conditions.

3 OIT. 2016. Etude sur les enfants travailleurs domestiques en Tunisie – Cas type des enfants originaires des gouvernorats de Jendouba et Bizerte; BIT; Ministère des affaires sociales. 2015. Plan d'action national pour la lutte contre le travail des enfants en Tunisie.

4 Domestic child labour in Tunisia is present but not very clear as the National Child Labour Survey of 2017 carried out by the Ministry of Social Affairs through the National Institute of Statistics with the support of the ILO shows that only 0.6% of working children work in their own homes or those of others.

to ensure that child domestic workers are not deprived of compulsory education or from opportunities to participate in further education or vocational training. Recommendation No. 201 relative to this convention further states that members should identify a list of hazardous child domestic work and take regulatory measures to protect domestic workers under 18 such as: strictly limiting working hours to allow time for rest, leisure, education and family; prohibiting night work; placing restrictions on work that is excessively demanding; and establishing mechanisms to monitor their working and living conditions.

It is important to note here that after the issuing of the national law No. 58 in Tunisia in 2017 on violence against women, the recruitment of girls in domestic work was prohibited. Recruiters or mediators found facilitating such labour, whether directly or indirectly, face fines and imprisonment. Such policy positions relating to child labour are considered a significant achievements in the Arab States .[1]

The ILO highlights the needs for improved data collection to measure the extent and nature of child domestic work, and calls for a strategic policy response to domestic child labour which cuts across different areas such as labour legislation on decent work, social protection, labour markets, education, strategic communication and advocacy, and institutional capacity building.[2]

4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, in the absence of aggregate data on child labour in the Arab region, available country data and regional estimates for the of Africa and ILO ROAS show that child labour in the Arab region is mostly found in agriculture, followed by services and industry. Country-level data also point to the following trends:

- A higher prevalence of child labour in agriculture is found among children aged 5 to 14, while the sector distribution of children aged 15 to 17 is more varied and shows a higher incidence of work in services and industries compared with younger children.
- Girls' activity varies greatly among countries, depending on the specificity of local economies, keeping in mind that household surveys often fail to capture certain types of hidden child labour among girls.
- Children tend to work longer hours in industry and services. But it should be

1 .In 2015, the government of Tunisia endorsed the National Action Plan Against Child Labour (20152017-) which consists of programmes to limit the phenomenon of child labour in the country. Within the framework of this National Plan, the government of Tunisia signed a protocol with the ILO entitled "All against Child Labour in Tunisia," to be implemented between 2017 and 2020.

2 ILO. 2013. Ending child labour in domestic work and protecting young workers from abusive working conditions.

noted that agricultural work is generally more labour intensive but seasonal, making it more difficult for household surveys to capture its intensity.

The majority of children in the agricultural sector in the Arab region are unpaid family workers, especially younger children aged 5 to 14. Child labour in agriculture is mainly related to small-scale farming, where cheap intensive labour is in high demand, and especially on family farms, which often depend on the additional work of the child. A closer look at children in agriculture in Lebanon, Morocco, Egypt and Yemen highlights the following push factors: household poverty, low parental education and social norms, lack of access to education or lack of enforcement of compulsory education, lack of access to water and electricity networks, and lack of social security.

Agriculture is one of the most hazardous sectors of activity. Children working in this sector are exposed to the following hazards, which vary in degree and combination depending on the activity: exposure to chemicals, pesticides, dust and fumes; carrying heavy loads; working long hours and repeated bending and standing; working at heights; working in isolation; long hours of exposure to the sun and other climatic conditions; working with dangerous tools and moving parts of farm machinery; and lack of protective gear or first aid on site.

Children working on family farms often lack social and legal protections. Countries can choose to apply the exemption allowed by Article 5 of ILO Convention No. 138 and exclude children working on family farms from the legal provisions on minimum age (Appendix 7). It should be noted, however, that this exemption does not apply to any form of hazardous work. In remote rural areas there are further issues regarding the limited capacity of labour inspectors and the lack of geographical coverage, often leaving rural children labour out of the purview of government oversight.

Child labour in the secondary and tertiary sectors is found in informal employment, which is particularly prone to child labour since, by definition, it escapes regulatory and inspection oversights. Child labour in the industrial sector is characterized by paid non-family work, while the status of employment is more diversified in the services sector, with a relative predominance of paid non-family work.

A closer look at children in the informal sector in Jordan, Morocco and Iraq highlights the following determinants of child labour: household poverty and reliance on the additional income from children's work, especially in the case of refugees and IDPs; the limited value of education in the absence of future job prospects; limited labour inspection capacities; and, from the employer's perspective, children represent cheaper labour and are easier to manage.

Children working in these sectors face various hazards depending on the type of activity, the most common of which are: long hours of work, dust and pollution hazards, injury and security risks, carrying heavy loads and working without protection. Based on the presented country studies, the majority of children working in these sectors do not attend school.

As for young girls (usually under the age of 16) found in domestic work, they face a concerning situation due to risks of seclusion, lack of school attendance and violations of children's rights. The ILO has highlighted the need for improved data collection in order to measure the extent and nature of child domestic work across the Arab region and has called for a strategic policy response to domestic child labour.

5. Child Labour in armed conflict

More than half of Arab countries are currently affected by conflicts or inflows of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). This includes: Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Palestine, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, Tunisia and Yemen. This puts vulnerable groups in a precarious condition, and especially children who become more likely to be involved in child labour. This chapter explores (1) the impact of population displacement on child labour, and (2) the recruitment and use of children in armed conflict.

5.1 Child labour and population displacement

Since the outbreak of the Syrian conflict in 2011, more than 5 million refugees have fled their homes to find shelter in neighbouring countries,[1] which already have limited capacity in terms of labour markets, infrastructure and government services.[2] Below we explore the impact of the refugee crisis on child labour in neighbouring countries Lebanon and Jordan.[3] We also present the special case of Iraq where the influx of refugees has added to the impact of ongoing instability and internal displacement.

5.1.1 Lebanon

According to the Lebanon Crisis Response Plan 2017–2020, Lebanon has an overall population of 5.9 million including 1.5 million displaced Syrians, half of which are children. The refugee crisis has affected refugee and host populations alike, especially children. At least 1.4 million Lebanese, Syrians and Palestinians are estimated to be at risk, and living in deprived conditions with acute needs for basic services and social protection.[4]

Within this context, Lebanon has witnessed a rise in child labour, especially in the agricultural sector, which comprises high risks of hazardous work.[5] According to the Baseline Survey 2016 conducted by UNICEF and the Lebanese Ministry of Social Affairs, the percentage of Syrian children engaged in child labour is 6.7 per cent. However, the rise in child labour has been witnessed not only among Syrian children but also among

1 UNHCR, 3RP Regional Refugee & Resilience Plan 2018–2019 in Response to the Syria Crisis, Regional Strategic Overview.

2 ILO Website. 2016. Refugee crisis: Child labour on the rise in Lebanon. [online] Available at: http://www.ilo.org/beirut/media-centre/fs/WCMS_496725/lang--en/index.htm [Accessed: 28 May 2017].

3 The Lebanese government refers to Syrians who have fled the conflict in their country to Lebanon as "displaced" persons, and not as "refugees." The Ministry of Social Affairs estimates the number of displaced Syrians at around a third of the Lebanese in the country (~4.5 million Lebanese).

4 Government of Lebanon and United Nations. 2017. Lebanon Crisis Response Plan 2017–2020.

5 ILO Website. 2016. Idem.

Lebanese children: the number of Lebanese children working has tripled from 2009 to 2016, with an increase of the percentage of Lebanese children engaged in child labour from 1.9 per cent to 6 per cent.[1]

Table 26. Percentage of children engaged in child labour in Lebanon by nationality

	MICS 3 (2009)	Baseline Survey (2016)
Lebanese	1.9	6.0
Syrian	4.0	6.7
Palestinian	7.3	4.9
Palestinians from Syria	1.5	4.1

Source: Lebanon Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2009, Lebanon Baseline Survey 2016.

School attendance also indicates the magnitude of the child labour phenomenon. Only 33 per cent of Syrian children are enrolled in school, and while enrolment is notably higher among Lebanese children, there were 10,000 dropouts among Lebanese students in 2015. The Lebanese government sought to increase enrolment by creating afternoon shifts in public schools in order to cater for Syrian refugee students. However, four months into the afternoon-shift programme, the Ministry of Education registered 45,000 dropouts. This was attributed to children leaving school to go to work, especially during harvest season, in addition to the lack of affordable school transportation in rural areas.[2]

Child labour among Syrian refugees is the highest in rural areas.[3] In the Beqaa valley, children work mostly in the agriculture sector as farm hands, picking beans, figs and potatoes. This raises concerns about work hazards such as exposure to pesticides and fertilizers and working long hours under the sun[4] (see Textbox 5 above on the hazards related to small-scale farming and food processing in Lebanon).

In urban areas, Syrians constitute nearly three-quarters of street working children (begging, selling flowers or tissues, shining shoes, cleaning windscreens) and they are also found working in markets, factories, auto repair shops, aluminium factories, grocery shops, coffee shops, in construction and running deliveries.[5]

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1 UNICEF. 2016. Baseline Survey 2016, Presentation. [online] Available at: data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/download.php?id=11355 [Accessed: 12 August 2017].

2 The Ministry of Social Affairs notes that children drop out of school to work in agriculture and in the streets.

3 UNICEF (2016). Baseline Survey 2016, Presentation. [online] Available at: data.unhcr.org/syrianrefugees/download.php?id=11355 [Accessed: 12 August 2017]

4 ILO Website. 2016. Refugee crisis: Child labour on the rise in Lebanon. Idem; Jones K.; Ksaifi L. 2016. Struggling to survive: Slavery and exploitation of Syrian refugees in Lebanon (The Freedom Fund).

5 Jones K.; Ksaifi L. 2016. Idem.

Young girls are also reported to work peeling garlic for restaurants, earning as little as 1 USD per day, or cleaning apartments as occasional domestic workers. Early marriages also appear to be on the rise among Syrian refugee girls in Lebanon, although there are no available figures to verify the magnitude of this phenomenon. Refugee families arrange for their teenage daughters to be married in the hope of protecting them from sexual abuse and ensuring their economic security, all the while reducing the burden on the family. Nevertheless, young girls entering a marriage face a number of risks. However, when marriage occurs without the girl's consent, it can result in lifelong slavery and sexual abuse, the girl being forced to perform domestic work and household chores by her new family. Refugee Syrian girls are also allegedly forced to work in the sex industry, but it is not possible to gather sufficient reliable information to verify this issue.[1]

Refugee households in Lebanon can also rely on child labour as a main source of income, due to their dire circumstances and living conditions. Refugees in Lebanon lack legal protections and face strict regulations concerning residency permits and the right to work. Not only does this restrict their access to humanitarian aid and to the formal job market, but it also restricts their mobility: refugees without valid paperwork are at constant risk of arrest and deportation. This also holds true for children aged 15 and above, who can no longer renew their residency for free. This has a direct effect on child labour. In order to avoid arrest at checkpoints, especially among times of increased curfews and suspicions of terrorist activities, Syrian families send their younger children to work, since they are able to move around more freely, and are in high demand among Lebanese employers who find in them cheap and compliant. This situation is exacerbated by the decision of the Lebanese government not to create camps for Refugee populations from Syria, and increases the financial burden on Syrian families. Refugees here either squat, rent apartments or live in informal camps (tented settlements), where they are liable for rent, and they are often subject to bonded labour and exploitation by landlords and camp supervisors, or shawish.[2]

Textbox 9. Shawish overseers and bonded labour in Lebanon

Syrian refugees in informal camps, notably in the agricultural fields of the Bekaa valley, live in a precarious situation, which forces them and their children into bonded labour. They pay monthly rent to the camp coordinator or shawish. The shawish rents the land from the landlord, organizes the tented settlement and rents out the tents to displaced Syrians. Each tent can fit one or two families, with a rent of 60 to 100 USD per tent. However, families often enter into a situation of bonded labour with the shawish. They

1 Jones K.; Ksaifi L. 2016. Idem.

2 ILO Website. 2016. Idem; Jones K.; Ksaifi L. 2016. Idem.

pay no rent but have an obligation to work for the account of the camp coordinator: "If you don't work, you have to leave". This does not only apply to adults. The shawish often sends out children living in the camps for work in agricultural fields, nearby farms, restaurants, or auto repair shops. He manages the relationship with employers and receives a portion of the wages. Parents cannot refuse to send out their children to work for the shawish; otherwise, they face expulsion from the camp.*

This is not a new phenomenon. Before the outbreak of the Syrian conflict, shawish overseers used to organize seasonal labour coming from Syria. With the influx of displaced populations, they quickly moved to informal camps and capitalized on the cheap labour supply and their established contacts among employers, especially in the agricultural sector. Displaced children living in urban areas also find themselves in a similar situation. They are exploited by an older family member or shawish. The overseer sends out children to beg or work on the streets, taking the money for themselves.

Bonded labour is one of the worst forms of child labour prohibited by ILO Convention 182 (Art. 3.a.).

According to ILO Senior Chid Labour Consultant, efforts have been carried out by the Lebanese Ministry of Labour, with the support of the ILO and in coordination with the General Security Office, the Farmers Union and local NGOs, to put an end to this exploitation. In 2016, the General Security Office issued a Memo prohibiting the use of children under 16 years of age in agriculture. Any shawish or employer caught in violation are referred to the Ministry of Labour for inspection and face a penalty of cancelation of their work and residency permits. The ILO has organized sensitization meetings across Lebanese agricultural regions where such practices exist, along with the General Security Forces and Ministry of Labour in order to sensitize farmers, employers and local officials on the implementation of this memo, both administratively and in regard to the child's best interests.

Sources: ILO Website. 2016. Refugee crisis: Child labour on the rise in Lebanon. [online] Available at: http://www.ilo.org/beirut/media-centre/fs/WCMS_496725/lang--en/index.htm [Accessed: 28 May 2017]; Jones K.; Ksaifi L. 2016. Struggling to survive: Slavery and exploitation of Syrian refugees in Lebanon (The Freedom Fund); Interview with Hayat Osseiran, ILO ROAS Senior Child Labour Consultant, 15 December 2017.

* The Ministry of Social Affairs notes that in spite of receiving financial aid and support for rent and livelihoods, many families still send their children to work, and to beg in the streets for extra money, even though this poses a risk of detention and deportation. Lebanon has endorsed laws and international conventions to prevent security forces from deporting any refugee, even if they have committed a crime on Lebanese territory. In ideal scenarios, refugees should have possession of their official papers in order to receive a residency permit and ensure their legal stay in the country.

5.1.2 Jordan

According to the Jordan Response Plan for the Syria Crisis 2017–2019, Jordan is host to 1.2 million Syrian refugees, which represent 13 per cent of the total population. Of the 1.2 million, only 655,833 are registered as refugees by UNHCR. While 20 per cent of registered refugees are distributed among the five official refugee camps, most refugees live in host communities (rural and urban) across Jordan.[1]

Refugees are increasingly suffering from deteriorating living conditions and increasingly expensive rents, and humanitarian assistance is not enough to relieve these families from poverty.[2] Over the years, refugee households have depleted their savings and increased their debts. The most vulnerable among them are resorting to coping strategies such as reducing food consumption, withdrawing children from school or taking on informal, exploitative jobs.[3]

Since 2014, an increasing number of children are starting to work in order to support their families, especially due to the deteriorating living conditions and the decrease in World Food Programme (WFP) vouchers. It is also difficult for adult refugees to obtain a work permit due to the high cost and strict requirements.[4] They prefer to send their children to work instead, since children have a lower risk of being prosecuted for illegal work.[5] In turn, employers prefer to hire children who represent cheaper labour, have more flexible working hours and are easier to manage. This is an appealing option for employers who face relatively small fines for hiring minors, and often escape with just a warning from labour inspectors. Labour inspection in Jordan has limited resources and geographic coverage; the majority of businesses thus escape any form of labour inspection.[6]

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1 Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (2017). The Jordan Response Plan for the Syria Crisis 2017-2019; Küppers, B., and Ruhmann, A. (2016) Child labour among refugees of the Syrian conflict (Terre des Hommes), June 2016.

2 Tamkeen Fields for Aid (2015). Syrian refugee child labour in Jordan and the risk of exploitation, 2015; Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.

3 Jordan Response Plan 2017-2019. Idem.

4 In April 2016, a new regulation was passed giving employers in the informal sector a three-month grace period to obtain work permits for Syrian refugees. This is, however, a sensitive issue, especially given the high level of unemployment among Jordanian nationals. The Government has assessed opportunities to open some sectors to Syrian refugees without compromising the livelihood opportunities for Jordanians and other migrants (Küppers and Ruhmann, 2016). Through the ILO project "Supporting the Strategic Objective of the London Syria Conference 2016," funded by the UK Foreign and Commonwealth Office, 58,000 work permits were provided to Syrian Refugees. The Jordanian Government, following a commitment made at the 2016 Supporting Syria Conference in London, "agreed to accommodate a specific number of Syrians in the labour market, in return for improved access to the European market, increased investment and soft loans", thus becoming the first country from the Arab region to facilitate work permits for Syrian refugees. (ILO Website, "Supporting the strategic objectives of the London Syria Conference 2016", available at: http://www.ilo.org/beirut/projects/WCMS_534276/lang--en/index.htm).

5 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.

6 Tamkeen Fields for Aid. 2015. Idem.

According to the National Child Labour Survey 2016, Syrian children constitute 14.6 per cent of the working child population in Jordan. However, while the rate of child labour among Jordanian children is 1.6 per cent, it is as high as 3 per cent among Syrian children (2.5 per cent in hazardous work and 0.5 per cent in non-hazardous child labour).[1] Only 72 per cent of Syrian children are in school, with a decrease in school enrolments to 40 per cent among the 15–17 age group. Syrian refugee children have been found working in various jobs and sectors, especially in commerce (wholesale and retail) and motor repairs (35 per cent), construction (21 per cent), manufacturing (15 per cent) and agriculture (10 per cent). It should be noted that 58 per cent of working Syrian children were found to be working an alarming number of hours – more than 48 hours a week.[2] While the absolute number of Syrian working children is much lower than the number of Jordanians, Syrian children are generally found to be working in harsher conditions[3] and for lower wages.[4]

5.1.3 Iraq

The Kurdistan region of Iraq

Iraq has suffered decades of internal conflict, which has undermined its economy and human development. The influx of refugees from Syria has added to an already difficult situation: as of March 2016, UNHCR registered 3.3 million internally displaced Iraqis, in addition to 250,000 Syrian refugees. The Kurdistan Region of Iraq (KRI) hosts over 1 million Iraqis and 98 per cent of Syrian refugees in Iraq, 65 per cent of whom are women and children. This has placed a major burden on the economy, job market and local infrastructure, including schools and government services.

There are no comprehensive figures on the rates of child labour among refugees and IDPs in Iraq, but field research conducted by Terre des Hommes concluded a "dramatic increase" in street-working children in KRI since the influx of Syrian refugees and the internal displacements caused by the ISIL attacks in Mosul and on Yezidis in 2014.

Children are seen begging, scavenging, selling gum or flowers, or cleaning car windows. They are also reported to work in the following sectors: agriculture (on farms or as shepherds), industries (brick-making, steel factories, carpentry and plastic recycling), services (local restaurants and hotels, shops, repairs) and household work. Most children are paid a low daily or monthly wage without any contract or social benefits. Refugee

1 Several stakeholders in Jordan indicated that these figures might underestimate the true extent of child labour, especially among refugee children. A possible reason for under-reporting by refugee communities might be the fear of deportation.

2 University of Jordan, Center for Strategic Studies. 2016. Summary report on main findings: National Child Labour Survey 2016 of Jordan (Amman).

3 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016, Idem.

4 University of Jordan, Center for Strategic Studies. 2016. Idem.

and IDP children work for longer hours and less pay than local children, and are more commonly found working on the streets and in local restaurants and hotels.

A rapid assessment carried out in Dohuk in 2015 found children working as street peddlers, in shops and restaurants, car services, agriculture, and construction.[1] Another child protection assessment by Kurdistan Save the Children found that children worked an average of 9 hours per day,[2] and that nearly half of the working children surveyed had faced physical and emotional abuse more than once. More than two-thirds of the children had dropped out of school due to displacement and child labour.[3]

As for girls, they were mostly found in domestic work, and it appears that very few refugee families send their daughters to work because of fear of sexual harassment. On the other hand, commercial sexual exploitation seems to be on the rise, especially in the form of "temporary marriage".

As in other neighbouring countries, child labour represents a coping mechanism for displaced families after exhausting their savings. The main reason children work is to support their families, who suffer from poverty and adult unemployment. Culture and a sense of pressure and responsibility, coupled with the low value placed on education, also play a role. Another incentive for children to work in Iraq is to save money with the hope of migrating to Europe for better living conditions.[4]

Other regions in Iraq

A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour[5] was conducted in 2015 in five other regions of Iraq (Baghdad, Kirkuk, Najaf, Dhi Qar, Basra). These regions also show higher rates of child labour among IDPs, especially boys. Displaced families suffer from poverty, debt, difficult living conditions, lack of food, and lack of access to water and sanitations. It is estimated that 19 per cent of the population in Iraq lives below the poverty line and most children that enter child labour do so to provide an additional income for their families.

Children in these regions are mostly found working in industry (brick factories, industrial workshops, ice factories), street work (street vending, scavenging, drug dealing, begging,

1 Save the Children/IRC/DOLSA (2015). Child labour rapid assessment (Dohuk).

2 Another assessment found children working up to 12 hours per day (Save the Children International. 2016. Child protection baseline assessment for the Oak Foundation Project. July 2016).

3 Kurdistan Save the Children. 2016. Results of child protection assessment.

4 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.

5 UNICEF; Iraqi Al-Amal Association; Republic of Iraq Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; Republic of Iraq Child Welfare Commissions. 2015. A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour, Republic of Iraq.

street vending), and in cemeteries. Children in Baghdad and Kirkuk were also found to be recruited into armed forces or groups. And widespread commercial sexual exploitation of girls was found in Kirkuk, where girls are forced into prostitution and face rape at gunpoint, gang rape, and highly unsanitary living and working conditions.

Children are starting to work at the age of eight or sometimes younger. They work long hours and often at night, especially in brick factories, where they live with their parents. Children as young as 5 years old find themselves obliged to start working. Child labourers face hazards such as heavy lifting, extreme temperatures, toxic chemicals and pollution, and they are often subjected to verbal and physical violence or sexual abuse by strangers or employers. The majority of children interviewed were also out of school, due to a lack of parental education and awareness, violence at school, or because of discrimination against girls.

5.2 Domestic impact of armed conflict on child labour

Children living in conflict zones are being forced into different types of child labour, paid and unpaid, self-organized and employed, in a wide ranges of areas like agriculture, street vending, car washing, metal work, carpentry and begging. Children are also forced into types of activities that are proper to situations of armed conflict. In Syria and Iraq, children are smuggling goods across the borders or between fighting zones, collecting oil waste, performing funerary (collecting body parts for burial) and household work, including fetching water or collecting food from fields and landfills, which may be dangerous because of widespread violence and the remnants of war.

Even more dangerous, children are increasingly being recruited and used by armed groups.[1] The recruitment and use of children in armed conflict is one of the most hazardous forms of child labour according to Convention No. 182 (Art. 3), and one of the six grave violations identified and condemned by the UN Security Council.[2] These six violations lie at the heart of the Security Council's efforts to "monitor, report and respond to abuses suffered by children in times of war". The UN Special Representative of the Secretary-General for children and armed conflict has the mandate to work and advocate for the prevention and elimination of these violations.[3] It is to be noted that four countries in the Arab region, Somalia, Sudan, Syria and Yemen, have been listed as countries where recruitment of children by armed groups takes place, while another two countries, Lebanon and Libya are under the observation of the Security Council.

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1 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.

2 Security Council Resolutions 1261 (1999) and 1612 (2005).

3 Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict. 2017. [Online] Available at: https://childrenandarmedconflict.un.org/ [Accessed: 16 August 2017].

The Report of the Secretary-General on children and armed conflict (A/70/836–S/2016/360) issued on 20 April 2016, found that the recruitment and use of children by armed groups is on the rise, affecting both local and refugee populations. The United Nations were able to verify a certain number of cases involving the recruitment and use of children by armed groups in different countries and on different sides of the conflicts (table 27). Among the listed countries, the highest numbers of verified cases of recruitment were found in Yemen (762) and Somalia (903), while the highest number of verified cases related to child detention on the grounds of involvement with an armed group was found in Somalia and Iraq.[1] Verified numbers remain an understatement of reality, due to the difficulty of conducting field research in conflict zones.[2]

Table 27. Verified cases of child recruitment and detention by armed groups by country (Jan–Dec 2015)

	Recruitment and use by armed groups	Detention
Iraq	37 *	314
Somalia	903	365
Syria	362	36
Yemen	762	183

Source: United Nations, General Assembly/Security Council, Report of the Secretary-General on children and armed conflict, A/70/836–S/2016/360 (20 April 2016).

*** Note: In Iraq, 211 cases of recruitment and use by armed groups were reported in 2015, but the United Nation were only able to verify 37 of these cases.**

Generally, the majority of children recruited to armed forces are boys. However, according to the same report, there is an emerging tendency to recruit girls and children below 15 years of age. For instance, in Syria, 56 per cent of verified recruitment cases involved children under 15, a significant increase compared with 2014 (20 per cent). Children are recruited as fighters or for manning checkpoints. The United Nations also verified the existence of military training centres in Syria for boys aged 10 to 15 years old. Hundreds of children across the Arab region are also held in detention and even tortured on grounds of being involved in armed groups. According to the Secretary-General's report, the factors contributing to child recruitment are relatively high and regular salaries, religious and ideological influence and propaganda, and sometimes even pressure and coercion by

1 United Nations, General Assembly/Security Council, Report of the Secretary-General on children and armed conflict, A/70/836–S/2016/360 (20 April 2016).

2 Hufftington Post. 2017. "How Children Are Forced to the Front Lines of Yemen's War", 7 January 2017, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/entry/yemen-child-soldiers_us_56a11eece4b0404eb8f09138.

their communities. Recruitment is not always voluntary, and there is an increasing trend in forced or deceitful recruitment.

Children are not always directly recruited as soldiers but rather used for a variety of purposes such as scouts, guards and runners. These are referred to as children associated with armed forces or armed groups and include "any person below 18 years of age who is, or has been, recruited or used by an armed force or armed group in any capacity, including but not limited to children – boys and girls – used as fighters, cooks, porters, messengers and spies or for sexual purposes"[1] (see Paris Principles, 2007, Art. 2.1.). They are also excluded from education for extensive periods of time, and may end up participating in hostilities, losing their protection as civilians and placing their lives in peril.[2]

Another major concern is enslavement, sexual slavery[3] and commercial sexual exploitation of girls by ISIS in Syria and Iraq. Girls are also subjected to forced domestic work and other forms of forced labour.[4]

5.2.1 Yemen

Yemen is facing a dire economic and humanitarian situation, due to the ongoing armed conflicts and the imposition of sieges, blockades and restrictions on movement. The United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights reports that, in addition to airstrikes, shelling, and human rights violations, the Yemeni people find themselves with damaged infrastructure and limited or no access to food, basic goods, healthcare and education. As of June 2017, in a population of 27.4 million, more than 3 million people have been internally displaced, and 18.8 million require humanitarian assistance, including 10.3 million in acute need, and 7.3 million people on the brink of famine.

Children are one of the vulnerable groups most affected by this situation, and child labour is on the rise as a result of the armed conflict, internal displacement and deteriorating economic situation.

> **Today it is fair to say Yemen is one of the worst places on Earth to be if you're a child. The war in Yemen is sadly a war on children. (Geert Cappelaere, UNICEF Regional Director for the Middle East and North Africa)**

This has affected children's access to education. More than half of the schools in Yemen

1 Article 7 of the Paris Principles and guidelines on children associated with armed forces or armed groups.

2 Ernesto Mauricio Granillo, ICRC Regional Protection of the Civilian Population Adviser (Near and Middle East).

3 United Nations, General Assembly/Security Council, Report of the Secretary-General on children and armed conflict, A/72/361–S/2017/821 (24 August 2017).

4 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.

have been damaged by conflict, and schools are also generally used as fighting positions, detention centres and arms depots.[1] The Government is not able to pay public sector salaries, leading teachers to strike and leaving children out of school.[2]

This is additional to the economic crisis affecting big urban centres, which now lack electricity and access to water. People who own or work in small businesses have lost their main source of income, which pushes families to send their children to work at an earlier age and pushes businesses to seek out cheaper labour. Girls are also forced into early marriage due to extreme poverty and internal displacement. [3]

According to ILO National Coordinator in Yemen, there is no access to running water, households buy water from mobile water dispensers. In poor neighbourhoods, fixed charity water dispensers are set up, and young girls are sent to fetch water for the household. This type of household chore, normally seen in rural areas, is now being observed in urban areas.[4] If long distances, walking through dangerous areas and carrying heavy loads is involved, this household chore can be classified as child labour.

More worrying is the "fivefold increase in cases of recruitment and use of children by armed groups" documented by the UN, despite the challenges in documenting such cases. An alarming 762 verified cases of child recruitment (all boys) were reported by the UN Secretary-General for the period of January to December 2015.[5] A total of 1,702 cases of child recruitment and use were documented by the UNICEF-led Country Task Force on Monitoring and Reporting between March 2015 and June 2017, of which 100 were aged less than 15 years old.[6]

ILO National Coordinator in Yemen notes that armed groups started recruiting what is believed to be thousands of young boys aged 12 to 17 as early as in 2011, coinciding with the beginning of the Arab spring. In 2013, the Government adopted an action plan to end child recruitment and to release children from armed groups. However, the action plan was never implemented due to the ongoing conflict, and for lack of funding and follow-up. ILO Coordinator also believes that child recruitment in Yemen is driven not only by

1 United Nations, Human Rights Council. 2017. Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights on the situation of human rights in Yemen, including violations and abuses since September 2014, A/HRC/36/33 (5 September 2017).

2 United Nations, Human Rights Council. 2017. Idem; Key informant interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017.

3 International Organization for Migration. 2014. Executive summary of research findings on tourist marriage in Yemen; Interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017.

4 Interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017.

5 United Nations, General Assembly/Security Council, Report of the Secretary-General on children and armed conflict, A/70/836–S/2016/360 (20 April 2016).

6 United Nations, Human Rights Council. 2017. Idem.

the local tribal culture but, especially, by economic need. Child soldiers (as well as adult soldiers) are paid the equivalent of the official minimum wage. Although this pay is low and not adjusted to inflation, it provides a stable source of income, in addition to owning a firearm – viewed as an important asset that can be sold later to fund a marriage or to buy and operate a taxi-motorbike.[1]

5.2.2 Syria

After seven years of ongoing conflict, Syria faces a wide-scale humanitarian crisis, with 13.1 million people in need of humanitarian assistance, of which 5.6 million are in acute need due to displacement, exposure to hostilities, and limited access to basic infrastructure, goods and services. There are now 5.5 million registered refugees who fled the country since the beginning of the conflict, and 6.1 million IDPs. Internal population displacement is adding to the socioeconomic pressure on local communities, especially in urban areas, which host 84 per cent of IDPs.[2]

The education system has sustained enormous damage, with more than 2.8 million children out of school. A high number of teachers have lost their lives or left their posts, and at least 25 per cent of schools are damaged, destroyed, or being used for military purpose or as shelters for IDPs. The quality of education has suffered as well, with overcrowded classrooms and double or triple shifts to accommodate all students.[3]

Children are one of the vulnerable groups most affected by the crisis. They are victims of explosive hazards, military recruitment, torture, detention, abduction, sexual violence, and attacks on schools and hospitals. They also face more extreme hardship in the increasingly common cases where they are out of school, separated from their parents or living with an elderly or disabled caregiver. With 69 per cent of the population now estimated to be living in extreme poverty, child labour is being used as a coping mechanism after exhausting other strategies such as reducing food consumption, spending savings and accumulating debt.[4]

In the absence of recent surveys, the current rate of child labour in Syria cannot be estimated, but 82 per cent of surveyed communities report the occurrence of child labour and hazardous work such as begging and scavenging for scrap metal.[5] Children are

1 Interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017.

2 UN-OCHA. 2017. 2018 Humanitarian needs overview, Syrian Arab Republic, 21 November 2017.

3 UNICEF; Save the Children. 2015. Small hands heavy burden – How the Syria conflict is driving more children into the workforce; Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem; UN-OCHA. 2017. Idem.

4 UN-OCHA. 2017. Idem.

5 UN-OCHA. 2017. Idem.

also found working in agriculture, street vending, car washing, metal work, carpentry, smuggling goods, collecting oil waste, household work, fetching water, collecting food from rubbish tips or fields and funerary work.[1] They may be paid, unpaid, self-organized or employed. Children in most households find themselves in child labour, and nearly half of them are joint or sole breadwinners.[2]

There is also a high incidence of child recruitment, with 47 per cent of surveyed communities reporting incidences of child recruitment and 300 verified cases of child recruitment in the first half of 2017. Of these 300 cases, 289 were boys, 18 per cent were under the age of 15, and many reported being engaged in active combat. There are also reports of forcible recruitment of children (abduction, coercion and arrest), although payment of salaries seems to be the major contributing factor for enlistment, in addition to cultural factors such as family and community influence and indoctrination.[3]

Another major concern is the vulnerability of girls to forced marriage, trafficking and sexual abuse. This is especially the case of unaccompanied adolescent girls. But families are also arranging early marriages for girls, sometimes when they are as young as 10 or 11 years old, reportedly to protect them and reduce the financial burden on the household.[4]

Textbox 10. The worst forms of child labour

ILO Convention No. 182 (Art. 3) divides the worst forms of child labour into four categories as follows:

- **(a)** all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom and forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict;
- **(b)** the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances;
- **(c)** the use, procuring or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in the relevant international treaties;
- **(d)** work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children.

The present report has given an account of the recruitment and use of children in armed conflict in the Arab region as well as the case of bonded labour and Shawish oversight in Lebanon, which both fall under the first category of child slavery and similar practices (Art. 3-a). It has also given an account of work conditions and circumstances

1 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.
2 UNICEF; Save the Children. 2015. Idem.
3 UN-OCHA. 2017. Idem..
4 UN-OCHA. 2017. Idem.

in different economic sectors which give rise to hazardous child labour and fall under the fourth category (Art. 3-d). This textbox highlights further issues relating to the worst forms of child labour in the Arab region.

Modern slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage (Art. 3-a and 3-b)

According to the ILO Global Estimates of Modern Slavery, 40.3 million people were estimated to be victims of modern slavery in 2016. This includes men, women and children who were pushed into forced labour or forced marriage. One in four victims of modern slavery were children, i.e. around 10 million children, almost half of whom were in forced labour, including commercial sexual exploitation (1 million), and half in forced marriage, which mostly affects women and girls. Modern slavery seems to be most prevalent in Africa, but the ILO reports a lack of data on Arab states. There is a need to strengthen national research and data collection efforts in order to guide policy interventions and humanitarian action in this area, especially given the increased risk of modern slavery in contexts of state fragility, conflict, and crisis.[1]

There are few studies that address the issue of child trafficking and modern slavery in the Arab region. Nevertheless, reported forms of abuse include: trafficking of young refugees, especially from sub-Saharan Africa fleeing towards Europe from North African countries,[2] child trafficking for domestic servitude, camel racing, commercial sexual exploitation and forced marriage.[3] An increased risk of commercial sexual exploitation and early marriage of girls is encountered in conflict areas such as Iraq, Syria and Yemen.[4]

Child in street-based situations (An illustration from Iraq, Lebanon and Egypt)

The issue of street children is found across the Arab region, and has been addressed by national studies and action plans on child labour in many countries including Mauritania,[5] Morocco,[6] Egypt,[7] Jordan[8] and Lebanon.[9]

1 ILO (2017). Global estimates of modern slavery: Forced labour and forced marriage (Geneva, International Labour Organization).

2 UNICEF. 2017. Harrowing Journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation.

3 ILO. 2013. Tricked and trapped: Human trafficking in the middle east; UCW. 2004. Understanding children's work in Morocco: Report on child labour, Country Report Series, May 2004.

4 Küppers and Ruhmann. 2016. Idem.; International Organization for Migration. 2014. Executive summary of research findings on tourist marriage in Yemen, 16 October 2014.

5 République islamique de Mauritanie. 2017. Plan d'action national pour l'élimination du travail des enfants en Mauritanie (PANETE-RIM) 2015-2020, Edition 2017 sur appui du BIT.

6 UNICEF. 2015. Situation des Enfants et des femmes au Maroc: Analyse selon l'approche équité.

7 The Government of Egypt has an ongoing programme to address the issue of street children (interview with Reem Elsherbini, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Egypt, 20 October 2017).

8 University of Jordan, Center for Strategic Studies. 2016. Summary report on main findings: National Child Labour Survey 2016 of Jordan (Amman).

9 MOL. National action plan to eliminate the worst forms of child labour in Lebanon by 2020,revised in 2016 .

Two more in-depth studies are found in Iraq and Lebanon. The 2015 rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour in Iraq presents case studies of children working as beggars in Dhi Qar, and as street vendors in Basra.[1] The 2015 study on children living and working on the streets in Lebanon explored the profile of these children and the magnitude of the issue. Most of these children work in begging or street vending, more than two-thirds are boys, and half of them are aged 10 to 14. While 10 per cent of street-based children were found to be Lebanese and 8 per cent Palestinian, 73 per cent were found to be refugees (Syrian or non-Syrian) from Syria. They were found to work between 4 and 16 hours per day and face hazards such as carrying heavy loads, being involved traffic accidents and, in fewer instances, sexual assault or rape.[2]

In Egypt, the programme entitled "Children Without Shelter" was implemented by the Ministry of Social Solidarity with the support of the Presidential initiative "Tahya Misr Fund." This programme is also supported by some national NGO's who reach out to street-based children through street mobile units, in coordination with governmental rehabilitation institutions. These mobile units move from one place to another searching for children in the streets, in order to provide childen with rehabilitative services and re-integration programmes. Additionally, these units also provide children with basic numeracy and literacy programmes as well as assist those who are of legal working age to find appropriate employment opportunities. The main objective of this programme is to re-integrate these children into their communities.

5.3 Conclusion

Children are generally the main victims of armed conflicts and population displacement in the region. Child labour is on the rise among refugees and internally displaced populations, as well as in host communities in Lebanon, Jordan and Iraq. Refugee and displaced children are found working in different sectors of activity, with a notable rise in street work, bonded labour, early marriages, and commercial sexual exploitation. Child labour among refugee and displaced children is mainly a coping mechanism for families who face extreme poverty and adult unemployment. Refugee and displaced children work for longer hours and lower pay than local children.

The UN Secretary-General reported a rise in the recruitment and use of children by armed groups, both among local and refugee populations. This is the case in Yemen, Syria and Iraq. The majority of recruited children are boys. However, there is an emerging tendency to recruit more girls and children below the age of 15. Hundreds of children

1 UNICEF; Iraqi Al-Amal Association; Republic of Iraq Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs; Republic of Iraq Child Welfare Commissions. 2015. A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour, Republic of Iraq.

2 ILO; UNICEF; Save the Children; Ministry of Labour. 2015. Children living and working on the street: Profile and magnitude, Study conducted by the Consultation and Research Institute, February 2015.

across the Arab region are also held in detention, and even tortured on grounds of being involved in armed groups. According to the Secretary-General's report, the factors contributing to child recruitment are relatively high and regular salaries, religious and ideological influence and propaganda, and sometimes even pressure and coercion by their communities. However, recruitment is not always voluntary, and there is an increasing trend in forced or deceitful recruitment. Another major concern is the vulnerability of girls to forced marriage, trafficking and sexual abuse.

Moreover, children living in conflict zones are falling victim to the humanitarian crisis. In addition to the extreme poverty conditions, the health and security threats and the damage to the education system, these children are being forced into new types of activities that are proper to situations of armed conflict, such as smuggling goods across the border or between fighting zones, collecting oil waste, performing funerary and household work, including fetching water or collecting food from fields and landfills where dangerous remnants of war or nearby fighting might be present.

6. Policy recommendations

The main determinants of child labour in the Arab region appear to be not so different from the determinants of child labour found in other regions of the world. Child labour arises in vulnerable communities suffering from poverty, unemployment, poor infrastructure, and lack of access to education and social protection. Exposure to shocks, especially armed conflict and population displacement, increases the vulnerability of households and exacerbates the factors leading to child labour.

Amid the current refugee crisis, strengthening national protection frameworks would benefit both refugee populations and host communities. Such a strengthening calls for nine areas of cross-sectoral policy interventions,[1] distributed between three general policy objectives:

Policy objective	Areas of intervention
Improved governance framework	1. National laws and regulations 2. Governance structures
Protection from economic and social vulnerability	3. Labour market policies 4. Social protection 5. Access to basic services including education 6. Education and awareness-raising programmes
Protection from the impact of armed conflict	7. Humanitarian programmes and refugee and displaced aid 8. Protection of children from recruitment and use in armed conflict 9. Rehabilitation and reintegration of children used in armed conflicts

1 According to the ILO review of policies and programmes, "accumulated evidence and experience suggests that four principal policy areas stand out – legal standards and regulation, social protection, education, and labour markets – all underpinned by social dialogue, which ensures their relevance." (ILO. 2017. Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes (Geneva, International Labour Office).

6.1 Improved governance framework

The elimination of child labour starts with aligning national legislation with international legal standards, and ensuring the effective enforcement of child labour laws and regulations. Most Arab countries have ratified the main international Conventions on the protection of children from child labour (Appendix 7) and notable efforts have been undertaken, with the support of ILO, FAO and UNICEF, to improve legal and governance frameworks in relation to child labour. However, this study has shown that much more remains to be done both at the level of (1) national laws and regulations, and at the level of (2) improved governance.

6.1.1 National laws and regulations

In addition to the ratification of international instruments, many countries have committed to updating their national legislation to include the following (see Appendix 7):

1) a national minimum age;
2) a maximum number of hours of work allowed;
3) occupational safety and health conditions in which work is allowed;
4) an official list of hazardous work.

However, there are remaining legislative issues to be addressed:

1. **Harmonizing the minimum age with the compulsory education age**. A number of countries, such as Iraq, have a compulsory education age lower than the minimum age for entry into work. This gap can push children into work and needs to be adjusted.
2. **Updating labour legislation to cover all forms of child labour**. Activities, such as agriculture or domestic work, are often left out of the scope of protection. For instance, the Egyptian labour code does not consider teenagers[1] to be in child labour when they work in agriculture.
3. **Updating or completing hazardous work lists.** This will achieve better levels of precision and coverage of hazardous activities that currently lie outside legal definitions of child labour.[2]
4. **Producing a list of "light work", which is exempt from the minimum age provisions.** Certain kinds of work (Convention No. 138, Art. 7), from the age of 12 or 13 years, may be permitted on condition that it does not hinder education or harm the child. There is also a wide range of "ordinary work" between "hazardous" and "light", which is allowed for children between the minimum age (14, 15 or 16) and 18 years.

1 teenage here refers to children aged 14-17.

2 For example, the government of Lebanon has listed child labour in agriculture as part of the hazardous forms of child labour, and has prohibited this from of labour for those under 18 years old. Such work is only permitted for children between the age of 16 and 18, and only under specific occupational safety and health conditions. This condition is based on Decree 8987 which was endorsed in 2012 by the government.

5. **Legislation should be conducive to promoting decent work for youth and children over the national minimum age for employment** by helping overcome legal barriers affecting this age group, such as ownership of land, membership of producer organizations, access to credit and other financial services, promoting and enforcing OSH measures, and access to vocational, business and life skills training.

6. **Ratifying relevant international instruments as a commitment to further steps towards the elimination of the worst forms of child labour.** None of the 22 LAS member states has yet ratified ILO Convention No. 189 concerning decent work for domestic workers. Article 4 of Convention No. 189 stipulates that member States shall set a minimum age for domestic work and take measures to ensure that child domestic workers are not deprived of compulsory education or from opportunities to participate in further education or vocational training. Recommendation No. 201 concerning this Convention further states that members should identify a list of hazardous child domestic work and take regulatory measures to protect domestic workers under 18. Such measures should include: strictly limiting hours of work to allow time for rest, leisure, education and family; prohibiting night work; placing restrictions on work that is excessively demanding; and establishing mechanisms to monitor working and living conditions. [1]

7. **Updating laws and regulations relating to the re-enrolment of children into school.** Procedures should be simplified so as to minimise obstacles and delays for school dropouts and children removed from child labour situations to re-enter their education pathway. Some countries redirect children to vocational training if their absence from school exceeds a certain period.

8. **Reviewing national legislation and national mechanisms to ensure that all children within the territory of a country are protected from child labour,** regardless of their nationality or legal status, or that of their parents (e.g. refugees, migrants, irregular migrants etc.).

9. **Use a variety of legislative tools to address child labour.** Some countries, such as Lebanon, have issued special memos to prohibit specific forms of child labour. For example, the General Directorate of General Security issued a memo in 2016 prohibiting child labour in agriculture for children under 16 years. This was drafted in coordination with the Ministry of Labour as a response to the large number of Syrian refugee children entering agricultural work, most often recruited by a gang like employer, the shawish.

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1 For example, some Arab countries such as Morocco in 2016, have endorsed a child labour law which prohibits domestic child labour for those under 18 years of age.

6.1.2 Governance structures

The main challenge remains the enforcement and monitoring of national laws and regulations. This requires the following interventions:

1. Regular data collection and national studies on child labour in all sectors of economic activity. The present study faced a lack of up-to-date national survey data on child labour in most Arab countries (see Appendices 2 and 5). Adopting a national survey model that disaggregates data by sex, age, and sub-sectors, and allows for comparisons over time, as well as capturing seasonal changes in work patterns, while developing the capacity to conduct such surveys on a regular basis is crucial for improving national policy-making and legislation.

> **An illustration from Yemen**: The ILO supported the conduct of the 2010 NCLS in Yemen, which led to the adoption by decree of a hazardous work list. The ILO supported the capacity building of the central statistics office and the child labour unit, with the aim of institutionalizing data collection and launching yearly statistical efforts by the Government in the field of child labour. The Government had prepared a budget for the next survey, but the conflict broke out and there was no follow-up. After the conflict, there will be a need for renewed capacity building and an updated survey, which should include new indicators related to, for instance, child recruitment and use in armed conflict, in order to prepare for social and economic reintegration programmes for children affected by the conflict.
>
> **Source: Interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017.**

2 The present study has shown the need for a continuous time series on child labour in the LAS region. However, differences in legal definitions of child labour between countries has an impact on statistical measurement at the regional level. Therefore, in order to monitor child labour and promote policy interventions at the regional level, it is recommended that:

   a. LAS countries adopt an Arab standardized methodology (sampling and instruments) to be used in national social surveys, and to agree on the frequency of implementation;

   b. the ILO produce regional child labour estimates for the LAS region and sub-regional estimates for the group of Arab African countries, in order to complement ILO ROAS estimates.

3. Designing special surveys to capture all activities falling under the definition of the worst forms of child labour, as well as less visible forms of child labour, particularly

in the informal economy, remote locations and among young girls, and conduct national and regional studies on the underlying mechanisms of child labour and the best courses of policy intervention.

4. Adopting and updating national strategies and action plans to combat child labour, such as the Integrated Public Policy for the Protection of Childhood in Morocco, the National Action Plan to Eliminate the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Lebanon by 2020,[1] the National Framework on Child Labour 2011 in Jordan (currently being revisited and upgraded)[2] and the Egypt National Action Plan on Child Labour 2018–2025.[3] More importantly, there needs to be a regular evaluation of the implementation and impact of national action plans and policy interventions.

An illustration from Morocco

The Integrated Public Policy for the Protection of Childhood 2015-2025 holds five strategic objectives: i) strengthening and reinforcing the legal framework for child protection ii) establishment of integrated territorial mechanisms for child protection iii) standardization of structures and practices iv) promotion of social protection standards v) implementation of reliable and standardized information systems with regular monitoring and evaluation

5. Improving inter-ministerial coordination and facilitating national child labour monitoring, information sharing and case referrals, referred to by the ILO as Child Labour Monitoring and Referral Systems. In this sense, a number of countries have established national inter-ministerial commissions for combating child labour (such as Lebanon and Yemen). In particular, the engagement of the Ministry of Agriculture is crucial to combatting child labour in agriculture. Agricultural extension services can also play an important complementary role to labour inspection, which does not always have the capacity to cover rural areas.

   Such coordination bodies should also include representatives of private sector stakeholders such as agricultural associations, employers association, trade unions

1 In 2013, the Lebanese President launched the National Action Plan for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour by 2016. The launching took place in the Presidential Palace in the presence of all relevant Ministers, Parliamentarians, Governors, local authorities and NGO's. This placed child labour high on the national agenda especially at the onset of the Syrian crisis. It was the first Arab Presidency to launch a National Action Plan for the elimination of Child Labour and therefore a good precedent. In 2016, the Action Plan was updated and extended to 2020 by the National Steering Committee Against Child Labour (headed by the Ministry of Labour and supported by the ILO) to respond to the great influx of Syrian Refugees.

2 Interview with Nihayat Dabdoub, National Programme Manager, Child Labour Syrian Refugees Project, ILO Jordan, 23 October 2017.

3 Interview with Reem Elsherbini, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Egypt, 20 October 2017.

and service providers in addition to relevant NGO's, in order to ensure better design and outcomes for policy interventions.

An illustration from Jordan

The ILO project "Moving towards a child labour free Jordan" supported institutional capacity building and cooperation in the field of child labour through the creation of a child labour unit and the development of a joint electronic child labour database and monitoring system used by the ministries of Education, Labour and Social Development. This system became operational in 2017 and, in the upcoming months, a number of service providers will be linked to it for case referrals.

Source: Interview with Nihayat Dabdoub, National Programme Manager, Child Labour Syrian Refugees Project, ILO Jordan, 23 October 2017; Peter Matz. 2016. Child labour within the Syrian refugee response: Stocktaking report,

6. Creating a child labour unit. A number of countries such as Lebanon, Yemen, Jordan and Egypt have already created a child labour unit with the support of ILO.
7. Improving labour inspection capacity. National studies and interviews all point to weak labour inspection capacities, especially in terms of budget, training, and the number of labour inspectors mandated to investigate cases of child labour.(1)
8. Other means of inspection need to be sought through municipal police, General Security, Internal Security Forces, as well as agricultural unions, and agricultural extension services (where available), especially when it comes to employers who recruit children in illicit activities and forced labour.

An illustration from Lebanon

In Lebanon, the Internal Security Forces have received special training from the Ministry of Labour and ILO on the means of attending to child labour on the streets and their gang-like employers. The General Security Forces were also sensitized on attending to intermediaries – the shawishs who recruit children into agriculture under forced conditions, especially refugee children. (Since 2017, a memo issued by General Security prohibits employment of children in agriculture under 16 years of age.)

Source: Hayat Osseiran, ILO Senior Child Labour Consultant

1 Interview with Nihayat Dabdoub, National Programme Manager, Child Labour Syrian Refugees Project, ILO Jordan, 23 October 2017; Interview with Ali Dehaq, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Yemen, 12 October 2017; Interview with Reem Elsherbini, National Coordinator, ILO Office in Egypt, 20 October 2017; Interview with Malika El Atifi, Head of Child Protection, UNICEF Morocco, 30 October 2017; Questionnaire feedback from UNICEF Morocco.

9. Improving coordination and synergies between national plans and mechanisms to address child labour and humanitarian programmes in countries where humanitarian responses are being undertaken so as to incorporate all efforts under a single system within a country.
10. Mainstreaming child labour considerations into sectorial policies, strategies and programmes.

6.2 Protection from economic and social vulnerability

Central to this policy framework are the socioeconomic determinants of child labour. Across this report, it was emphasized that children enter the labour market as a means of supporting their households, which are often suffering from poverty and unemployment. Reducing this vulnerability is key to eliminating child labour. Other determinants of child labour, also related to socioeconomic vulnerability, include access to quality education, access to basic services (e.g. water and electricity), and the general level of parental education and awareness.

6.2.1 Labour market and rural livelihoods policies

Poor households resort to child labour as a coping strategy and as a means of generating additional income. These households are particularly vulnerable to individual and collective shocks, such as the death or illness of a family member or situations of economic or security crisis. The main way to reduce this vulnerability is through a structural market approach, with a focus on the following:

1. Ensuring "decent, secure and properly remunerated work" for youth and adults. This would decrease the poverty push factor of child labour. A crucial element to achieving this is freedom of association and the right to collective bargaining. Decent work opportunities and a well-functioning market also mean greater potential returns on education; decreased demand for low-skilled work and increased high-skilled job opportunities would lead to higher levels of school enrolment and lower rates of child labour.[1] This should also include facilitating access to decent jobs for adult refugees in host countries.
2. Promoting decent livelihoods in agriculture by supporting the creation of cooperatives, access to credit, sustainable technologies and alternative farming practices. This should improve productivity and viability, thereby reducing the functional dependence on child labour.[2]
3. Promoting a transition from the informal to the formal economy by adopting policies

1 ILO. 2017. Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes (Geneva, International Labour Office).
2 Ibid.

targeted at information, awareness, market incentives and support for the transition of informal enterprises and workers, and investing in vocational training that develops the skills of informal workers in response to the demands of the labour market, including informal apprenticeship schemes.[1] Governments should also support the formalization and regulation of the agriculture sector by ensuring social coverage of agricultural workers and labour inspection of agricultural facilities.

4. Addressing hazardous child labour:
   a. First, among adolescents who are allowed to work, by ensuring regular medical check-ups in the workplace, improving knowledge and awareness on OSH, identifying priority areas of intervention for labour inspectorates, and mobilizing the support of trade unions, business associations and social protection agencies in monitoring minimum age and OSH guidelines.[2] This is in addition to promoting OSH culture among local communities, small producers, and public administrations (e.g. Ministry of Agriculture), etc.
   b. Second, addressing the hazards of child labour in agriculture by conducting training and raising awareness among all stakeholders (children, parents, Ministry of Agriculture, chambers of agriculture, producers' organizations, rural workers' organizations, municipalities, rural schools, etc.) on the hazards of agricultural work, especially on exposure to pesticides,[3] as well as by promoting alternative safe practices.

Textbox 11. Addressing child labour in agriculture during protracted crises

Armed conflict increases the vulnerability of households and has a negative impact on child labour. In rural areas, harvest failures and restricted access to natural resources affects households' livelihoods and increases the pressure for income from child labour. Moreover, the tasks performed by children in the agriculture sector might become more dangerous due to exposure to explosives while working in the fields, for instance, or by working in unfamiliar surroundings away from home, which puts them at greater risk of harm.

Supporting the livelihoods of rural populations through agriculture, food security and nutrition programmes can be a powerful way to reduce child labour in agriculture. FAO has developed a guidance note, which provides key questions and actions related to the prevention of child labour to be taken into consideration at all stages of programming, implementation and evaluation of humanitarian interventions.

1 Ibid.

2 Ibid.

3 Interview with Faten Adada and Ali Darwish, FAO Lebanon, 2 November 2017.

In Lebanon, for instance, FAO is using the Handbook for monitoring and evaluation of child labour in agriculture to evaluate a project of land reclamation that will engage Syrian workers in farming. FAO will conduct a baseline study and monitor the project to ensure children are not engaged in harmful work.

Source: FAO. 2017. Guidance note: Child labour in agriculture in protracted crises, fragile and humanitarian contexts.

6.2.2 Social protection

Social protection is key to mitigating household vulnerabilities to economic shocks. Hence the need for the following protections:

1. effective social security, health protection and unemployment protection schemes that cover all employment sectors, including informal work and the agriculture sector;[1]
2. cash transfer programmes targeted towards households that are vulnerable to child labour and which are designed to address child labour;[2]
3. stronger child protection mechanisms that take a multi-sectoral approach to child protection.[3]

An illustration from Lebanon

Syrian refugee children face multiple barriers to primary education in Lebanon, including household dependency on the child's income and the relatively high indirect costs of education, such as transportation. A pilot cash transfer programme was launched by UNICEF and the Ministry of Education, in collaboration with UNHCR, aimed at offsetting transportation costs and compensating for children's earnings. This is an example of mainstreaming child labour policy into a multi-sectoral intervention (education and cash assistance).[4]

Source: Matz, P. 2016. Child labour within the Syrian refugee response: Stocktaking report, Draft, 24 August 2016.

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1 ILO. 2017. Idem.

2 Ibid.

3 Matz, P. 2016. Child labour within the Syrian refugee response: Stocktaking report, Draft, 24 August 2016.

4 The Lebanese Ministry of Social Affairs believes that financial support for Syrian refugees does not prevent children from dropping out from school, as education is provided free of charge by the Lebanese government. Moreover, the Ministry supports the idea of implementing the law which dictates that all education in Lebanon should be free and compulsory. Given relatively high number of births among refugee families, the Ministry of Social Affairs also supports family planning programmes a a measure to avoid the further deterioration of refugee household conditions which stem from the costs of child rearing.

6.2.3 Access to basic services, including education

In some countries, infrastructure and access to basic services can be limited in remote rural areas. This problem can arise or become exacerbated in situations of armed conflict. It can also affect displaced populations, and the longer these services are affected, the more pervasive the effects can be on child labour.[1]

Evidence has shown that ensuring access to basic services, especially electricity, water and education, is crucial to reducing child labour. Hence the need for the following policy initiatives:

1. Improving access to electricity and water networks, especially in underdeveloped rural areas and where refugees and IDPs reside. This initiative can impact directly on the amount of time spent by girls on household chores, leaving them more time for school and homework.[2] It is important to note here initiatives which attend to rural and agricultural areas as in Morocco for example. These include the National initiative for Human Development (NIHD) and the National Programme for Combating Child Labour through the Ministry of Solidarity, Women, Family and Social Development as well as the programme Entraide Nationale
2. Ensuring universal access to quality education and enforcing compulsory education, whether in times of conflict or peace. This initiative can improve access to education, through the provision of alternative forms of schooling for nomad communities and school dropouts, safe roads and transportation (this has a particular impact on girls' attendance), and teacher training on school violence and bullying. Education provision for refugee and IDP children needs to address both the direct and indirect costs of schooling, such as registration fees, food and transportation.
3. Promoting education among adolescents as a means of retaining them in the education system and away from hazardous work. This can be done by promoting technical and vocational education and training (TVET) programmes with strong linkages to the job market. Here also through supporting local informal education programmes especially in times of crisis and conflicts.

An illustration from Jordan and Egypt

In trying to deal with the issue of "early school dropout" both Jordan and Egypt have established special informal education programmes at the primary level, especially for children who are illiterate. The hope of the programme is to support children to acquire decent work in the future.

1 Ernesto Mauricio Granillo, ICRC Regional Protection of the Civilian Population Adviser (Near and Middle East).

2 UCW. 2004. Understanding children's work in Morocco: Report on child labour, Project Country Report Series, May 2004.

In collaboration with the Ministry of Education, it offers a 2-year education programme, free of charge, as an alternative to formal schooling, and with a flexible academic curriculum of two hours per day, five days per week, leading to a tenth-grade equivalency certificate. It includes English language and computer literacy courses, as well as maths, Arabic, basic science, Islamic religion and basic life skills.

After being certified to the tenth grade of compulsory education, children above the minimum age of employment (16–18 years of age), are then enrolled in either: (a) an upgraded apprenticeship programme that includes a competency-based curriculum, OSH, social protection, and testing and certification; or (b) a regular vocational training course .

In Egypt, there are community schools which are supported by the Egyptian government and non-governmental organizations. These schools operate on the basis of a "one class" system where all drop outs are in one class. These schools are prominent in rural upper Egypt, and have been successful in helping thousands of school dropouts complete their basic education.

Source: Interview with Nihayat Dabdoub, ILO Jordan, 23 October 2017 and Hayat Osseiran, ILO December 2018.

6.2.4 Education and awareness programmes

Parental education has been found to have an impact on child labour. Children with illiterate parents, especially mothers, are more likely to be out of school and in the labour market. More generally, there is a need to counteract social norms and attitudes that perpetuate child labour among local populations. Therefore, the following policy initiatives are recommend:

1. **Develop adult literacy and education programmes**. It is important to promote adult literacy and education programmes as a strategy for higher levels of school enrolment and reduced child labour.
2. **Utilize media campaigns and develop partnerships with the media, social influencers and civil society**. At both the country and LAS regional level, the rights of the child should be promoted in order to instil social and cultural norms that do not regard the child as a source of income. This was one of the recommendations that arose from the consultation meeting organized by LAS in Cairo in January 2018.
3. **Use child labour interventions and awareness-raising campaigns to empower and educate**, but do not blame parents or caregivers for children's involvement in child labour.

6.3 Protection from the impact of armed conflict

6.3.1 Humanitarian programmes and refugee aid

The "No Lost Generation" (NLG) initiative is a regional inter-agency initiative to support children and youth affected by the crises in Syria and Iraq, with a focus on three pillars: (1) education, (2) child protection, and (3) adolescents and youth.[1] Within the framework of this initiative, and under the second pillar on child protection, UNHCR, UNICEF and ILO jointly developed a regional strategic framework on child labour. [2]

The objective of the strategic framework is to guide the development of policies and programmes that help prevent children from entering child labour situations and mitigate the risks they face while addressing their immediate needs and working towards the elimination of child labour, particularly its worst forms.

To this end, the strategic framework proposes an integrated and multi-sectoral approach, which builds knowledge and capacity on child labour among relevant stakeholders, and is mindful of the principle of "do no harm" (i.e. ensuring that relevant policies and programmes do not inadvertently perpetuate child labour). The proposed multi-sectoral approach is centred on four strategic areas:

1. educational policies and programmes that address child labour;

An illustration from Qatar:

A global initiative that was launched by Qatar Foundation for Education, Science and Community Development which aimed at educating millions of children who are out of school. It uses innovative means for accessing them in very poor or hard to reach conflict and disaster areas, especially in the Misddle East and Africa.

2. economic policies and programmes that target vulnerable households to mitigate the risk of children entering child labour;
3. child protection programmes that address the worst forms of child labour;
4. coordination, advocacy, and knowledge management on child labour in order to enable efficient and appropriate responses among responsible agencies.

This integrated multi-sectoral approach builds on national capacities and is in line with the latest ILO policy recommendations[3] on protecting children in crisis situations:

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1 See http://nolostgeneration.org/.

2 UNHCR; UNICEF; ILO. 2017. Child Labour within the Syria refugee response: A regional strategic framework for action.

3 ILO. 2017. Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes (Geneva, International Labour Office).

1. Mainstream child labour concerns in all phases of humanitarian action, from crisis preparedness plans to post-crisis recovery efforts, with the active participation of all governmental and non-governmental actors. Guidance for better mainstreaming and coordination efforts is provided by the Child Labour in Emergencies Toolkit produced by the Child Labour in Emergencies Task Force, co-chaired by ILO and Plan International.
2. Build on existing national systems to address child labour among refugee and displaced populations. This is contingent upon the agreement of national state authorities and the availability of national resources and capacities. The ILO Employment and Decent Work for Peace and Resilience Recommendation, 2017 (No. 205), also acknowledges the role of the international community in this regard and the importance of the equitable sharing of burdens and responsibilities.
3. Ensure rapid and effective coordination among development and humanitarian actors around the issue of child labour and ensure that short-term emergency measures are consistent with, and help support, longer-term efforts to combat child labour.
4. Address the links between child labour and the sudden loss of livelihoods in conflict situations. ILO Recommendation No. 205 calls for "immediate employment measures and income-generation opportunities" for crisis-affected populations. This includes addressing the legal obstacles that refugees face when they attempt to access the labour market and decent work, in parallel with efforts to build the resilience and strengthen the capacity of host communities.

Textbox 12. UNRWA child protection framework for Palestinian refugees

UNRWA provides assistance and protection to more than 5 million Palestinian refugees registered with the agency in its five fields of operations (West Bank, Gaza, Syria, Lebanon, and Jordan), including 2.5 million Palestine refugee children. These children face a range of child protection challenges across the region and are frequently denied their most basic rights.

Armed conflict and displacement

Palestinian refugee children are affected by armed conflict and military operations, and children in the West Bank (including East Jerusalem) are at particular risk of detention. Children and their families in the OPT face potential house demolitions and displacement, and thousands of Palestinian refugee families have been displaced and forced to flee their homes due to armed conflict in Gaza and Syria in recent years.

Child labour and school dropouts

Child labour is an issue affecting both boys and girls among Palestinian refugee children, who are at risk of dropping out of school for socioeconomic reasons, including child labour or child marriage. They also have limited future opportunities in terms of work and education.

UNRWA adopts a "systems approach" to child protection, focusing on a comprehensive and sustainable approach and on "strengthening the protective environment around children, as well as empowering children themselves. This involves working in partnership with formal (governmental) and informal systems (community approach) to prevent and respond to violence, exploitation, abuse or neglect of children so that children are better protected in any situation." [1]

With the support of UNICEF, it has developed a Child Protection Framework, which takes a coherent approach to the different child protection activities undertaken by its programme departments and field offices. It is a strategic policy guidance document for all staff, outlining UNRWA's commitments and priorities along the following pillars:

1. commitment to child protection and advocating for respect of child rights, including advocacy and capacity-building;
2. safeguarding children, which includes the implementation of safeguarding procedures by UNRWA staff, ensuring violence-free UNRWA schools and installations, and strengthening the complaints mechanism for staff and community;
3. child-sensitive service and programme delivery, which includes mainstreaming child protection in service and programme delivery, a functioning child protection referral mechanism in each field office, comprehensive inter-sectoral child protection interventions and evidence-based child protection programming.

Source: UNRWA. 2016. Child protection framework.

6.3.2 Protection of children from recruitment and use in armed conflict

In her last report to the General Assembly,[2] the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict highlighted the development of regional partnerships for the protection of children in situations of armed conflict. Based on a 2014 cooperation agreement with the League of Arab States, the Special Representative

1 "Adapting a Systems Approach to Child Protection: Conceptual Clarity Paper", 2010, endorsed by UNICEF, UNHCR, and Save the Children, cited in UNRWA. 2016. Child protection framework.

2 United Nations, General Assembly. 2017. Report of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict, A/72/276 (2 August 2017).

highlighted continued efforts for the ratification by all member States of the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict.

As part of the "Children, not soldiers" campaign with UNICEF (2014–2016), Somalia, Sudan and Yemen committed to a child-free army by signing action plans with the United Nations. While the Sudanese national forces are working on the first steps of dissemination and implementation of the action plan, the ongoing crises in Somalia and Yemen have hampered progress in implementation, but advocacy continues for the release of children from armed forces and armed groups.

The Special Representative has put forward a series of recommendations aimed at tackling this phenomenon at the global, regional and local levels:

- Protecting education in situations of armed conflict, given that "children who attend school are less vulnerable to grave violations, including recruitment and use, rape and sexual violence and abductions". This includes adopting "concrete measures to deter the military use of schools" and ensuring appropriate funding for education programmes in conflict-related emergency situations.
- Facilitating humanitarian assistance for children and civilian populations according to international law, given the alarming increase in besiegement as a tactic of armed conflict.
- Fostering collaboration with regional organizations, carrying out lessons learnt initiatives and compiling best practices for the protection of children in armed conflict. The Special Representative calls upon regional organizations to improve their legal protection frameworks and to integrate child protection considerations in policies, planning and training of personnel.
- Taking appropriate measures for the social reintegration of recruited or detained children after their release from armed forces or groups, giving special attention to the needs of girls, who risk greater stigmatization. This will require political, technical and financial support for reintegration programmes from member States.
- Strengthening child protection capacities at the country level.

Textbox 13. The protection of children in armed conflict under international humanitarian law and international human rights law

In order to ensure compliance with norms of international humanitarian law on the protection of children in armed conflict, the following measures are recommended:

- States parties to Protocols I and II additional to the 1949 Geneva Conventions (which includes all Arab countries except Somalia) should adopt legislation stating that the recruitment of children under the age of 15 into the armed forces or armed groups, and their participation in hostilities, are criminal offences (API, Art. 77(2) and APII, Art. 4(3)(c)).

  It should be noted that most Arab states have signed ILO Convention 182 on the elimination of the worst forms of child labour including the forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict, and many countries have adopted national measures to implement this prohibition. For instance, Lebanon has included in its hazardous work list (Decree 8987/2012) the prohibition of use of children in protests on the streets, burning of tyres and armed conflicts. Moreover, the Directorate for Human Rights and Implementation of International Human Rights Conventions in the Lebanese Armed Forces ensures that this prohibition is enforced by the Armed Forces and provides internal training on it.[1]
- States parties to the Optional Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the involvement of children in armed conflict must adopt legislation stating that the compulsory recruitment of children under the age of 18, and their participation in hostilities, are criminal offences (Optional Protocol, Art. 6(1) in relation to Arts. 1 and 2)
- Ensure compliance with norms of international humanitarian law on access to education in armed conflict (e.g. see Art. 4.3(a) APII; Art. 78 API; Arts. 38, 72, 125 GC III; Arts. 13, 24, 50, 94, 108, 142 GC IV; Rules 38, 40 and 135 CIHL). Enhancing the implementation of these legal obligations, including by ensuring these norms are incorporated into military manuals, training for armed forces, and domestic legal frameworks as required, would help ensure that children's access to education is less severely impacted by armed conflict.

1 Interview with Hayat Osseiran, ILO Senior Child Labour Consultant, 15 December 2017.

Appendix

Appendix 1: List of interviewees and contributors

12 October 2017	**Ali Dehaq** National Coordinator, ILO Yemen
20 October 2017	**Reem Elsherbini** National Coordinator, ILO Egypt
23 October 2017	**Nihayat Dabdoub** National Programme Manager, Child Labour Syrian Refugees Project ILO Jordan
30 October 2017	**Friedrike Mayen** Senior Livestock Officer, FAO Egypt (Interview facilitated by Ariane Genthon, Child Labour Expert, FAO Headquarters)
30 October 2017	**Malika El Atifi** Head of Child Protection, UNICEF Morocco **Shohei Kawabata** Child Protection Officer, UNICEF Morocco
2 November 2017	**Faten Adada** National Coordinator on Social Protection and Child Labour, FAO Lebanon **Ali Darwish** Livestock Specialist, FAO Lebanon
8 November 2017	**Lori Curtis** Fisheries Officer, FAO (Interview facilitated by Ariane Genthon, Child Labour Expert, FAO Headquarters)
15 December 2017	**Hayat Osseiran** Senior Child Labour Consultant, ILO ROAS

Appendix 2: Most recent surveys by country

Country		Quantitative Data			UCW Report*
		Survey	Year	Age	
1.	Algeria	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS 4)	2012–2013	5–14	Included
2.	Bahrain**				-
3.	Comoros				-
4.	Djibouti				-
5.	Egypt	Labour Force Survey (LFS)	2012	6–17	Included
6.	Iraq	Iraq Knowledge Network (IKN)	2011	12–17	Included
7.	Jordan	National Child Labour Survey (NCLS)	2016	5–17	Included
8.	Kuwait				-
9.	Lebanon	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS 3)	2009	5–14	-
		Baseline Survey (MICS methodology)	2016	5–14	-
	Lebanon (Palestinians	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS 4)	2011	5–14	Included
10.	Libya				-
11.	Mauritania	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey	2011	5–17	-
12.	Morocco	Enquete Nationale de L'Emploi	2017		-
13.	Oman				-
14.	Occupied Palestinian Territory	School to Work Transition Survey (STWT)	2012	15–17	Included
15.	Qatar				-
16.	Saudi Arabia				-
17.	Somalia				-
18.	Sudan	Fifth Housing and Population Census	2008	10–17	Included
19.	Syria	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey	2006	5–14	Included
20.	Tunisia	Enquête Nationale de la Population et l'Emploi (ENPE)	2013	15–17	Included
21.	UAE				-
22.	Yemen	National Child Labour Survey (NCLS)	2010	5–17	Included

***This column indicates which countries/surveys were included in the UCW (2017) study Child labour in the Arab states: A descriptive analysis.**

****No national child labour survey (according to questionnaire feedback from official authorities).**

Appendix 3 : Sample of questionnaire

الملحق 3 : نموذج استمارة الدراسة

استمارة دراسة «حالة عمل الأطفال في الدول العربية»
يونيو/ حزيران 2017

البلد:		تاريخ استلام الاستمارة:	...../...../.....
الجهة الرسمية التي قامت بتعبئة الاستمارة:		تاريخ الانتهاء من تعبئة الاستمارة:	...../...../.....

مقدمة : التعريف بالدراسة

خلفية الدراسة:

- انطلاقاً مما تطرحه ظاهرة عمل الأطفال في العالم العربي من تحديات جسيمة أمام تحقيق التنمية وتعزيز حقوق الإنسان؛
- وأخذاً في الاعتبار الانعكاسات والضغوطات الإضافية التي تخلقها هذه الظاهرة على خصائص سوق العمل عموماً؛
- ونظراً إلى الحاجة إلى تحقيق أهداف التنمية المستدامة في العالم العربي بحلول العام 2030، وبخاصة الأهداف الرامية إلى «تعزيز النمو الاقتصادي المطرد والشامل للجميع والمستدام، والعمالة الكاملة والمنتجة، وتوفير العمل اللائق للجميع»، وذلك، طبقاً لتحديد منظمة الأمم المتحدة؛

ولهذه الاعتبارات تقوم «منظمة العمل الدولية» (ILO)، بالتعاون مع «منظمة الأغذية والزراعة للأمم المتحدة» (FAO) ومراكز أبحاث ودراسات متخصصة، بإجراء دراسة حول ظاهرة عمل الأطفال في البلدان العربية بالتعاون مع جامعة الدول العربية والمجلس العربي للطفولة والتنمية. وذلك في إطار تنفيذ التوصية الصادرة عن الدورة الواحدة والعشرين للجنة الطفولة العربية (شرم الشيخ: 18– 20 يناير/ كانون ثانٍ 2016)، بشأن بند «عمل الأطفال في المنطقة العربية»، والتي نصت على:

«الطلب من الأمانة الفنية متابعة إعداد «دراسة مسحية كمية ونوعية لرصد حالة عمل الأطفال في الدول العربية» بالتعاون مع الدول الأعضاء والمجلس العربي للطفولة والتنمية، ومنظمة العمل العربية، ومنظمة العمل الدولية. وإجراء تقييم دوري للإنجازات والتحديات التي تواجه ظاهرة عمل الأطفال في المنطقة العربية»، والتي تمَّ اعتمادها من قبل مجلس وزراء الشئون الاجتماعية العرب.

أهداف الدراسة:

تهدف الدراسة إلى توحيد وتحديث قواعد البيانات المتاحة حول عمل الأطفال في العالم العربي، وإلى سدّ الفجوات المعرفية التي تتصل بأسباب هذه الظاهرة وحجم انتشارها القطاعي والعمري والجهوي والجندري، وصولاً إلى تصميم إستراتيجية عربية لمكافحة عمل الأطفال، في إطار يتسم بالنظرة الشمولية إلى هذه المسألة، ويفسح المجال أمام توجيه الخطط الوطنية لمكافحة هذه الظاهرة.

دور الجهات الرسمية المعنية:

يرتكز عمل فريق الدراسة على التعاون الوثيق مع الجهات الرسمية المعنية بهذه الظاهرة في الدول العربية، في محاولة للحصول على إجابات كمية مستخلصة من نتائج المسوحات والإحصاءات الوطنية المتاحة، بالإضافة إلى إجابات نوعية مستمدة من تجربة وخبرة هذه الجهات الرسمية.

الاستمارة:

تحقيقا لهذا الغرض، قام فريق عمل الدراسة بتصميم هذه الاستمارة المتخصصة حول الموضوع. ونرجو من حضراتكم تعبئتها بما يتناسب مع البيانات والمعلومات المتوافرة رسمياً لدى الجهات المعنية بعمل الأطفال. ويستحسن إرسال الاستمارة، بعد الانتهاء من تعبئتها، في نسختها الإلكترونية؛ أو إرسالها – في حال التعذر – في نسختها الورقية.

ولكم منا الشكر الجزيل.

القسم الأول: حول الإطار القانوني والمؤسساتي المتعلق باستخدام الأطفال

فيما يتعلق بالأسئلة الثلاثة التالية (من Q.1 إلى Q.3)، الرجاء وضع علامة (X) في خانة الجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 1 أدناه:

Q.1. هل يوجد قانون عمل ساري المفعول حالياً، وسبق أن تمَّ إقراره رسمياً من قبل السلطات التشريعية المختصة في بلدكم؟ (في حال كلا، انتقل إلى Q.4).

Q.2. في حال وجود قانون عمل، هل يتضمن هذا الأخير فصلاً خاصّاً أو بنوداً محددة للأحكام المتعلقة باستخدام الأطفال (ما دون سن الثامنة عشرة من العمر)؟

Q.3. في حال وجود قانون عمل، هل تنصّ أي من مواد هذا القانون على وجوب حظر استخدام الأطفال القُصّر الذين لم يتمّوا سن الخامسة عشرة من العمر؟

الجدول رقم 1: وجود قانون عمل وتشريعات خاصة باستخدام الأطفال

رقم السؤال	السؤال	نعم	كلا
Q.1	وجود قانون عمل مُقر ونافذ		
Q.2	وجود فصل أو بنود حول استخدام الأطفال		
Q.3	وجود مادة تحظر استخدام الأطفال دون الخامسة عشرة من العمر		

الرجاء الإجابة عن السؤال رقم Q.4 عبر وضع علامة (X) في خانة الجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 2 أدناه؛ والإجابة عن السؤال رقم Q.5 عبر ذكر السن الدنيا والسن العليا، كما هما مذكوران بحسب القانون (في حال وجود ذلك)، في خانة الجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 2 أدناه:

Q.4. بموجب القوانين والتشريعات السارية المفعول المعنية بعمل الأطفال، هل يعتبر عقد العمل المكتوب من الشروط الإلزامية لاستخدام الأطفال (ما دون سن الثامنة عشرة من العمر)؟

(الرجاء وضع علامة في الخانة المقابلة للجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 2)

Q.5. في حال نعم، ما هي السن الدنيا للأطفال العاملين التي تنطبق عليها، بموجب القوانين، ضرورة توفر عقد عمل مكتوب في حال الاستخدام؟

الجدول رقم 2: إلزامية عقد العمل المكتوب والفئة العمرية (من الأطفال العاملين) التي ينطبق عليها ذلك قانونا

	Q.4		Q.5
موضوع السؤال	نعم	كلا	في حال نعم، ما هي السن الدنيا للأطفال العاملين التي ينطبق عليها توفر عقد عمل مكتوب في حال الاستخدام
إلزامية عقد العمل المكتوب لاستخدام الأطفال (ما دون سن الثامنة عشرة من العمر)			

مجموعة الأسئلة التالية (من **Q.6** إلى **Q.9**) تتناول الأحكام القانونية السارية المفعول المعنية بعمل الأطفال (بحسب قانون العمل (و/أو التشريعات والمراسيم الأخرى).

الرجاء وضع الإجابات في الجدول رقم 3 أدناه: لكل من الموضوعات القانونية الـ 41 المذكورة في الجدول رقم 3 أدناه، الرجاء وضع الإجابات عن الأسئلة الثلاثة التالية:

Q.6. هل يوجد نص قانوني ساري المفعول يتعلق بكل من الموضوعات القانونية الـ 41 المذكورة في الجدول رقم 3 أدناه؟

Q.7. في حال نعم، في أي سنة صدر القانون أو أقرّ آخر تعديل عليه؟

Q.8. في حال نعم، ما هو رقم هذا القانون؟

Q.9. في حال نعم في Q.6، الرجاء وضع الإجابات الصحيحة بحسب ما تنص عليه القوانين المرعية الإجراء؟

الجدول رقم 3: أحكام قانونية سارية المفعول تتعلق باستخدام الأطفال ما دون سن الثامنة عشرة

#	موضوع القانون	Q.4	Q.7	Q.8	Q.9	وحدة القياس الخاصة بالإجابة
		وجود نص قانوني (نعم أو لا)	سنة الإصدار أو آخر تعديل ذكر السنة	رقم القانون	الإجابة بحسب ما ينص عليه القانون	
1	السن العليا للتعليم الإلزامي					سنة
2	السن العليا للاستخدام					سنة
3	السن العليا لاستخدام المتدربين					سنة

4	السن الدنيا لاستخدام الأطفال في المشاريع الصناعية والأعمال المرهقة أو المضرة بالصحة					سنة
5	السن الدنيا للاستخدام في الأعمال الخطرة بطبيعتها أو التي تشكل خطراً على الحياة أو الصحة أو الأخلاق					سنة
6	الحد الأقصى من ساعات العمل اليومية للأطفال (في حال وارد في نص القانون)					ساعة
7	الحد الأقصى من ساعات العمل اليومية المتواصلة للأطفال					ساعة
8	الحد الأدنى لساعات الراحة اليومية للأطفال					ساعة
9	الساعات (الفترات) اليومية التي يحظر خلالها تشغيل الأطفال					من الساعة ... حتى الساعة ...
10	عدد ساعات الراحة المتعاقبة للأطفال بين يومي عمل ضمن السن القانونية للاستخدام					ساعة
11	عدد أيام الإجازة السنوية المدفوعة الأجر للأطفال ضمن السن القانونية للاستخدام					يوم في السنة
12	الحد الأدنى من عدد أيام الإجازة السنوية المدفوعة الأجر المستحقّة للأطفال ضمن السن القانونية للاستخدام، والتي تجوز الاستفادة منها دفعة واحدة					يوم في السنة
13	الحد الأدنى للأجر الشهري للأطفال في حال وجود أحكام خاصة بهم (أو ذكر الحد الأدنى بشكل عام)					دولار أميركي في الشهر[1]
14	السن الدنيا للانتساب إلى نقابة مهنية					سنة

فيما يتعلق بمجموعة الأسئلة التالية (من Q.10 إلى Q.12)، الرجاء وضع علامة (X) في خانة الجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 4 أدناه:

Q.10. هل توجد لائحة رسمية بالأعمال الخطرة بطبيعتها أو التي تشكل خطراً على الحياة أو الصحة أو الأخلاق؟

Q.11. هل توجد جهات رسمية (حكومية أو عامة) مولجة بمراقبة الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (ما دون الثامنة عشرة من العمر) وبالكشف على ظروف عملهم في المؤسسات؟

Q.12. هل توجد جهات رسمية (حكومية أو عامة) مولجة بالتحكيم في حال حصول نزاع عمل بين أصحاب العمل والأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (الذين لم يبلغوا سن الثامنة عشرة)؟

الجدول رقم 4: توفر المؤسسات الراعية لمصالح الأطفال العاملين ما دون سن الثامنة عشرة

رقم السؤال	السؤال	نعم	كلا
Q.10	وجود لائحة رسمية بالأعمال الخطرة بطبيعتها أو التي تشكل خطراً على الحياة أو الصحة أو الأخلاق		
Q.11	وجود جهات رسمية مولجة بمراقبة الأطفال العاملين وبالكشف على ظروف عملهم في المؤسسات		
Q.12	وجود جهات رسمية مولجة بالتحكيم في حال حصول نزاع عمل بين أصحاب العمل والأطفال العاملين		

1 الحد الأدنى للأجر الشهري للأطفال محولاً إلى الدولار الأميركي على أساس سعر صرف العملة المتداول به حالياً.

Q.13. الرجاء ذكر الإجراءات المتخذة في تطبيق اتفاقيتي العمل الدولية 138 لسنة 1973 (بشأن الحد الأدنى لسن الاستخدام) و182 لسنة 1999 (بشأن حظر أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال والإجراءات الفورية للقضاء عليها)؟

(سؤال مفتوح)

بالنسبة إلى اتفاقية العمل الدولية رقم 138: .....

.....

.....

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.....

بالنسبة إلى اتفاقية العمل الدولية رقم 182: .....

.....

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.....

القسم الثاني: حول بعض المعطيات السكانية وخصائص الأطفال العاملين

Q.14. كم يبلغ إجمالي عدد السكان المقيمين في البلد، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية: مواطنين، أجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين/النازحين)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا قبل عام 2011)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا نتيجة الأزمة الراهنة في المنطقة منذ عام 2011)؟

الرجاء وضع الإجابات عن السؤال رقم Q.14 في الجدول رقم 5 أدناه؛ وذلك استناداً إلى آخر الإحصاءات الوطنية المتوفرة (وفي حال عدم توفر معطيات حول النازحين/اللاجئين في الإحصاءات الوطنية، الرجاء الاعتماد على أرقام النازحين/اللاجئين المسجلين لدى المفوضية السامية للأمم المتحدة لشئون اللاجئين RCHNU؛ ووكالة الأمم المتحدة لإغاثة وتشغيل اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في الشرق الأدنى AWRNU). كما يرجى ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات وسنة إصدارها في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

الجدول رقم 5: أعداد فئات السكان المقيمين، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية

#	فئات السكان المقيمين، بحسب الجنسية	العدد الإجمالي	النوع الاجتماعي		المرجع	
			ذكور	إناث	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المواطنين					
2	الأجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين / النازحين)					
3	اللاجئين / النازحين (الوافدين قبل عام 2011)					
4	اللاجئين / النازحين (الوافدين نتيجة الأزمة منذ 2011)					

Q.15. كم يبلغ إجمالي عدد الأطفال (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) المقيمين في البلد، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية: مواطنين، أجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين/النازحين)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا قبل عام 2011)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا نتيجة الأزمة الراهنة في المنطقة منذ عام 2011)؟

الرجاء وضع الاجابات عن السؤال رقم Q.15 في الجدول رقم 6 أدناه؛ وذلك استناداً إلى آخر الإحصاءات الوطنية المتوفرة (وفي حال عدم توفر معطيات حول النازحين/اللاجئين في الإحصاءات الوطنية، الرجاء الاعتماد على أرقام النازحين/اللاجئين المسجلين لدى المفوضية السامية للأمم المتحدة لشئون اللاجئين RCHNU؛ ووكالة الأمم المتحدة لإغاثة وتشغيل اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في الشرق الأدنى AWRNU). كما يرجى ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات وسنة إصدارها في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

الجدول رقم 6: أعداد الأطفال (ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) المقيمين، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية

#	فئات السكان المقيمين، بحسب الجنسية	العدد الإجمالي	النوع الاجتماعي		المرجع	
			ذكور	إناث	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المواطنين					
2	الأجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين / النازحين)					
3	اللاجئين / النازحين (الوافدين قبل عام 2011)					
4	اللاجئين / النازحين (الوافدين نتيجة الأزمة منذ 2011)					

كم يبلغ إجمالي عدد القوى العاملة الفعلية في البلد، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية: مواطنين، أجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين/النازحين)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا قبل عام 2011)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا نتيجة الأزمة الراهنة في المنطقة منذ عام 2011)؟

الرجاء وضع الإجابات عن السؤال رقم 0 في الجدول رقم 7 أدناه؛ وذلك استناداً إلى آخر الإحصاءات الوطنية المتوفرة (وفي حال عدم توفر معطيات حول النازحين/اللاجئين في الإحصاءات الوطنية، الرجاء الاعتماد على أرقام النازحين/اللاجئين المسجلين لدى المفوضية السامية للأمم المتحدة لشئون اللاجئين RCHNU؛ ووكالة الأمم المتحدة لإغاثة وتشغيل اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في الشرق الأدنى AWRNU). كما يرجى ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات وسنة إصدارها في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

الجدول رقم 7: أعداد القوى العاملة الفعلية، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية

#	القوى العاملة الفعلية، بحسب الجنسية	العدد الإجمالي	النوع الاجتماعي		المرجع	
			ذكور	إناث	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المواطنون					
2	الأجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين / النازحين)					
3	اللاجئون / النازحون (الوافدون قبل عام 2011)					
4	اللاجئون / النازحون (الوافدون نتيجة الأزمة منذ 2011)					

Q.16. كم يبلغ إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) المقيمين في البلد، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية: مواطنين، أجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين/النازحين)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا قبل عام 2011)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا نتيجة الأزمة الراهنة في المنطقة منذ عام 2011)؟

الرجاء وضع الإجابات عن السؤال رقم Q.16 في الجدول رقم 8 أدناه؛ وذلك استناداً إلى آخر الإحصاءات الوطنية المتوفرة (وفي حال عدم توفر معطيات حول النازحين/اللاجئين في الإحصاءات الوطنية، الرجاء الاعتماد على أرقام النازحين/اللاجئين المسجلين لدى المفوضية السامية للأمم المتحدة لشئون اللاجئين RCHNU؛ ووكالة الأمم المتحدة لإغاثة وتشغيل اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في الشرق الأدنى AWRNU). كما يرجى ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات وسنة إصدارها في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

الجدول رقم 8: أعداد الأطفال العاملين (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والجنسية

#	الأطفال العاملون بحسب الجنسية	العدد الإجمالي	النوع الاجتماعي		المرجع	
			ذكور	إناث	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المواطنون					
2	الأجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين / النازحين)					
3	اللاجئون / النازحون (الوافدون قبل عام 2011)					
4	اللاجئون / النازحون (الوافدون نتيجة الأزمة منذ 2011)					

الرجاء الإجابة عن الأسئلة الثلاثة التالية (من Q.17 حتى Q.19) في الجدول رقم 9 أدناه؛ وذلك استناداً إلى آخر الإحصاءات الوطنية المتوفرة؛ كما يرجى ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات وسنة إصدارها في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

Q.16. كم تبلغ نسبة الأطفال العاملين في أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال (Worst Forms of Child Labour) إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)؟

Q.18. كم تبلغ نسبة الأطفال في وضعية الشارع (Street-Based Children) – أي الأطفال الذين يعيشون و/أو يعملون في الشارع – إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)؟

Q.19. كم تبلغ نسبة الأطفال العاملين في الأعمال غير المشروعة – Illicit Activities – (غير القانونية، مثل: السرقة والنشل والتهريب والدعارة وتجارة المخدرات والأعمال المسلحة، إلخ.) إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)؟

الجدول رقم 9: نسبة (%) توزع بعض فئات الأطفال العاملين في أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين (ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)

رقم السؤال	فئات الأطفال العاملين في أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال	النسبة (%) إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين	المرجع	
			مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
Q.17	الأطفال العاملين (ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) في أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال أي في الأعمال الخطرة			
Q.18	أطفال الشوارع أي الأطفال الذين يعيشون و/أو يعملون في الشارع (ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)			
Q.19	الأطفال العاملين (ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) في الأعمال غير المشروعة			

Q.20. كم تبلغ نسبة توزع الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب الفئة العمرية والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)؟

الجدول رقم 10: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب الفئة العمرية والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	الفئات العمرية للأطفال العاملين	الإجمالي (النسبة ٪)	النوع الاجتماعي			المرجع	
			ذكور	إناث	المجموع	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	ما بين 5 و9 سنوات				%100		
2	ما بين 10 و14 سنة				%100		
3	ما بين 15 و17 سنة				%100		
المجموع		%100					

Q.21. كم تبلغ نسبة توزع الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب المناطق الجغرافية للسكن (أي التوزع ما بين المدينة والريف) والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والفئة العمرية؟ **(الرجاء وضع توزع النسب المئوية الخاصة بإجمالي الأطفال العاملين وبحسب النوع الاجتماعي في الجدول رقم 11، وبحسب الفئة العمرية في الجدول رقم 12).**

الجدول رقم 11: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب المنطقة الجغرافية للسكن والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	مكان سكن الأطفال العاملين	الإجمالي (النسبة %)	النوع الاجتماعي		
			ذكور	إناث	المجموع
1	المناطق الحضرية				% 100
2	المناطق الريفية				% 100
3	المجموع	% 100			% 100

الجدول رقم 12: توزيع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب المنطقة الجغرافية للسكن والفئة العمرية

#	الفئات العمرية للأطفال العاملين	الفئة العمرية				المرجع	
		ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و17 سنة	المجموع	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المناطق الحضرية				% 100		
2	المناطق الريفية				% 100		

Q.22. كم تبلغ نسبة توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» – Child Labour – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب المناطق الجغرافية للسكن (أي التوزع ما بين المدينة والريف)؟

الجدول رقم 13: توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» (%)، بحسب المنطقة الجغرافية للسكن

#	مكان السكن الجغرافي	نسب (%) توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال"	المرجع	
			مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المناطق الحضرية			
2	المناطق الريفية			
المجموع		% 100		

Q.23 كم تبلغ نسبة توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» – Child Labour – إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب المناطق الجغرافية للسكن (أي التوزع ما بين المدينة والريف)؟

الجدول رقم 14: توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» (%)، إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين، بحسب المنطقة الجغرافية للسكن

فئة الأطفال العاملين	نسب (٪) توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال" إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين		المرجع	
	المناطق الحضرية	المناطق الريفية	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال				

Q.24 كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي[1]، والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية، والمنطقة الجغرافية للسكن (أي التوزع ما بين المدينة والريف)؟

(الرجاء وضع توزع النسب المئوية الخاصة بإجمالي الأطفال العاملين وبحسب النوع الاجتماعي في الجدول رقم 15، وبحسب الفئة العمرية والمنطقة في الجدول رقم 16).

1 انظر تعريف كل من قطاعات النشاط الاقتصادي في ملحق معجم المصطلحات.

الجدول رقم 15: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي	الإجمالي (النسبة %)	النوع الاجتماعي		
			ذكور	إناث	المجموع
1	الزراعة				% 100
2	الصناعة				% 100
3	البناء				% 100
4	التجارة				% 100
5	الخدمات				% 100
6	الخدمات المنزلية				% 100
7	قطاعات أخرى				% 100
المجموع		% 100			% 100

الجدول رقم 16: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي والفئة العمرية والمنطقة الجغرافية للسكن

#	قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي	الإجمالي (النسبة ٪)				النوع الاجتماعي		
		ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و 17 سنة	المجموع	المناطق الحضرية	المناطق الريفية	المجموع
1	الزراعة				% 100			% 100
2	الصناعة				% 100			% 100
3	البناء				% 100			% 100
4	التجارة				% 100			% 100
5	الخدمات				% 100			% 100
6	الخدمات المنزلية				% 100			% 100
7	قطاعات أخرى				% 100			% 100

الرجاء ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات المتعلقة بالسؤال رقم Q.24 وسنة إصدرها، في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

رقم السؤال	المرجع	
	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
Q.24		

Q.25 كم تبلغ نسب الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» – Child Labour – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي؟

الجدول رقم 17: توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» (%)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي

#	قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي	نسب (%) توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال"	المرجع	
			مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	الزراعة			
2	الصناعة			
3	البناء			
4	التجارة			
5	الخدمات			
6	الخدمات المنزلية			
7	قطاعات أخرى			
المجموع		% 100		

Q.26. كم تبلغ نسبة توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» – Child Labour – إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي؟

الجدول رقم 18: توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» (%) إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي

فئة الأطفال العاملين	نسب (٪) توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال"							المرجع	
	الزراعة	الصناعة	البناء	التجارة	الخدمات	الخدمات المنزلية	قطاعات أخرى	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال"									

Q.27. كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و17 سنة)، بحسب نظامية العمل (أي العمل المنظم[1] والعمل غير المنظم)، والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية، والمنطقة الجغرافية للسكن (أي التوزع ما بين المناطق الحضرية والريف)، وقطاع النشاط الاقتصادي؟ (الرجاء وضع توزع النسب المئوية الخاصة بإجمالي الأطفال العاملين بحسب نظامية العمل والنوع الاجتماعي في الجدول رقم 19، وبحسب نظامية العمل والفئة العمرية والمنطقة في الجدول رقم 20، وبحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي في الجدول رقم 21).

1 القطاع غير المنظم يتضمن: «جميع الأنشطة الاقتصادية التي مارسها العمال والوحدات الاقتصادية، التي لا تشملهم – في القانون أو في الممارسة – الترتيبات النظامية كليّاً أو على نحو كافٍ».

الجدول رقم 19: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب نظامية العمل والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	نظامية العمل	الإجمالي البناء	النوع الاجتماعي		
			ذكور	إناث	المجموع
1	العمل المنظم				٪ 100
2	العمل غير المنظم				٪ 100
	المجموع	٪ 100			

الجدول رقم 20: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب نظامية العمل

والفئة العمرية والمنطقة الجغرافية للسكن

#	نظامية العمل	الفئة العمرية				مكان السكن		
		ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و 17 سنة	المجموع	المناطق الحضرية	المناطق الريفية	المجموع
1	العمل المنظم				٪ 100			% 100
2	العمل غير المنظم				٪ 100			% 100

الجدول رقم 21: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%) ، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي

#	نظامية العمل	قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي							
		الزراعة	الصناعة	البناء	التجارة	الخدمات	الخدمات المنزلية	قطاعات أخرى	المجموع
1	العمل المنظم								
2	العمل غير المنظم								

الرجاء ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات المتعلقة بالسؤال رقم Q.27 وسنة إصدارها، في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

رقم السؤال	المرجع	
	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار

Q.28. كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب مراحل المستوى التعليمي المحصّل، والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية؟

الجدول رقم 22: توزع الأطفال العاملين (%)، بحسب مراحل المستوى التعليمي المُحصّل والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والفئة العمرية

#	المراحل التعليمية	عدد سنوات التعليم	الإجمالي (النسبة ٪)	النوع الاجتماعي		المجموع		
				ذكور	إناث	ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و١٤ سنة	ما بين ١٥ و١٧ سنة
1	لم يلتحق بالمدرسة	صفر						
2	روضة / ما دون الابتدائي	ما بين سنة وسنتين تعليم ما قبل مدرسي						
3	ابتدائي	ما بين سنة و6 سنوات تعليم مدرسي						
4	متوسط / متوسط مهني	ما بين 7 و9 سنوات تعليم مدرسي						
5	ثانوي / ثانوي مهني	ما بين 10 و12 سنة تعليم مدرسي						
6	تعليم مختص	غير محدد						
المجموع			٪ 100	٪ 100	٪ 100	٪ 100	٪ 100	٪ 100

الرجاء ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات المتعلقة بالسؤال رقم Q.28 وسنة إصدارها، في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

رقم السؤال	المرجع	
	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار

Q.29. كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» – Child Labour – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب مراحل المستوى التعليمي المحصّل؟

الجدول رقم 23: توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» (%)، بحسب مراحل المستوى التعليمي المحصّل

#	المراحل التعليمية	عدد سنوات التعليم	نسب (%) توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال»	المرجع	
				مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	لم يلتحق بالمدرسة	صفر			
2	روضة / ما دون الابتدائي	ما بين سنة وسنتين تعليم ما قبل مدرسي			
3	ابتدائي	ما بين سنة و6 سنوات تعليم مدرسي			
4	متوسط / متوسط مهني	ما بين 7 و9 سنوات تعليم مدرسي			
5	ثانوي / ثانوي مهني	ما بين 10 و12 سنة تعليم مدرسي			
6	تعليم مختص	غير محدد			
المجموع			٪ 100		

Q.30. كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» – Child Labour – إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب مراحل المستوى التعليمي المحصّل؟

الجدول رقم 24: توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في «عمل الأطفال» (%)، إلى إجمالي عدد الأطفال العاملين، بحسب مراحل المستوى التعليمي المحصّل

فئة الأطفال العاملين	نسب (٪) توزع الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال"						المرجع	
	لم يلتحق بالمدرسة	روضة / ما دون الابتدائي	ابتدائي	متوسط / متوسط مهني	ثانوي / ثانوي مهني	تعليم مختص	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
الأطفال المنخرطين في "عمل الأطفال"								

الرجاء وضع الإجابات عن كل من السؤالين التاليين (Q.31 و Q.32)، في الجدولين (الجدول رقم 25 و الجدول رقم 26) أدناه:

Q.31. كم يبلغ متوسط ساعات العمل الأسبوعي للأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) ومتوسط الأجر الشهري (محولاً إلى الدولار الأميركي على أساس سعر صرف العملة المتداول به حاليّاً)، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية، والمنطقة الجغرافية للسكن (أي التوزع ما بين المدينة والريف)؟

Q.32. كم يبلغ متوسط ساعات العمل الأسبوعي للأطفال العاملين – Children in Employment – (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة) ومتوسط الأجر الشهري (محولاً إلى الدولار الأميركي على أساس سعر صرف العملة المتداول به حاليّاً) بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي؟

الجدول رقم 25: متوسط ساعات العمل الأسبوعي والأجر الشهري ($) للأطفال العاملين (ما بين 5 و17 سنة)، بحسب النوع الاجتماعي (الجنس) والفئة العمرية والمنطقة الجغرافية للسكن

رقم السؤال	السؤال	الإجمالي (النسبة %)	النوع الاجتماعي		الفئة العمرية			مكان السكن	
			ذكور	إناث	ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و17 سنة	المناطق الحضرية	المناطق الريفية
Q.31	متوسط ساعات العمل الأسبوعي								
Q.32	متوسط الأجر الشهري ($)								

الجدول رقم 26: متوسط ساعات العمل الأسبوعي والأجر الشهري ($) للأطفال العاملين (ما بين 5 و17 سنة)، بحسب قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي

رقم السؤال	نظامية العمل	قطاع النشاط الاقتصادي						
		الزراعة	الصناعة	البناء	التجارة	الخدمات	الأعمال المنزلية	قطاعات أخرى
Q.31	متوسط ساعات العمل الأسبوعي							
Q.32	متوسط الأجر الشهري ($)							

الرجاء ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات المتعلقة بالسؤالين رقم Q.31 و Q.32 m و سنة إصدارها، في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

رقم السؤال	المرجع	
	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
Q.31		
Q.32		

القسم الثالث: الأطفال العاملون في القطاع الزراعي

Q.33. هل يشمل قانون العمل النافذ (في حال وجوده) أحكاماً متعلقة بالاستخدام في المشاريع الزراعية؟ الرجاء الإجابة عن السؤال رقم Q.33 عبر وضع علامة (X) في خانة الجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 27 أدناه:

الجدول رقم 27: أحكام قانون العمل حول الاستخدام في المشاريع الزراعية

السؤال	نعم	لا
هل يشمل قانون العمل أحكاماً متعلقة بالاستخدام في المشاريع الزراعية		

Q.34 هل قررت السلطات المعنية العمل بالاستثناء الوارد في نص اتفاقية العمل الدولية رقم 138 الخاص بالحيازات الأسرية والصغيرة التي تنتج من أجل الاستهلاك الذاتي ولا تستخدم عمالاً بأجر بصورة منتظمة؟ الرجاء الإجابة عن السؤال رقم Q.34 عبر وضع علامة (X) في خانة الجواب الصحيح في الجدول رقم 28 أدناه:

الجدول رقم 28: تطبيق الاستثناء في اتفاقية العمل الدولية رقم 138

السؤال	نعم	لا
هل قررت السلطات المعنية العمل بالاستثناء الوارد في نص اتفاقية العمل الدولية رقم 138 الخاص بالحيازات الأسرية والصغيرة التي تنتج من أجل الاستهلاك المحلي ولا تستخدم عمالا بأجر بصورة منتظمة؟		

Q.35 كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب الجنسية: مواطنين، أجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين/النازحين)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا قبل عام 2011)، والأجانب من اللاجئين/النازحين (الذين وفدوا نتيجة الأزمة الراهنة في المنطقة منذ عام 2011)؟

الرجاء وضع الإجابات عن السؤال رقم Q.35 في الجدول رقم 29 أدناه؛ وذلك استناداً إلى آخر الإحصاءات الوطنية المتوفرة (وفي حال عدم توفر معطيات حول النازحين/اللاجئين في الإحصاءات الوطنية، الرجاء الاعتماد على أرقام النازحين/اللاجئين المسجلين لدى المفوضية السامية للأمم المتحدة لشئون اللاجئين RCHNU)؛ ووكالة الأمم المتحدة لإغاثة وتشغيل اللاجئين الفلسطينيين في الشرق الأدنى AWRNU). كما يرجى ذكر المراجع أو مصادر المعلومات وسنة إصدارها في الخانة المناسبة من الجدول أدناه:

الجدول رقم 29: تطبيق الاستثناء في اتفاقية العمل الدولية رقم 138

#	الأطفال العاملون في قطاع الزراعة	نسب (%) توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة	المرجع	
			مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	المواطنون			
2	الأجانب (باستثناء اللاجئين / النازحين)			
3	اللاجئون / النازحون (الوافدون قبل عام 2011)			
4	اللاجئون / النازحون (الوافدون نتيجة الأزمة منذ 2011)			

Q.36 كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب أنواع المهن المتفرعة عن هذا القطاع، والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية؟ (الرجاء وضع توزع النسب المئوية الخاصة بإجمالي الأطفال العاملين وبحسب النوع الاجتماعي في الجدول رقم 30، وبحسب الفئة العمرية في الجدول رقم 31).

الجدول رقم 30: توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (%)، بحسب أنواع المهن الفرعية والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	المهن المتفرعة عن القطاع الزراعي	النسبة (٪) من إجمالي الأطفال العاملين في القطاع الزراعي		النوع الاجتماعي			المرجع	
				ذكور	إناث	المجموع	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	الزراعة					100 %		
2	صيد السمك وتربية الأحياء المائية					100 %		
3	الغابات والحراجة					100 %		
4	تربية حيوانية وإنتاج حيواني					100 %		
	المجموع	% 100						

الجدول رقم 31: توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (%)، بحسب أنواع المهن الفرعية والفئة العمرية

#	المهن المتفرعة عن القطاع الزراعي	الفئة العمرية			المرجع	
		ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و17 سنة	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	الزراعة					
2	صيد السمك وتربية الأحياء المائية					
3	الغابات والحراجة					
4	تربية حيوانية وإنتاج حيواني					
	المجموع	% 100	% 100	% 100		

Q.37 في حال عدم توفر إحصائيات (حول توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة على أنواع المهن المتفرعة عن القطاع)، الرجاء تحديد المهن الرئيسة في مجال سلاسل الإنتاج الزراعي والغذائي التي يتم فيها استخدام الأطفال بالأكثر؛ وذلك استناداً إلى المراجع المتوفرة:

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Q.38 كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب الوضعية في العمل (مساعد عائلي أو أجير)، والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية؟ (الرجاء وضع توزع النسب المئوية الخاصة بوضعية الاطفال في العمل وبحسب النوع الاجتماعي في الجدول رقم 32، وبحسب هذه الوضعية والفئة العمرية في الجدول رقم 33).

الجدول رقم 32: توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (%)، بحسب الوضعية في العمل والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	الوضعية في العمل	النسبة (٪) من إجمالي الأطفال العاملين في القطاع الزراعي		النوع الاجتماعي			المرجع	
				ذكور	إناث	المجموع	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	مساعد عائلي							
2	أجير							
	المجموع	% 100				% 100		

الجدول رقم 33: توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (%)، بحسب الوضعية في العمل والفئة العمرية

#	الوضعية في العمل	الفئة العمرية			المرجع	
		ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و17 سنة	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	مساعد عائلي					
2	أجير					
	المجموع	% 100	% 100	% 100		

Q.39 كم تبلغ نسب توزع الأطفال العاملين بأجر في قطاع الزراعة (من الفئة العمرية ما بين 5 و 17 سنة)، بحسب نوع الأجر، والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)، والفئة العمرية؟ (الرجاء وضع توزع النسب المئوية الخاصة بإجمالي الأطفال العاملين بأجر وبحسب النوع الاجتماعي في الجدول رقم 34، وبحسب الفئة العمرية في الجدول رقم 35).

الجدول رقم 32: توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (%)، بحسب الوضعية في العمل والنوع الاجتماعي (الجنس)

#	نوع الأجر	النسبة (٪) من إجمالي الأطفال العاملين في القطاع الزراعي		النوع الاجتماعي			المرجع	
				ذكور	إناث	المجموع	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	أجر على بالساعة					% 100		
2	مياومة (أجر يومي)					% 100		
3	أجر أسبوعي					% 100		

4	أجر شهري					% 100		
5	على أساس الإنتاج (على القطعة)					% 100		
6	مبلغ مقطوع (عند إنهاء المهمة)					% 100		
7	أجر عيني					% 100		
8	أنواع أخرى، حدد: ...					% 100		
9	أنواع أخرى، حدد: ...					% 100		
	المجموع	% 100				% 100		

الجدول رقم 35: توزع الأطفال العاملين في قطاع الزراعة (%)، بحسب أنواع الأجر والفئة العمرية

#	المهن المتفرعة عن القطاع الزراعي	الفئة العمرية			المرجع	
		ما بين 5 و9 سنوات	ما بين 10 و14 سنة	ما بين 15 و17 سنة	مصدر المعلومات	سنة الإصدار
1	أجر على بالساعة					
2	مياومة (أجر يومي)					
3	أجر أسبوعي					
4	أجر شهري					
5	بحسب الإنتاجية (على القطعة)					
6	مبلغ مقطوع (بحسب المهمة)					
7	أجر عيني					
8	أنواع أخرى، حدد: ...					
9	أنواع أخرى، حدد: ...					
	المجموع	% 100	% 100	% 100		

Q.40 ما هي أنواع العمل التي يزاولها الأطفال العاملون في المهن الزراعية في الأغلب؟ الرجاء تحديد أنواع العمل التي يزاولها الأطفال في المهن الزراعية بحسب الأولوية. يمكن ترتيب المهن الزراعية المذكورة في الجدول رقم 36 بحسب الأولوية من الرقم 1 إلى الرقم 7؛ حيث الرقم 1 يعني أن هذه المهنة الزراعية يزاولها الأطفال بالأكثر، بينما الرقم 7 يعني أنها المهنة الزراعية الأقل مزاولة من قبل الأطفال (ويمكنك اختيار أي رقم من 1 إلى 7).

الجدول رقم 36: أنواع العمل التي يزاولها الأطفال العاملون في المهن الزراعية بحسب الأولوية

أنواع المهن الزراعية	ترتيب الأولوية (من ١ إلى ٧) بحسب المهن الأكثر مزاولة من قبل الأطفال
إعداد الأرض	
زرع الشتلات	
التعشيب	
وضع الأسمدة	
رش المبيدات	
الحصاد	
معالجة المحاصيل الزراعية	

Q.41 ما هي أنواع مخاطر العمل التي يتعرض لها الأطفال العاملون في المهن الزراعية في الأغلب؟ الرجاء تحديد مخاطر العمل التي يتعرض لها الأطفال في المهن الزراعية بحسب الأولوية. يمكن ترتيب مخاطر العمل المذكورة.

Q.42 الجدول رقم 37 بحسب الأولوية من الرقم 1 إلى الرقم 7؛ حيث الرقم 1 يعني أن هذه المخاطر يتعرض لها الأطفال العاملون في المهن الزراعية كثيراً، بينما الرقم 7 يعني أنها أقل مخاطر العمل التي يتعرض لها الأطفال (ويمكنك اختيار أي رقم من 1 إلى 7):.

أنواع مخاطر العمل في المهن الزراعية	ترتيب الأولوية (من ١ إلى ٧) بحسب مخاطر العمل التي يتعرض لها الأطفال العاملون في المهن الزراعية بالأكثر
التعرض لأدوات العمل الحادة والآلات الخطرة	
خطر التعرض للدغات الأفاعي والجروح من الحيوانات الأخرى	
التعرض للظروف البيئية القاسية	
التعرض للكيماويات الزراعية، بما فيها الأسمدة غير العضوية والمبيدات	

القسم الرابع: أسئلة نوعية

الرجاء تدوين الإجابات عن كل من السؤالين النوعيين أدناه (Q.43 و Q.44) اعتماداً على معلوماتكم وخبرتكم الشخصية في مجال عمل الأطفال ومكافحة أسوأ أشكاله:

Q.43 برأيكم، ما الأسباب الرئيسة لظاهرة عمل الأطفال – Child Labour – في بلدكم؟ (سؤال مفتوح)

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Q.44 برأيكم، ما أولويات الخطط والسياسات الوطنية المطلوبة في بلدكم من أجل الحد من ظاهرة عمل الأطفال – Child Labour – ومكافحة أسوأ أشكاله (Worst Forms of Child Labour)؟ (سؤال مفتوح)

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Q.45 الرجاء تزويدنا بالروابط الإلكترونية الخاصة بالتقارير والدراسات الأحدث حول ظاهرة عمل الأطفال في بلدكم، والمنشورة لدى الجهات المعنية بالموضوع (مثل: الوزارات والمؤسسات العامة والمنظمات الدولية وشركات الأبحاث المعتمدة، وقطاع العمل الأهلي).

الجدول رقم 38: الروابط الإلكترونية لأحدث التقارير والدراسات، وموضوعها، والجهة التي أصدرتها

الرابط الإلكتروني	الموضوع	الجهة التي أصدرت الدراسة

شكراً جزيلاً لكم، على حُسن تعاونكم

تابع الملحق : معجم المصطلحات

1. الأطفال: هم الفئة العمرية المستهدفة من الدراسة، وقد تمَّ تحديد هذه الفئة العمرية من الأطفال الذين تتراوح سنهم ما بين 5 سنوات و 17 سنة، وذلك بحسب ما تعتمده منظمة العمل الدولية في الدراسات والأبحاث الصادرة عنها. (راجع: المؤتمر الدولي الـ 18 لخبراء إحصاءات العمالة: القرار II، المتعلّق بالإحصاءات حول عمل الأطفال – جنيف، بتاريخ ٥ كانون الأوّل – 2008).

2. الأطفال العاملون: هم «الأطفال في العمل» الذين يزاولون أي نشاط اقتصادي يقع ضمن حدود الإنتاج الواردة في «نظام الحسابات القومية» وعملوا لمدة ساعة على الأقل خلال فترة مرجعية معينة من الزمن (عادة ما تكون أسبوعاً)، أو إذا كانت لديهم وظيفة أو أعمال كانوا غائبين عنها مؤقتاً. وقد يكون هذا العمل بدوام كامل أو جزئي، بأجر أو من دون أجر. ويشتمل مفهوم «الأطفال العاملون» على ثلاث فئات من الأطفال في العمل:

   – الفئة الأولى: الأطفال ما بين 15 و 17 سنة من عمرهم، ممن يزاولون أعمالاً غير مصنفة ضمن «أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال»؛

   – الفئة الثانية: الأطفال ما بين 12 و 14 سنة من عمرهم الذين يزاولون أعمالاً خفيفة يجوز السماح بالاستخدام أو العمل فيها بموجب قانون العمل المرعي الإجراء؛

   – الفئة الثالثة: أولئك الذين يزاولون «عمل الأطفال» بحسب تعريف حدود الإنتاج في «نظام الحسابات القومية».

3. **عمل الأطفال**: هم الأطفال الذين يزاولون أعمالاً غير صالحة لصفتهم (أطفالاً)، أو في الأعمال التي تضر بصحتهم أو تعليمهم أو تنميتهم الأخلاقية. ويستند هذا التعريف إلى اتفاقية منظمة العمل الدولية رقم 138 بشأن الحد الأدنى لسن العمل، واتفاقية منظمة العمل الدولية رقم 182 حول حظر أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال.

4. **الأعمال الخطرة على الأطفال**: وهي الأعمال الخطرة التي يزاولها الأطفال وتكون ضارة بنمو الطفل الجسدي والاجتماعي والنفسي (مثال: الأعمال التي تنطوي على استخدام الآلات والمعدات الخطرة، العمل ضمن بيئة مناخية قاسية، العمل بالمواد المتفجرة أو الكيميائية أو القابلة للاشتعال، العمل في الفنادق والملاهي الليلية، إلخ).

5. **أسوأ أشكال عمل الأطفال**: وهي تضم أصناف الأعمال التالية:

   – أشكال الرق كافة أو الممارسات الشبيهة بالرق، كبيع الأطفال والاتجار بهم وعبودية الدَّيْن (Debt Bondage) والقنانة والعمل القسري أو الإجباري، بما في ذلك التجنيد القسري أو الإجباري للأطفال لاستخدامهم في صراعات مسلحة؛

   – استخدام طفل أو تشغيله أو عرضه لأغراض الدعارة، أو لإنتاج أعمال إباحية أو أداء عروض إباحية؛

   – استخدام طفل أو تشغيله أو عرضه لمزاولة أنشطة غير مشروعة، ولاسيما إنتاج المخدرات بالشكل الذي حددت به في المعاهدات الدولية ذات الصلة والاتجار بها؛

   – الأعمال التي يرجح أن تؤدي، بفعل طبيعتها أو بفعل الظروف التي تزاول فيها، إلى الإضرار بصحة الأطفال أو سلامتهم أو سلوكهم الأخلاقي.

6. أطفال الشوارع: وهم الأطفال الذين يعيشون و/أو يعملون في الشارع.

7. أعمال الأطفال غير المشروعة: وهي تشمل استخدام الأطفال أو عرضهم لمزاولة أنشطة غير مشروعة وخصوصاً في إنتاج المخدرات والاتجار بها، وسواها من الأعمال غير المشروعة بموجب القوانين السارية المفعول في البلد.

8. السكان المقيمون: هم جميع السكان المقيمين إقامة اعتيادية في البلد في وقت التعداد. وقد يكونون مواطنين أو غير مواطنين، بالإضافة إلى الأشخاص المقيمين دون وثائق، وطالبي اللجوء السياسي واللاجئين والنازحين مؤقتاً إلى البلد. ويشمل مفهوم السكان المقيمين أولئك الأجانب المقيمين أو الذين يعتزمون الإقامة في البلد بشكل مستمر إما معظم فترة الاثني عشر شهراً السابقة على التعداد وإما لمدة اثني عشر شهراً أو أكثر في البلد.

9. القوى العاملة الفعلية: هم الأشخاص الذين قاموا بعمل ولو لمدة ساعة واحدة فقط خلال الفترة المرجعية (عادة ما تشمل الأسبوع السابق على المقابلة)، والأشخاص الغائبين عن العمل مؤقتاً بسبب المرض أو العطل أو الإجازة.

10. تشمل قطاعات النشاط الاقتصادي ما يلي:

أ. الزراعة: النشاطات الزراعية بما في ذلك دعم النشاطات الزراعية في محلة ما قبل الحصاد وبعده، بالإضافة إلى الغابات والحراجة والتحطيب، والتربية الحيوانية والإنتاج الحيواني، وصيد السمك وتربية الأحياء المائية.

ب. الصناعة: الصناعات الاستخراجية والتحويلية، واستخراج النفط الخام والغاز الطبيعي، بالإضافة إلى إمدادات الكهرباء والغاز والبخار والمياه الساخنة.

ج. البناء: الإنشاءات والمقاولات.

د. التجارة: تجارة التجزئة (المتخصصة منها، وتلك غير المتخصصة في المتاجر)، وتجارة الجملة، وبيع وصيانة وإصلاح المركبات ذات المحركات والدراجات النارية وبيع وقود السيارات بالتجزئة، بالإضافة إلى إصلاح السلع الشخصية والأسرية.

ه. الخدمات المنزلية: الأنشطة التي تؤديها الأسر المعيشية وتوفر خدمات لاستخدامها بأنفسهم: مثل، تنظيف وتزيين وصيانة المساكن التي تسكنها الأسر المعيشية، وتنظيف وصيانة وإصلاح السلع المعمرة للأسر المعيشية (بما في ذلك السيارات المستخدمة لأغراض الأسر المعيشية)، وإعداد وتقديم الوجبات، والعناية وتعليم الأطفال، والعناية بالمرضى والعجزة وكبار السن، بالإضافة إلى نقل أعضاء الأسر المعيشية أو سلعهم.

و. الخدمات: الفنادق والمطاعم، والأنشطة العقارية، والخدمات الاستشارية، والبحث والتطوير، والأنشطة القانونية، والأنشطة المحاسبية، والأنشطة المعمارية والهندسية، والإعلان، والتعليم، والصحة، والأنشطة الترفيهية والثقافية والرياضية، وأنشطة العمل الاجتماعي، والنقل والتخزين، وتأجير الآلات والمعدات التي لا يشغلها عامل وتأجير السلع الشخصية والأسرية، بالإضافة إلى الخدمات المالية والمصرفية وأنشطة التأمين.

ز. قطاعات أخرى: جميع قطاعات النشاط الاقتصادي غير المذكورة أعلاه (في حال وجدت).

Appendix 4: List of respondents to the questionnaire

We received a response to the questionnaire (template attached in Annex 13) from the 15 countries listed below. The responses mainly focused on part of the questionnaire and provided information on national legislation. The main obstacle in filling the questionnaire appears to be that relevant bodies or institutions often lack the necessary data and technical capabilities to provide answers to all questions. The concerned bodies could benefit from future training on statistics and data analysis and on how to fill out needed information.

1) Bahrain
2) Egypt
3) Iraq
4) Jordan
5) Kuwait
6) Lebanon
7) Mauritania
8) Morocco
9) Oman
10) Occupied Palestinian Territory
11) Qatar
12) Saudi Arabia
13) Tunisia
14) United Arab Emirates
15) Yemen

Appendix 5: List of references by country and topic

The references below are meant as a preliminary indicative list highlighting available references by country/topic. Local, as well as regional, experts are invited to further complete these lists in order to provide a comprehensive overview that allows for easier identification of research gaps by country/topic.

Country or topic	References
General literature	• ILO (2017). Global estimates of child labour: Results and trends, 2012–2016, International Labour Organization (ILO), Geneva, 2017. • ILO (2017). Ending child labour by 2025: A review of policies and programmes, International Labour Office (ILO), Geneva, 2017. • ILO (2017). Methodology of the global estimates of child labour, 2012–2016, International Labour Organization (ILO), Geneva, 2017. • ILO (2013). Marking progress against child labour: Global estimates and trends 2000–2012. International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), Geneva: ILO, 2013. • UCW (2017). Child labour in the Arab States: A descriptive analysis. • ILO, UCW (2014). The twin challenges of child labour and youth employment in the Arab States: An overview (Beirut, ILO), July 2014.
Algeria	
Bahrain	
Comoros	• Official Letter to US Secretary of State on trafficking • Plan D'Action National pour l'Elimination des Pires Formes de Travail des Enfants aux Comores (PAN Comores), 2015–2010
Djibouti	
Egypt	IPEC; CAPMAS (2012). Working Children in Egypt: Results of the 2010 National Child Labour Survey, International Labour Organization, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS) (Cairo, ILO), 2012 - 1 v. NCLS (2010) Indicators (Arabic). HRW (2001). EGYPT: Underage and unprotected: Child Labor in Egypt's Cotton Fields, January 2001. Danida, Save the Children. Toolkit to address child labour in the agricultural sector in Egypt. UCW (2009). A profile of Cairo street children.

Iraq	• MICS 4 Report (preliminary), April 2012 • UNICEF (2015). A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour, Iraq.
Jordan	• University of Jordan, Center for Strategic Studies (2016). Summary Report on Main Findings: National Child Labour Survey 2016 of Jordan. Amman, August 2016. • ILO (2014). Rapid Assessment (RA) on Child Labour, Agricultural Sector in Jordan/Mafraq & Jordan Valley (Ghor), Jordanians and Syrian Working Children, February 2014, ILO Jordan. • ILO (2014). Report of the rapid assessment on Child Labour in the Urban Informal Sector in three governorates of Jordan (Amman, Mafraq and Irbid). • National Framework for Combating Child Labour 2011. • AVSI Aqaba case study (qualitative report reflecting poorest districts in Aqaba). • -Child Labour in Jordan 2014, Estimates based on the Employment and Unemployment Survey (EUS), Final report 19.11.2015. • Save the Children, Homebound Girls in Jordan, 2013 • وزارة العمل، دراسة المؤشرات الاقتصادية والاجتماعية والصحية لعمل الأطفال في الأردن، ٢٠١٠ . • نحو أردن خال من عمل الأطفال" مجموعة من الممارسات الجيدة / الناشئة/ منظمة العمل الدولية، المبادئ والحقوق الاساسية في فرع العمل – جنيف، منظمة العمل الدولي ٢٠١٦. • Produced guides: Labour Inspectors Guide; Manual for social workers.
Kuwait	
Lebanon	• FAO Child labour guide. • CRI; ILO; UNICEF; Save the Children, MoL (2015). Children living and working on the streets in Lebanon: Profile and magnitude. • ILO; USJ (2012). Rapid Assessment on Child Labour in North Lebanon (Tripoli and Akkar) and Bekaa Governorates. • MoL, National Action Plan to Eliminate the Worst Forms of Child Labour in Lebanon by 2016 • HRW (2016). Human Rights Watch Submission to the Committee on the Rights of the Child on Lebanon. • ILO-IPEC; CRI (2002). Lebanon: Child labour on tobacco plantations A rapid assessment, Investigating the Worst Forms of Child Labour No.17,Geneva 2002, Geneva. • Investigating the Worst Forms of Child Labour No. 17. • Osseiran H. (2012). Action against child labour in Lebanon: A mapping of policy and normative initiatives (Beirut, International Labour Organization).
Libya	

Tunisia	• Enquête Nationale sur le Travail des Enfants en Tunisie de 2017 – Principaux résultats (République Tunisienne, Tunis, Bureau International du Travail, Service des Principes et droits fondamentaux au travail (FUNDAMENTALS), Institut National de la Statistique de la Tunisie (INS)). • Plan d'Action National pour la lutte contre le travail des enfants en Tunisie, 2020–2015. • Concepts et définitions du travail des enfants en Tunisie. • L'abandon scolaire en Tunisie: Etat des lieux, caractéristiques et perspectives (2016). • IPEC, L'analyse législative et institutionnelle du travail des enfants en Tunisie. • MICS 4 Report (2012–2011) • Délégué à la Protection de l'Enfance : Mécanismes de protection de l'enfance en Tunisie. • (See also domestic workers)
UAE	
Yemen	• Yemen UCW studies 2003 and 2006. • ILO (2012). Working children in the Republic of Yemen: The results of the 2010 Labour Survey, November 2012. • Alaug A., Arwa Alakhfash A., Salem M. Child labor in qat agriculture and marketing in Yemen, Limited-scale Rapid Assessment. • ILO. Final evaluation of Promoting Decent Work and Gender Equality in Yemen (2008–2006). • (see also armed conflict)
Refugees and IDPs	• UNHCR, 3RP Regional Refugee & Resilience Plan 2019–2018 in Response to the Syria Crisis, Regional Strategic Overview. • Jones K., Ksaifi L. (2016). Struggling to survive: Slavery and exploitation of Syrian refugees in Lebanon (The Freedom Fund), April 2016. • Human Rights Watch (2016). Growing up without an education: Barriers to education for Syrian refugee children in Lebanon, July 2016. • Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, Ministry of Planning and International Cooperation (2017). The Jordan Response Plan for the Syria Crisis –2017 2019. • Küppers, B., and Ruhmann, A. (2016). Child labour among refugees of the Syrian conflict (Terre des Hommes), June 2016. • Tamkeen Fields for Aid (2015). Syrian refugee child labour in Jordan and the risk of exploitation, 2015. • UNICEF, Save the Children (2015). Small hands heavy burden – How the Syria conflict is driving more children into the workforce. • Peter Matz, Child labour within the Syrian refugee response, Stocktaking report, Draft, 24 August 2016. • UNICEF (2015). A rapid assessment of the worst forms of child labour, Iraq 2015. • UNRWA (2016). Child Protection Framework.

Mauritania	• MICS 2011 ,4. • MACEF, UNICEF (2010). Etude sur le trafic, la traite et les pires formes du travail des enfants en Mauritanie, 2010. • Exposé de motifs sur la loi relative à la lutte contre le travail et la traite des enfants, 2013. • Plan d'action national pour l'élimination du travail des enfants en Mauritanie (PANETE-RIM), 2020–2015.
Morocco	• ILO (2015). Etude sur la collecte de données sur les activités des enfants dans le secteur des petites exploitations agricoles au Maroc, Rapport d'enquête (Genève, Organisation Internationale du Travail, Programme international pour l'abolition du travail des enfants). • UCW (2004). Understanding children's work in Morocco: Report on child labour, Understanding Children's Work Project Country Report Series, May 2004. • Royaume du Maroc Ministère de l'Emploi et de la Formation Professionnelle; BIT; UNICEF (2010). Etude sur le travail des enfants dans les activités à caractère purement traditionnel. • Tone Somerfeld (2001). Domestic Child Labour in Morocco, An analysis of the parties involved in relationships to "Petites Bonnes" (Save the Children). • Ministère de la Solidarité. Politique publique intégrée de la protection de l'enfance. • ILO-IPEC (2010). Evaluation du projet pilote « Lutte contre le travail des enfants dans le secteur de l'artisanat » à Marrakech. • UNICEF (2015). Situation des enfants et des femmes au Maroc, Analyse selon l'approche équité. • Haut Commisariat au Plan. 2017. Enquete Nationale sur L'Emploi. www.mobile.menara.ma.
Oman	
Palestine	• ILO Website. Enhanced knowledge and capacity of tripartite partners to address the worst forms of child labour in the Occupied Palestinian Territory. Available at: http://www.ilo.org/beirut/projects/WCMS_222638/lang--en/index.htm. • ILO Policy Brief: Child labour and protection in the Occupied Palestinian Territory.
Qatar	
Saudi Arabia	
Somalia	
Sudan	• African Development Bank Group (2015). Child labour and schooling in South Sudan and Sudan: Is there a gender preference?, Working Paper No. 230, December 2015.
Syrian Arab Republic	• ILO and UNICEF (2012). National study on worst forms of child Labour in Syria. • National Action Plan to combat child labour 2011.

Armed conflict	• Security Council Resolution 1999) 1261), S/RES/30) 1261 August 1999). • United Nations, General Assembly/Security Council, Report of the Secretary-General on children and armed conflict, A/836/70–S/20) 360/2016 April 2016). • United Nations, Human Rights Council, The situation of human rights in Yemen, including violations and abuses since September 2014, Report of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, A/HRC/5) 33/36 September 2017). • United Nations, General Assembly, Report of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General for Children and Armed Conflict, A/2) 276/72 August 2017). • International Organization for Migration (2014). Executive summary of research findings on tourist marriage in Yemen, 16 October 2014. • UN-OCHA (2018 .(2017 humanitarian needs overview, Syrian Arab Republic, 21 November 2017
Trafficking and slavery	• ILO (2013). Tricked and trapped: Human trafficking in the Middle East. • Global estimates of modern slavery (force labour and force marriage) 2017. • UNICEF (2017). Harrowing journeys: Children and youth on the move across the Mediterranean Sea, at risk of trafficking and exploitation.
Children in domestic work	• Etude sur les enfants travailleurs domestiques en Tunisie (draft 2014). • ILO (2012). Child domestic work: Global estimates 2012 • HRW (2012). Lonely servitude: Child domestic labor in Morocco. • ILO (2016). A study of the working and living conditions of migrant domestic workers in Lebanon – Intertwined: The workers' side. • ILO (2013). Ending child labour in domestic work and protecting young workers from abusive working conditions.

Appendix 6: Percentage share of GDP and labour force by sector

	AGRICULTURE		INDUSTRY		SERVICES	
	Share of GDP (2016 unless specified otherwise)	Share of labour force (2017 unless specified otherwise)	Share of GDP (2016 unless specified otherwise)	Share of labour force (2017 unless specified otherwise)	Share of GDP (2016 unless specified otherwise	Share of labour force (2017 unless specified otherwise)
World		29	2015) 27.3)	21	2015) 68.9)	59
Arab World*	7.2	21	38.8	24	54.0	55
Algeria	13.3	11	37.8	35	48.9	55
Bahrain	0.3	1	39.8	33	59.9	66
Comoros	2014) 35.9)	62	2014) 11.4)	5	2014) 52.7)	33
Djibouti	2007) 3.8)	23	2007) 16.9)	24	2007) 79.3)	53
Egypt	11.9	25	32.9	25	55.2	42
Iraq	-	20	-	21	-	59
Jordan	4.3	2	28.9	18	2016) 66.8)	80
Kuwait	0.5	3	48.4	27	51.1	70
Lebanon	3.8	8	16.7	22	79.5	69
Libya	2008) 1.9)	19	2008) 78.2)	25	2008) 19.9)	56
Mauritania	27.4	40	30.0	10	42.6	50
Morocco	13.6	33	29.5	21	56.8	47
Oman	2.0	5	47.5	40	50.5	55
Qatar	0.2	1	51.9	54	47.6	45
Saudi Arabia	2.7	6	43.3	23	54.0	71
Somalia	1990) 65.5)	72	1986) 10.1)	5	1986) 27.5)	23
Sudan	39.0	33	2.9	20	58.1	47
Syria	2007) 17.9)	19	2007) 33)	39	2007) 49.1)	42
Tunisia	10.0	12	26.4	29	63.6	59
United Arab Emirates	2010) 0.8)	4	2010) 53.4)	21	2010) 45.8)	75
West Bank and Gaza	2015) 4.2)	9	2015) 22.5)	30	2015) 73.3)	61
Yemen	9.8	33	48.1	18	42.2	49

***Estimates for the "Arab World" cover the 22 countries of the League of Arab States.**

Source: World Bank Data Website. 2017. [Online]. Available at: http://data.worldbank.org [Accessed January 2018].

For the percentage share of GDP, see the following pages: Agriculture, value added (per cent of GDP); Industry, value added (per cent of GDP); Services, value added (per cent of GDP).

For the percentage share of Labour Force, see the following pages: Employment in agriculture (per cent of total employment); Employment in industry (per cent of total employment); Employment in services (per cent of total employment). These are modelled ILO estimates from the ILOSTAT database. Data retrieved in March 2017.

Appendix 7: Legal provisions by country

5. Egypt	In force	In force	In force	6–14	14	6 hours per day	16	Idem	. Completed hazardous work list for children under 18 General prohibition for under 16	Labour code - Max 6 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 8 pm to 7 am - 18 hours continuous rest between 2 working days - 21 days paid annual leave (15 continuous) Ministerial Decision No. 118/2003 (hazardous work list)
6. Iraq	In force	In force	In force	6–11	15	7 hours per day	16	-	Completed list (remains in the form of a general prohibition: see article 95 of labour code No. 37/2015; this list applied to all minors)	Labour Code No. 37/2015 If under 16: - Max 7 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 9 pm to 9 am - 30 days paid annual leave
7. .Jordan	In force	In force	In force	6–15	16 (section 73 labour code)	6 hours per day (a)	18 (section 74 labour code)	N/A	Completed list (b)	a) Section 75 of the Labour Code: “The employment of minors shall be prohibited: (1) in excess of six hours per day, and minors shall be granted a rest period of at least one hour after four consecutive working hours; (2) between 8 in the evening and 6 in the morning; (3) on religious and official holidays and on weekly rest days.” (b) “Ministerial Order of 2011 Concerning Occupations that are Dangerous or Tiring or Harmful to the Health of Youth”, which are prohibited for children under 18.
8.Kuwait		In force	In force	6–14	15				Completed list	

5. Egypt	In force	In force	In force	6–14	14	6 hours per day	16	Idem	. Completed hazardous work list for children under 18 General prohibition for under 16	Labour code - Max 6 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 8 pm to 7 am - 18 hours continuous rest between 2 working days - 21 days paid annual leave (15 continuous) Ministerial Decision No. 118/2003 (hazardous work list)
6. Iraq	In force	In force	In force	6–11	15	7 hours per day	16	-	Completed list (remains in the form of a general prohibition: see article 95 of labour code No. 37/2015; this list applied to all minors)	Labour Code No. 37/2015 If under 16: - Max 7 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 9 pm to 9 am - 30 days paid annual leave
7. .Jordan	In force	In force	In force	6–15	16 (section 73 labour code)	6 hours per day (a)	18 (section 74 labour code)	N/A	Completed list (b)	a) Section 75 of the Labour Code: “The employment of minors shall be prohibited: (1) in excess of six hours per day, and minors shall be granted a rest period of at least one hour after four consecutive working hours; (2) between 8 in the evening and 6 in the morning; (3) on religious and official holidays and on weekly rest days.” (b) “Ministerial Order of 2011 Concerning Occupations that are Dangerous or Tiring or Harmful to the Health of Youth”, which are prohibited for children under 18.
8.Kuwait		In force	In force	6–14	15				Completed list	

9. Lebanon	In force	In force	In force	6–15	13	6 hours per day	16 and 18	-	Completed list	Labour Code: - Max 6 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 7 pm to 7 am - 13 hours continuous rest between 2 working days - No work on weekly and official holidays - 21 days paid annual leave(under the condition to be working in the enterprise for more than one year), of which minimum 14 continuous - Vocational education institutions can admit children as of 12 years of age, under certain conditions. Decree 8987/2012 (hazardous work list for under 16 and under 18)
10. Libya	In force	In force	In force	6–14	15				Completed list	
11. Mauritania	In force	In force	In force	6–11	14	-	18	-	Completed list	Labour code (2004) - Minimum age is 14 - The labour code allows children aged 12 and above to work exceptionally in fishing with family members under certain conditions: (1) permit from the Minister, (2) does not affect compulsory education, (3) does not affect their health and normal development, (4) not more than 2 hours per day. Hazardous work list (Labour code Art. 247 combined with list issued by Ministerial decision)

12. Morocco	In force	In force	In force	6–14	15	-	18	-	Completed list	Labour code (65.99 of 2003): - Minimum age - Hazardous work is forbidden unless there is a special permit given by the labour inspector. - At least 12 hours continuous night rest (including from 9 pm to 6 am) - 24 days paid annual leave Hazardous work list (decree 2.10.183 of 2010) Special legislation has been adopted for domestic workers and workers in the traditional sector Minimum age 16 and maximum 40 hours a week for domestic workers (Law 19.12 of 2016) Law No.14.27 of 2016 related to human trafficking Decree No.2.17..355 of 2017 to define prototype contracts for domestic work Decree No.2.17.356 of 2017 defines a list of prohibited work including domestic work between 16 and 18yrs.old
13. Oman	In force	In force	In force	-	15	6 hours per day	18	-	Light work list (Ministerial Decision 217/2016)	Labour code 35/2003 - Max 6 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 6 pm to 6 am - 30 days paid annual leave

15. Qatar	In force	In force	In force	6–18	16	6 hours per day	18	-	General prohibition in article 87 of the labour code, which stipulates that the Minister shall issue a detailed hazardous work list.	Labour code 2004 and its amendments - Max 6 hours of work per day (4 hours during Ramadan) - Max 3 hours in a row - Cannot spend more than 7 hours in a row at work - No work from sunset to sunrise - No work on weekly or official holiday
16. Saudi Arabia	In force	In force	In force	6–14	15				No list but general prohibition	
17. Somalia	In force	Not in force	In force		15 12 (exceptional cases) (a)	-	16 18 (b)	-	No detailed list (but specific legal provisions)	a) Labour Code Article 93: "(1) It shall be unlawful to employ children under the age of 15 years (…) (2) Notwithstanding the provisions of the preceding paragraph, the Secretary may authorise the employment of children of not less than 12 years of age, on condition that the work is compatible with the proper protection, health and moral welfare of such children and in cases where it is necessitated by special business or local conditions, by the special technical requirements of the work, or is essential to the learning of the trade." (b) Labour Code Article 94: "(1) The minimum age for employment on a vessel as a trimmer or stoker or on underground work in quarries or mines shall be 18 years (…) (2) Young persons under the age of 16 years shall not be employed on work done on flying scaffolds or portable ladders in connection with the construction, demolition, maintenance or repair of buildings."
18. Sudan	In force	In force	In force	6–13					No list but commencing the process	

19. Syrian Arab Republic	In force	In force	In force	6–14	15	6 hours	18	-	Completed list	Labour code (2010) - Max 6 hours of work per day - Min one-hour break (not necessarily continuous) - Max 3 consecutive hours of work - 30 days paid annual leave - Exception: juveniles working in domestic industries restricted to family members, under the supervision of the father, mother, brother or uncle. Article 16 of the Agricultural Relations Law No. 56 "prohibits the employment of children in agricultural work prior to the age of 15 and they are also not allowed to access work premises". Decision No. 972/2006 (hazardous work list) Decision No. 297/2007 (light work in agriculture)
20. Tunisia	In force	In force	In force	6–14	13 14 16	2 hours	18	-	Completed list	Labour code - Minimum age 16, except for domestic work, work in family enterprise (including agriculture, but mining is prohibited), or in the framework of education. - Art. 55: Minimum age 13 for light agricultural work - Art. 56: Minimum age 13 for non-industrial and non-agricultural light-work for maximum 2 hours per day (a light work list is yet to be issued in additional to the number of work hours for children aged 16 to 18) - Art: 77–78: Work is forbidden for all children under 18 in mining, quarrying and old metal depot and transformation - Art. 65–66: Night work is forbidden. 14 hours consecutive for children under 14 and 12 hours consecutive for children aged 14 to 18 - Art. 67: Night work is allowed for children aged 16 to 18 in exceptional cases Ministry of Social Affairs Decision of 19 January 2000 (hazardous work list)

21. United Arab Emirates	In force	In force	In force	6–11	15				Completed list	Law No. 3 of 2016 on the rights of the child. Article 14: 1- It is forbidden to employ children before the age of 15. 2- It is forbidden to economically exploit or employ children in any hazardous activity be it by its nature or due to the working conditions. Article 38 (2): It is forbidden to employ children in illegal conditions.
22. Yemen	In force	In force	In force	14–6	14	6 hours per day	18	-	Completed list	Ministerial Decree No. 2004/56 (amended by Ministerial Decree No. 2013/11) - Max 6 hours per day - Max 4 hours in a row - Min one-hour break - No work from 7 pm to 7 am - 24 hours continuous weekly break - 40 days paid annual leave (30 continuous), similar to other workers

Note: This table provides an overview of the main elements of the legal definition of child labour as per national legal provisions (minimum age, hours of work and hazardous work list). It allows a preliminary comparison and assessment of the main legislative and regulatory gaps, which may provide the basis for further national and regional efforts for the harmonization of legal frameworks with international standards.

This table does not however cover all aspects of child protection pertaining to child labour such as provisions related to the worst forms of child labour, early marriage, and other relevant aspects of child protection.

Sources:

UN CRC Status: http://indicators.ohchr.org

Status of ILO Conventions: ILO website (NORMLEX)

Compulsory Education Age: UNESCO UIS website

Minimum age for light work: ILO website; country questionnaires; national legislation.

Status of official list of hazardous work: ILO (2011). Children in hazardous work: What we know, what we need to know (Geneva, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC)); country questionnaires; national legislation.

Child Labor in the Arab Region
Resolution of SESD Arab Summit
Beirut 21-01-2019

At its 4th Ordinary Session, Economic and Social Development Arab Summit,

Having considered

- The General Secretariat memorandum
- The Secretary General's report regarding joint economic, social and development Arab action
- The two decisions by the Economic and Social Council Nos. 2187 D R (102) dated 6/9/2018 and 2209 D RS dated 20/12/2018
- The decision of the Arab Social Affairs Council of Ministers No. 854 DR dated 5/12/2018
- The recommendations issued by the Arab Childhood Committee at its two sessions (21) held in Sharm El Sheikh in January 2016 and (22) held in Rabat in September 2018 on 'Child labor in the Arab Region'.
- The outcome of the joint permanent deputies and senior officials meeting and the joint summit preparatory meeting of the foreign ministers and the ministers concerned with economic and social council,

And after hearing the clarifications made by the General Secretariat,

And in the light of the discussions

Decides the following

Adoption of the recommendations issued by the study on 'Child Labor in the Arab Region' in accordance with the enclosed wording, as a guidance document for supporting the efforts made by member states to eliminate this phenomenon.

K.K. 63 DR –C3- 20/1/2019

عمل الأطفال في المنطقة العربية

إن مؤتمر القمة العربية التنموية: الاقتصادية والاجتماعية في دورته العادية الرابعة،

- **بعد اطلاعه على:**
  - مذكرة الأمانة العامة،
  - تقرير الأمين العام عن العمل الاقتصادي والاجتماعي والتنموي العربي المشترك،
  - قراري المجلس الاقتصادي والاجتماعي رقم (2187) د.ع (102) بتاريخ 2018/9/6، ورقم (2209) د.غ.ع بتاريخ 2018/12/20،
  - قرار مجلس وزراء الشؤون الاجتماعية العرب رقم (854) د.ع (38) بتاريخ 2018/12/5،
  - التوصيات الصادرة عن لجنة الطفولة العربية في دورتيها (21): شرم الشيخ: يناير/ كانون ثان 2016، و(22): الرباط: سبتمبر/ أيلول 2018، بشأن "عمل الأطفال في المنطقة العربية"،
  - نتائج أعمال الاجتماع المشترك للمندوبين الدائمين وكبار المسؤولين والاجتماع المشترك لوزراء الخارجية والوزراء المعنيين بالمجلس الاقتصادي والاجتماعي للتحضير للقمة،
- **وبعد الاستماع إلى إيضاحات الأمانة العامة،**
- **وفي ضوء المناقشات،**

يُقـرّر

اعتماد التوصيات الصادرة عن دراسة "عمل الأطفال في المنطقة العربية" بالصيغة المرفقة، كوثيقة استرشادية لدعم جهود الدول الأعضاء للقضاء على هذه الظاهرة.

(ق. ق: 63 د.ع (4) – ج 3 – 2019/1/20)

Emphasizing the values, principles and objectives contained in the regional and international conventions and charters concerned with the rights of children in general and combating child labour in particular, with a commitment to the objective of Sustainable Development Goal 8.7 (Combating Child Labour and Forced Labour) to end all forms of child labour by 2025, and recognizing the need to protect future generations and enforce their rights, the League of Arab States, together with its partners from Arab and other international organizations (International Labour Organization, Arab Labour Organization, Arab Council for Childhood and Development and the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations), has produced this study – Child Labour in the Arab Region. Based on national statistics, data, reports and key informants, the report provides an overview of the main characteristics of child labour among different sectors of economic activity in the Arab region, which contains the member countries of the League of Arab States. The report also examines the impact of armed conflict and population displacement on child labour, and concludes with a number of policy analyses. Several recommendations are proposed to address the issue of child labour in the region, the most important of which is to develop a regional strategy to combat the worst forms of child labour.

Our children .. our future